

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE PELOTAS**  
**Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Ambientais**



Dissertação

**PROSPECÇÃO DE PLANTAS PARA FITORREMEDIAR ÁREAS DE  
MINERAÇÃO CONTAMINADAS COM METAIS PESADOS NA REGIÃO DE  
CAÇAPAVA DO SUL (RS)**

**Thays França Afonso**

Pelotas, 2019

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CONTAMINADAS COM METAIS PESADOS NA REGIÃO DE CAÇAPAVA DO SUL  
(RS)**

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Dedico este trabalho a minha mãe Mery Maria  
Ferreira de França, a minha família e ao meu  
orientador.

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## **RESUMO**

Afonso, Thays França. **Prospecção de plantas para fitorremediar áreas de mineração contaminadas com metais pesados na região de Caçapava do Sul (RS).** 2019. 134f. Dissertação (Mestrado em Ciências Ambientais) – Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Ambientais, Centro de Engenharias, Universidade Federal de Pelotas, Pelotas, 2019.

A atividade de mineração é de fundamental importância para o crescimento econômico do Brasil. Mais especificamente, no Estado do Rio Grande do Sul existem diversas mineradoras, dentre elas, algumas com o foco na exploração de minerais metálicos, que são matérias-primas utilizadas nos processos metalúrgicos. A mineração de cobre em Caçapava do Sul-RS durou cerca de 100 anos e trouxe destaque nacional por suprir o mercado com esse metal. Contudo, este tipo de atividade antrópica torna-se um problema para a sociedade ao expor metais pesados no solo e nas águas, sem uma intervenção adequada causando contaminação ambiental. Assim, essa dissertação teve por objetivo a identificação de plantas capazes de fitorremediar áreas de mineração contaminadas por metais pesados, nas Minas do Camaquã, região de Caçapava do Sul-RS. A metodologia a ser empregada consiste em análise por ICP, de metais pesados encontrados em rejeito e plantas na região de mineração nas Minas do Camaquã. Pelos resultados obtidos foi possível perceber a existência de plantas adaptadas com potencial fitorremediador na área em questão e deste modo, os estudos da aplicação da fitorremediação em áreas contaminadas pela mineração auxiliarão no conhecimento técnico para solucionar os impactos das atividades de mineração cujos rejeitos sejam metais pesados.

**Palavras-chave:** Metais Pesados; Fitorremediação; Poluição Ambiental; Mineração.

## **ABSTRACT**

Afonso, Thays França. **Prospecting of plants for phytoremediation of mining areas contaminated with heavy metals in the region of Caçapava do Sul (RS).** 2019. 134f. Dissertation (Master Degree em Ciências Ambientais) – Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Ambientais, Centro de Engenharias, Universidade Federal de Pelotas, Pelotas, 2019.

The mining activity presents importance for the economic growth of Brazil. More specifically, in the state of Rio Grande do Sul, there are several mining companies, some of which are focused on the exploitation of metallic minerals, which are raw materials used in metallurgical processes. Copper mining in Caçapava do Sul-RS lasted about 100 years and was highlighted for supplying the national consumption of this metal. However, this type of anthropic activity becomes a problem for society by exposing heavy metals to soil and water without proper intervention causing environmental contamination. Thus, this project has the objective of identifying plants capable of phytoremediate mining tailing areas contaminated by heavy metals, in Camaquã Mines, Caçapava do Sul-RS. The methodology to be used consists of ICP analysis of heavy metals found in tailings and plants in the mining region of Camaquã Mines. The results showing there are adapted plants with phytoremediation potential in the area in question, thus, studies of the application of phytoremediation in areas contaminated by mining will assist in the technical knowledge to solve the impacts of the mining activities whose wastes are heavy metals.

**Key-words:** Heavy metals; Phytoremediation; Environment pollution; Mining.

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## **1 INTRODUÇÃO**

A atividade de mineração é de fundamental importância para o crescimento econômico do Brasil (ARAUJO; FERNANDES, 2016; ROCHA et al., 2018). No Estado do Rio Grande do Sul existem diversas mineradoras, dentre elas, algumas com o foco na exploração de minerais metálicos, que são matérias-primas utilizadas nos processos metalúrgicos (BRASIL, 2016). Nesse caso, a importância desses minérios vai além do caráter econômico, pois são eles imprescindíveis à manutenção da qualidade de vida e aos avanços tecnológicos da sociedade moderna (BOECHAT, 2014; CÉSAR, 2017).

A mineração de cobre em Caçapava do Sul-RS durou cerca de 100 anos e trouxe destaque nacional ao suprir o mercado com esse metal. Contudo, esse tipo de atividade antrópica torna-se um problema para a sociedade ao liberar metais pesados no solo e nas águas, sem uma intervenção adequada causando contaminação ambiental (KHALIL et al., 2008; ANGELOVICOVÁ; FAZEKASOVÁ, 2014; AMADO; CHAVES FILHO, 2015; DEMKOVÁ; JEZNÝ; BOBUL'SKÁ, 2017).

O acúmulo destes metais em áreas onde ocorre o beneficiamento do minério reduzem a capacidade produtiva da área, devido a fitotoxicidade dos metais pesados, e podem causar danos à saúde humana (AZEVEDO; LEA, 2005; BOECHAT, 2014; KOHZADI et al., 2019). Além disso, nesta região existe uma área de rejeito da mina desativada, a qual se explotava o cobre. Atualmente, uma área contígua a esta região que explorava cobre, encontra-se em processo de Licenciamento Ambiental para dar início a exploração de metais pesados como Chumbo, Zinco e Prata.

Diante disso, para intervir no processo de contaminação é preciso conhecer os tipos de resíduos da mineração que se classificam como rejeito e estéril. Quando parte do minério, após passar pelo beneficiamento, não é aproveitado economicamente ele passa a ser classificado como rejeito, e, quando se tem minérios com pouco ou nenhum mineral útil, chama-se estéril (IBRAM, 2016).

Esse rejeito, nos processos de mineração é proveniente da técnica de flotação utilizada no beneficiamento de cobre nas Minas do Camaquã. Atualmente, esta técnica vem sendo muito utilizada em escala industrial.

Segundo Bos e Quast (2000) além do problema ambiental já ocasionado por questão dos rejeitos, a técnica de flotação, que por vezes utiliza o óleo diesel como o auxiliar de coletor expondo solos e águas, há mais uma possibilidade de contaminação, pois no rejeito pode ser incorporado resquícios do óleo que tem em sua composição: enxofre, hidrocarbonetos (BTEX) e poliaromáticos (PAH's) que são elementos poluentes e tóxicos (MARIANO, 2006).

Esse rejeito final contém materiais sólidos e água que, devido às altas concentrações de determinados elementos químicos, podem ser considerados contaminantes. De modo geral, polui o meio ambiente por meio de drenagem ácida, infiltração dos contaminantes no solo, nos corpos hídricos superficiais e subterrâneos, alterando o equilíbrio ambiental e afetando a biota (DUARTE, 2008; GOVIL; KRISHNA, 2018; VIERS et al., 2018). Assim, o processo de beneficiamento gera rejeitos com alto grau de toxicidade, partículas dissolvidas e em suspensão, metais pesados e reagentes (LOZANO, 2006; YIN et al., 2018; YUAN et al., 2018).

Quanto aos metais pesados, sua liberação causa um desequilíbrio formando biomoléculas (complexos estáveis) que conseguem se acumular e permanecer no solo por longos períodos, prejudicando a qualidade do solo e sua capacidade produtiva, pois interferem nos processos microbianos essenciais na ciclagem de nutrientes, além de serem fitotóxicos para as plantas (SILVA; VITTI, 2008; PANDEY, 2018).

Diante de tantos problemas ambientais ocasionados pelos processos de contaminação dos solos ou água, tornou-se necessário o desenvolvimento de tecnologias de descontaminação. Uma dessas tecnologias é a Biorremediação. A Biorremediação refere-se ao uso de processos biodegradativos para remover poluentes que se encontraram no meio ambiente (solos, águas ou sedimentos), e que podem ameaçar a saúde pública (CRAWFORD L.; CRAWFORD D, 2005; JACOB et al., 2018).

Dentro dos processos de Biorremediação existe uma técnica que vem sendo empregada na recuperação de áreas contaminadas por metais, essa técnica é a Fitorremediação, definida como um processo que usa plantas para transferir, estabilizar, ou degradar os poluentes do solo, sedimentos, águas superficiais e

lençóis freáticos. Estas plantas Fitorremediadoras tem a capacidade de Fitoextrair, Fitoestabilizar, Fitoacumular, Rizofiltrar e/ou Rizodegradar metais pesados em solos ou águas contaminadas (MARQUES; MOREIRA; SIQUEIRA, 2000; PRASAD, 2015; BOECHAT et al., 2016; HRYNKIEWICZ et al., 2018).

As plantas Fitorremediadoras tem a capacidade de mitigar as concentrações e/ou os efeitos tóxicos de contaminantes no meio ambiente, já que elas têm uma maior tolerância à toxicidade do meio, fazendo com que o seu uso seja cada vez mais requisitado como forma de descontaminação (ALI; KHAN; SAJAD, 2013; BABU; KIM; OH et al., 2013; PANDEY, 2013).

A escolha da planta fitorremediadora apropriada para a extração de um determinado metal pesado, é ponto chave na utilização da técnica, devendo-se no uso da fitoextração dar a devida importância a quesitos como: habilidade de hiperacumular metais extraídos (preferencialmente nas partes aéreas); tolerância às altas concentrações dos metais no solo; rápido crescimento e alta produção de biomassa, e ser de fácil colheita (MARCHIOL et al., 2004; GUILHERME et al., 2005; NASCIMENTO; XING, 2006).

## **2 OBJETIVOS**

### **2.1 Objetivo geral**

O objetivo geral é identificar plantas capazes de fitorremediar áreas de mineração contaminadas por metais pesados (Minas do Camaquã, região de Caçapava do Sul-RS), bem como caracterizar o uso dessas plantas na recuperação dessas áreas.

#### **2.1.1 Objetivos específicos**

- ❖ Analisar físico-químicamente o rejeito da mineração de cobre onde às espécies de plantas foram amostradas;
- ❖ Identificar espécies vegetais terrestres tolerantes ou adaptadas ao ambiente contaminado por metais pesados em área de mineração nas Minas do Camaquã, cidade de Caçapava do Sul-RS;
- ❖ Determinar as concentrações de metais na biomassa das espécies vegetais;
- ❖ Avaliar a capacidade de remoção dos metais pesados pelas espécies amostradas;
- ❖ Identificar a espécie vegetal com o melhor potencial fitorremediador e especificar o tipo de mecanismo de fitorremediação da mesma.

### **3 HIPÓTESES**

Há espécies de plantas, adaptadas á área de rejeito de mineração de cobre (Região das Minas do Camaquã), com potencial para aplicação em fitorremediação.

As plantas identificadas com potencial fitorremediador na região das Minas do Camaquã podem ser uma alternativa para descontaminação de áreas que contêm metais pesados.

## **4 REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA**

### **4.1 Mineração de cobre nas Minas do Camaquã**

O município de Caçapava do Sul ficou bem conhecido por causa de uma jazida de cobre nas Minas do Camaquã (distrito de Caçapava do Sul), que explotou o cobre entre os anos de 1865 a 1996. A jazida se localiza a 70 km da sede do município em uma área de grande beleza cênica e formações rochosas (PAIM, 2002).

O cobre foi o principal metal explorado nas Minas do Camaquã, sendo um elemento químico que em seu estado puro (cobre nativo) raramente é encontrado na natureza, estando na maioria das vezes associados a outros elementos em diferentes formas estruturais, formando outros minerais (VEIGEL; DADENNE, 1990; RIBEIRO, 2001; BORBA et al., 2008).

Na mineração, o beneficiamento do minério de cobre consiste em uma série de procedimentos para separar os elementos dentro dos minerais, por exemplo, retirar o cobre contido em minerais como bornita e calcopirita. Os processos de separação mineral (beneficiamento) estão atrelados à forma a qual os minerais se encontram (oxidada ou sulfetada). Quando estão na forma sulfetada, usa-se a técnica de flotação que propicia um concentrado do elemento químico com altos teores e com uma grande recuperação mineral no final do processo. Em geral na técnica de flotação tem uma recuperação de 90% do teor de cobre existente no minério sulfetado, assim os 10% restantes de cobre vão para a barragem de rejeitos (CHAVES, 2013; TRINDADE et al., 2015).

Os rejeitos dos efluentes gerados advindos do processo de beneficiamento (flotação) foram descartados em uma barragem de rejeitos situada nas Minas do Camaquã a 70 km de Caçapava do Sul. Esta barragem compreende uma área de 122,28 ha, que recebeu durante 13 anos todo o material efluente do sistema de flotação que totalizou uma massa de material com 21.874.944 toneladas (ABIB, 1979).

Nas barragens de rejeitos estão dispostos materiais sólidos e água que podem ser vistos como contaminantes se liberados no meio ambiente, podendo provocar drenagem ácida, infiltração de contaminantes como os metais no solo percolando para as águas superficiais/subsuperficiais, alterando o equilíbrio ambiental e afetando tanto a biota local (DUARTE, 2008; TRINDADE et al., 2015).

Em área contigua as Minas do Camaquã (mineração de cobre) pretende-se instalar uma nova mina de Chumbo, Zinco e Prata, que provavelmente produzirão rejeitos ricos em arsênio dentre outros (FARIAS, 2002).

Trabalhos realizados por Bitar (1997) e Bitar, Lyomasa e Junior (2000), na região Metropolitana de São Paulo demonstraram que as minas desativadas (parcialmente ou totalmente inundadas), estavam sujeitas à deposição desordenada de resíduos, gerando a contaminação do solo e das águas superficiais ou subterrâneas por metais pesados, colocando em risco a saúde da população do entorno.

Em conformidade Bernadino, Capitani e Gitahy (2004) constataram que mesmo após a desativação de uma mina no Alto Vale do Ribeira (SP), a população continuava convivendo com várias fontes de poluição ambiental, como o Chumbo e Arsênio, gerados da atividade de beneficiamento e refino do mineral, além das emissões de metais para atmosfera e posterior deposição dos particulados, pois estas emissões contaminaram os solos em áreas habitadas por essas populações e, os processos de lixiviação carrearam elementos aos rios da região.

Análises feitas em um corpo hídrico da Região de Caçapava do Sul, o arroio João Dias, constataram que as atividades de mineração na Mina de Cobre (desativada) aumentaram os fluxos semanais naturais de metais pesados em 5424 kg (60%) de fluxo total, 1542 kg (49%) de fluxo da fração dissolvida e 3881 kg (66%) de fluxo da fração particulada. O fluxo total de metais gerados pelas atividades humanas se deve principalmente ao Fe, seguido por Cu > Zn > Mn, enquanto os fluxos de Cd, As e Pb foram desprezíveis no estudo feito por Bidone et al. (2001). Vale ressaltar que os valores dos índices de As e Pb provavelmente se aumentará com a abertura da mina de Chumbo e Zinco em Caçapava do Sul (RS).

Diante dessas situações descritas anteriormente existe uma grande preocupação ambiental quanto os impactos advindos da mineração que por vezes descartam metais pesados nos solos e na água, surgindo cada vez mais à

necessidade de estudos quanto ao descarte adequado e tratamento desses resíduos da mineração dispostos no meio ambiente.

#### **4.2 Metais Pesados**

O termo metal pesado tem sido usado por muitos anos e refere-se ao grupo de metais e metalóides com alta massa atômica ( $>5 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ) especialmente os metais de transição, como Pb, Cd e Hg que podem causar problemas de toxicidade para as plantas e animais (KEMP, 1998; DUFFUS, 2002). Alguns não-metais, como As, Sb e Se são incluídos dentro do grupo dos metais pesados embora tenham a aparência e/ou algumas das propriedades dos metais, mas se comportam quimicamente como não metais (ALLOWAY, 2013).

Alguns metais são considerados essenciais para plantas e/ou animais precisando estar em quantidades adequadas. Um exemplo disso são os Oligominerais sendo um conjunto de elementos químicos inorgânicos necessários aos seres vivos em pequenas quantidades. Eles desempenham diversas funções metabólicas no organismo, como a formação de enzimas vitais aos mais diversos processos bioquímicos realizados pelas células (NUNES; TAMURA, 2012; BUTNARIU, 2018).

Normalmente utiliza-se o termo oligominerais para se referir aos nutrientes essências para os organismos vivos. Os Oligominerais ocorrem normalmente em concentrações relativamente baixas (geralmente  $<100 \text{ mg/kg}^{-1}$ ) na matéria seca de organismos vivos. Alguns exemplos de oligominerais são Fe, Co, I, Zn, Se, Cr, Cu, Mo, F, Mn dentre outros. Outra definição para o termo metal pesado é descrito do ponto de vista geoquímico como sendo todos os elementos de rastreamento, ou seja, eles normalmente ocorrem em traços (geralmente  $<1.000 \text{ mg/kg}^{-1}$ ) em rochas e solos (exceto para concentrações naturais em minerais de minério, que formam os depósitos minerais) (NUNES; TAMURA, 2012; ALLOWAY, 2013).

A distribuição dos minerais ocorre de modo natural no meio ambiente, sendo eles importantes na manutenção de diversas funções ecológicas tais como, regulação dos processos biológicos onde agem como componentes estruturais nas proteínas dentre outras funções (SIZER; WHITNEY, 2003; BUTNARIU, 2018). É importante considerar as concentrações e os teores limites destes elementos, para

que estes, não interfiram nas funções ecológicas, tornando-se tóxicos para as plantas ou os animais (GUILHERME et al., 2005; TCHOUNWOU et al., 2012). A Tabela 1 mostra a relação entre os metais pesados e suas características toxicológicas diante das fontes poluidoras.

Tabela 1 - Metais pesados, principais fontes poluidoras e características toxicológicas advindas pela exposição.

Íon	Algumas fontes poluidoras	Características toxicológicas
<b>As - Arsênio</b>	Herbicidas, inseticidas, fungicidas, mineração tintas, corantes	A toxicidade depende da forma do composto, se orgânico ou inorgânico. Quando o arsênio esta nas formas trivalentes é mais tóxico do que na forma pentavalentes.
<b>Cd - Cádmio</b>	Combustíveis fósseis, efluentes industriais, inseticidas, lubrificantes, galvanoplastia.	Câncer de pulmão e edema pulmonar letal em caso de inalação de Cd em altas concentrações.
<b>Cu - Cobre</b>	Corrosão de tubulações, esgoto doméstico, fungicidas, algicidas, pesticidas, fundição e refinamento de metais.	Queimação gástrica, vômitos, náuseas, diarréias, lesões no trato gastrointestinal e anemia hemolítica.
<b>Zn - Zinco</b>	Mineração, galvanoplastia, incineração de resíduos, esgotos domésticos, produção de ferro e aço.	O acúmulo de Zn no organismo causa deficiências profundas, como distúrbio gastrointestinal e diarréia.
<b>Pb - Chumbo</b>	Mineração, efluentes industriais, tintas, tabaco, metalurgia, tubulações, industriais de eletrodeposição.	Os efeitos do chumbo no organismo são diminuição do quociente de inteligência, disfunção no sistema nervoso com déficit nas funções cognitivas, podem ocorrer partos prematuros dentre outros.

Fonte: Modificada de Boechat, 2014.

Alguns micronutrientes do tipo metais pesados são absorvidos pelas plantas, sendo classificados como essenciais, como por exemplo, o cobre, ferro, manganês, molibdênio e zinco, já os elementos classificados como benéficos (Cobalto, Níquel, Vanádio) promovem o desenvolvimento das plantas, porém a sua falta na nutrição vegetal não é considerada um fator limitante. Os metais As, Cd, Cr, Pb, Hg, Pu, Sb, Ti e U não apresentam função biológica, mesmo que não causem danos em baixas

concentrações, são tóxicos em altas concentrações para as plantas (GONÇALVES JUNIOR; PESSOA, 2002; NAGAJYOTI; LEE; SREKANTH, 2010; NAVA et al., 2011).

A toxicidade está relacionada com a capacidade de um elemento ou substância química ter um efeito danoso seja as plantas ou animais, ou seja, toxicidade é considerada um sinônimo de venenoso (HOGSON, 2004).

O fato dos metais pesados possuírem características e comportamentos específicos, uma vez que a sua estrutura atômica apresenta orbitais *d* livres, que funcionam como aceptores de elétrons, isso faz com que a sua forma e o seu comportamento no meio ambiente seja cada vez mais estudado, pois as interações deles com os elementos do meio definirão quão tóxicos serão para os seres vivos (GUILHERME et al., 2005; HUSSAIN et al., 2019). Em função do intenso acúmulo desses metais pesados devido às atividades antrópicas, seja no solo ou na água, eles vem se tornando uma preocupação mundial (GRATÃO et al., 2005).

#### **4.2.1 Metais pesados nos solos**

Existe uma diversidade de produtos químicos advindos de processos industriais como solventes clorados, pesticidas, metais pesados dentre outros, que tem sido encontrado no meio ambiente, seja no solo, água ou ar (MANSOUR; GADE, 2010). Estes produtos são motivos de muita atenção por parte da população, já que, os metais pesados, por exemplo, podem afetar a saúde humana por serem carcinogênicos, tóxicos e podem ser frutos de mutagenicidade (LIM; SCHOENUNG, 2010; GUPTA et al., 2019).

Em função de serem muito reativos quimicamente os metais pesados não são muito fáceis de serem encontrados na natureza em sua condição pura, geralmente eles estão associados a outros elementos químicos e em baixas concentrações, formando minerais e rochas (ALLOWAY, 2013; BOECHAT, 2014). Assim, a origem e os processos de formação dos solos, rochas e minerais, condicionaram a concentração total inicial dos metais pesados nos mesmos (KABATA-PENDIAS; PENDIAS, 2001; ALLOWAY, 2013).

Os processos envolvidos na liberação dos elementos químicos das rochas ocorrem por meio do intemperismo que é um conjunto de processos físico químico ou biológicos, a fim de, promover a desintegração e decomposição das rochas e

minerais na superfície da terra. Nos materiais já intemperizados ocorrem processos pedogenéticos influenciados por fatores como tempo, clima, relevo, material de origem e organismos, para a formação dos solos (WINEGARDNER, 1995; TOLEDO; OLIVEIRA; MELFI, 2000).

Após a liberação dos metais que possuem características como raio iônico específico, eletronegatividade e estados de oxidação diferenciados, eles podem ser co-precipitados ou precipitados, tornando-se minerais secundários adsorvidos na superfície de outros minerais, nas argilas ou nos óxidos, junto ao ferro, manganês, alumínio ou ainda na matéria orgânica presente nos solos (ALLEONI et al., 2005; ALLOWAY, 2013). Segundo Zhang et al. (2012), a quantidade dos metais pesados nos solos depende da rocha de onde os solos foram formados e afirma que quanto mais desenvolvidos forem os solos, menor será a influência da rocha fonte.

Os metais nos solos podem ser encontrados pela forma trocável, complexados pela matéria orgânica, na forma solúvel, fixados pelos minerais do solo, presentes na biomassa ou precipitados em outros componentes (ALLOWAY, 2013).

A Figura 1 mostra os processos dinâmicos interativos que governam a solubilidade, disponibilidade, mobilidade dos elementos nos solos e suas interações. Em função dessa diversidade que os elementos podem estar no meio, conhecer como estes metais se comportam na solução do solo é de extrema importância, uma vez que o equilíbrio entre a matéria orgânica, as partículas dos solos, as argilas e os hidróxidos de Al, Fe e Mn, além dos quelantes solúveis, influenciarão na mobilidade destes elementos.

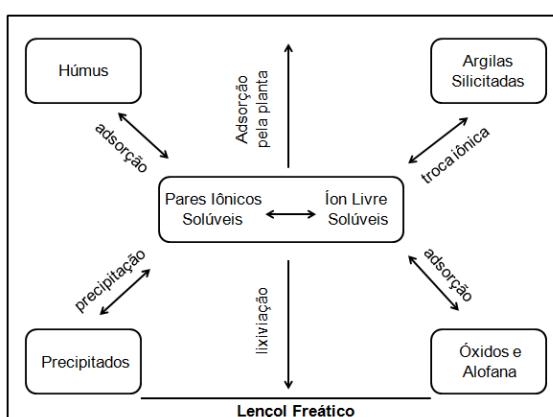


Figura 1 – Processos dinâmicos interativos que governam disponibilidade, solubilidade e mobilidade dos elementos nos solos.

Fonte: McBride, 1994.

A intensidade e a forma como ocorrerá a mobilidade dos metais pesados no solo, depende também de características como pH, temperatura, capacidade de troca catiônica, potencial redox, ligação com ânions e composição, competição com outros metais além da força iônica presente na solução do solo, e principalmente pelos teores de matéria orgânica e inorgânica, já que esta afeta as reações de dissolução, precipitação, adsorção, dessorção, dissolução oxirredução e complexação (CAMARGO; ALLEONI; CASAGRANDE, 2001; OLIVEIRA; MATTIAZZO, 2001; OLIVEIRA; COSTA, 2004).

Alguns autores como Lima e Anderson (1997), Cunningham et al. (1997), Scolmeister (1999), estudaram a distribuição dos metais pesados em solos e, encontraram correlações positivas entre os metais extraídos pelas plantas e o teor de argilas presentes nos solos, e perceberam que esta correlação estava relacionada com a redução do raio iônico dos elementos.

Nos solos Brasileiros estudos como Scolmeister (1999), Fadigas et al. (2002), Campos et al. (2003), reportaram as seguintes concentrações de metais pesados nos solos em termos de média e desvio padrão respectivamente, Cd ( $0.66 \pm 0.19$ ); Cu ( $65 \pm 7.4$ ); Ni ( $18 \pm 12$ ); Pb ( $22 \pm 9$ ); Zn ( $39 \pm 0.19$ ) em  $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ . Diante disso é preciso levar em consideração todos os fatores que influenciam na disponibilidade e mobilidade dos metais pesados, para cada área específica, que se pretende pesquisar e determinar os teores reais de metais nos solos que serão disponibilizados para as plantas no local de estudo.

#### **4.2.2 Comportamento dos metais pesados no solo e biodisponibilidade para as plantas**

O comportamento dos metais pesados nos solos depende dos seus teores disponíveis ou solúveis, o que influencia na mobilidade dos mesmos dentro do sistema solo-planta, podendo ser absorvidos pelas plantas, e em altas concentrações são considerados tóxicos (CAMARGO; ALLEONI; CASAGRANDE, 2001; ALI et al., 2019).

Os metais que estão presentes na solução do solo são regidos pelas reações do solo, composição do solo, cinética das reações no solo, condições de oxi-redução dentre outros fenômenos, que fazem com que estes elementos estejam

biodisponíveis para as plantas e os micro-organismos (CAMARGO; ALLEONI; CASAGRANDE, 2001; TAVARES, 2009; ALI et al., 2019).

Alguns dos fenômenos como adsorção/dessorção, precipitação e dissolução determinam as concentrações dos metais presentes na solução do solo que estarão biodisponíveis. Chang (2002) aponta a adsorção como um dos principais determinantes para a permanência dos metais pesados no solo, conduzindo a disponibilidade, ou seja, a presença de cátions, ânions e moléculas neutras são adsorvidas nas frações orgânicas e minerais do solo, controlando a concentração dos íons e complexos nesta solução, de modo que atua na absorção feita pelas raízes da planta e na sua disponibilidade para o ambiente. Assim, salientam-se as reações do tipo adsorção específica, não específica e complexação com o material orgânico presente no solo (CAMARGO; ALLEONI; CASAGRANDE, 2001; ALLOWAY, 2013).

Essas reações descritas anteriormente, juntamente com outros processos limitaram o acúmulo de metais no solo e, quando este poderá ser transmutado para as plantas, tornando uma preocupação para a população quanto aos riscos à saúde, em função da permanência e toxicidade de alguns metais pesados que contaminem os solos, as plantas e a população (YOON et al., 2006). Algumas plantas que crescem sobre solos contaminados têm a capacidade de reter ou acumular grandes quantidades de metais pesados em sua biomassa, o que demonstra um potencial de risco para os seres vivos, principalmente para aqueles que em sua dieta consomem estas espécies vegetais (ISLAM et al., 2007; HUSSAIN et al. 2019).

As plantas agem como dispositivos capazes de transferir os contaminantes dos solos (metais pesados), para níveis tróficos mais altos em uma cadeia alimentar, e a concentração dos metais pesados nas espécies vegetais varia de acordo com sua disponibilidade no solo, a espécie analisada e a parte da planta (CHANEY; OLIVER, 1996). As espécies vegetais também funcionam como barreira solo-planta para esta transferência de metais. A barreira solo-planta pode ocorrer nas seguintes condições: imobilização dos contaminantes nas raízes das plantas; insolubilidade dos metais nos solos e, fitotoxicidade que diminui o crescimento das plantas podendo levar a morte das mesmas (CHANEY; OLIVER, 1996; KABATA-PENDIAS; PENDIAS, 2001).

Ao longo do tempo os contaminantes podem se tornar estáveis, porque os metais em detrimento aos compostos orgânicos não são degradáveis e mesmo

apresentando certa mobilidade no meio, as plantas podem se adaptar a esses contaminantes fazendo com que elas sejam utilizadas em técnicas de fitorremediação (BALDRIAN, 2010; MAHAR et al., 2016).

O fato desses metais em muitos casos serem oriundos de agentes antrópicos, eles são inseridos novamente no meio ambiente e seguem os ciclos geoquímicos normais presente no sistema solo-planta, e a permanência dos metais que contaminam os solos é muito mais duradoura se comparada com outros elementos dentro do sistema ambiental (VOUTSA; GRIMANIS; SAMARA, 1996; KABATA-PENDIAS; PENDIAS, 2001).

Particularidades presentes nas plantas como a rizosfera que compreende uma área de 1-2 mm estando localizada entre o solo e as raízes da planta, tem a capacidade de incorporar grandes quantidades de matéria orgânica, consequentemente há um aumento da atividade microbiológica e bioquímica que altera as propriedades físico-químicas ao redor do solo próximo a ela (ALLOWAY, 2013).

Deste modo a mobilidade com que o metal interage com o solo e a planta depende da especiação desse metal, ou seja, a fase com que esse elemento se encontra na matriz do solo, e não apenas a sua concentração total no solo (BOSSO; ENZWEILER, 2008; GALAN; ROMERO, 2008). A Tabela 2 mostra as relações entre os atributos do solo e a mobilidade dos elementos-traços.

Tabela 2 - Mobilidade dos metais no solo.

Características no solo	Aspecto	Impacto na mobilidade
<b>Ligantes inorgânicos dissolvidos</b>	Aumento da solubilidade do metal	Aumento
<b>Ligantes orgânicos dissolvidos</b>	Aumento da solubilidade do metal	Aumento
<b>Baixo pH</b>	Redução na adsorção de cátions em óxidos de Fe, Al, Mn	Aumento
	Aumento na adsorção de cátions em óxidos de Fe, Al, Mn	Diminui
	Precipitação crescente de oxianions	Diminui
	Precipitação crescente de cátions como carboidratos e hidróxidos do metal	Diminui
<b>Alto pH</b>	Aumento na adsorção de cátions em óxidos de Fe,	Aumento

	Al, Mn	
	Complexação crescente de alguns cátions por ligantes dissolvidos	Aumento
	Aumento na adsorção de cátions por material humificado sólido	Diminuição
	Redução na adsorção de ânions	Aumento
<b>Alto conteúdo de argila</b>	Aumento na troca catiônica em qualquer valor de pH	Diminuição
<b>Alto conteúdo de húmus</b>	Aumento da complexação para a maioria dos cátions	Diminuição
<b>Presença de óxidos ou de revestimentos de Fe, Al, Mn</b>	Aumento na adsorção de cátions com o aumento de pH	Diminuição
	Aumento na adsorção de ânions com o decréscimo de pH	Diminuição
	Diminuição da solubilidade em baixo pé na forma de sulfetos do metal quando na presença de enxofre (S)	Diminuição
<b>Redox</b>	Aumento da solubilidade de óxidos e hidróxidos de metais divalentes quando comparados com os trivalentes	Aumento
	Diminuição na complexação em solução para os menores estados de oxidação	Aumento
	Redução na adsorção para os menores estados de oxidação	Aumento

Fonte: Guilherme et al., 2005.

Outros fatores que condicionam a quantidade de metais absorvidos pelas plantas foram descritos por Alloway (2013) como o transporte dos metais desde a superfície das raízes até o interior da planta e a translocação dos metais das raízes para a parte aérea da planta.

A capacidade que a planta tem de absorver os metais depende das características das espécies vegetais, da disponibilidade e mobilidade dos metais no solo e especiação dos metais, além dos fluxos de águas e temperatura, porém os metais Cu, Ni, Zn, Se, Mn e P em altos teores podem diminuir a absorção das plantas em função das relações sinérgicas e antagônicas como, por exemplo, o Zn no solo interfere na absorção de Cd pelas plantas (KABATA-PENDIAS; PENDIAS, 2001).

A Tabela 3 mostra as relações do estado de oxidação mineral com as especiações químicas presentes na solução do solo, em solos ácidos e alcalinos e a Tabela 4 mostra as formas redox ativas dos metais na solução do solo.

Fatores como processos passivos - não metabólicos - e os processos ativos - metabólicos - influenciam na absorção de metais pelas plantas, essa absorção passiva acarreta na difusão de íons que estão presentes na solução do solo dentro das endoderme das raízes, e elas se correlacionam com o gradiente de concentração do sistema, o que requer energia metabólica, mas, se tratando dos metais esses mecanismos possuem diferenças, ao passo que o Cu, Mo e o Zn tem uma absorção ativa metabólica, ou uma combinação de ativa e passiva, enquanto que o Pb possui uma combinação ativa (ALLOWAY, 2013; CHANEY; OLIVER, 1996).

Tabela 3 - Especiações dos metais presentes na solução de solos.

Elemento e valência	Solos ácidos	Solos Alcalinos
<b>As (1)</b>	$\text{Ag}^+$ , $\text{AgCl}^3$	$\text{Ag}^+$ , org
<b>As (3)</b>	$\text{As(OH)}_3$	$\text{AsO}_3^{3-}$
<b>As (5)</b>	$\text{H}_2\text{AsO}_4^-$	$\text{HAsO}_4^{2-}$
<b>B (3)</b>	$\text{B(OH)}_3$	$\text{B(OH)}_4^-$
<b>Ba (2)</b>	$\text{Ba}^{2+}$	$\text{Ba}^{2+}$
<b>Be (2)</b>	$\text{Be}^{2+}$	$\text{Be(OH)}_3^-$ , $\text{Be(OH)}_4^{2-}$
<b>Cd (2)</b>	$\text{Cd}^{2+}$ , $\text{CdSO}_4$ , $\text{CdCl}^+$	$\text{Cd}^{2+}$ , $\text{CdCl}^+$ , $\text{CdSO}_4$ , $\text{CdHCO}_3^+$
<b>Co (2)</b>	$\text{Co}^{2+}$ , $\text{CoSO}_4$	$\text{Co(OH)}_2$
<b>Cr (3)</b>	$\text{Cr(OH)}^{2+}$	$\text{Cr(OH)}_4^-$
<b>Cr (6)</b>	$\text{CrO}_4^{2-}$	$\text{CrO}_4^{2-}$
<b>Cu (2)</b>	Org, $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ , $\text{CuCl}^+$	$\text{CuCo}_3$ , org, $\text{CuHCO}_3^+$
<b>Hg (2)</b>	$\text{Hg}^{2+}$ , $\text{Hg(Cl)}_2$ , $\text{CH}_3\text{Hg}^+$	$\text{Hg(OH)}_2$ , org
<b>Mn (2)</b>	$\text{Mn}^{2+}$ , $\text{MnSO}_4$ , org	$\text{Mn}^{2+}$ , $\text{MnSO}_4$ , $\text{MnHCO}_3^+$
<b>Mo (5)</b>	$\text{H}_2\text{MoO}_4$ , $\text{HMnO}_4^-$	$\text{MoO}_4^{2-}$ , $\text{HMnO}_4^-$
<b>Ni (2)</b>	$\text{Ni}^{2+}$ , $\text{NiSO}_4$ , $\text{NiHCO}_3^+$ , org	$\text{NiCo}_3$ , $\text{NiHCO}_3$ , $\text{Ni}^{2+}$
<b>Pb (2)</b>	$\text{Pb}^{2+}$ , org, $\text{PbSO}_4$ , $\text{PbHCO}_3^+$	$\text{PbCO}_3$ , $\text{PbHCO}_3^+$ , org, $\text{Pb(CO}_3)_2$ , $\text{PbOH}^+$
<b>Sb (3)</b>	$\text{Sb(OH)}_2^+$ , $\text{Sb(OH)}_3$	$\text{Sb(OH)}_4^-$
<b>Sb (5)</b>	$\text{Sb(OH)}_5$ , $\text{Sb(OH)}_5^-$	$\text{Sb(OH)}_5^-$
<b>Se (4)</b>	$\text{HSeO}_3^-$	$\text{SeO}_3^{2-}$
<b>Se (6)</b>	$\text{SeO}_4^{2-}$	$\text{SeO}_4^{2-}$
<b>V (4)</b>	$\text{VO}^{2+}$	Oxidado a composto de V(5)

V (5)	VO <sup>2+</sup> , polivanadatos	VO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> , VO <sub>3</sub> (OH) <sup>2-</sup>
Zn (2)	Zn <sup>2+</sup> , ZnSO <sub>4</sub> , org	ZnHCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup> , ZnCo <sub>3</sub> , org, ZnSO <sub>4</sub>

OBS: org = elemento pode estar na forma orgânica

Fonte: Modificada de Guilherme et al., 2005.

Tabela 4 - Formas redox ativas dos metais na solução do solo.

Elemento e valência	Baixo pe	Alto pe*
As (3,5)	AsO <sub>3</sub> <sup>3-</sup> (AsH <sub>3</sub> (g)) ou As(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> (g)	AsO <sub>4</sub> <sup>3-</sup>
Co (2, 3)	Co <sup>2+</sup>	Co <sup>3+</sup>
Cr (3, 6)	Cr <sup>3+</sup>	CrO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>
Np (4, 5)	NpO <sub>2</sub> (s)	NpO <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>
Se (4, 6)	SeO <sub>3</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	SeO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>
Pu (3, 4, 5, 6)	Pu <sup>3+</sup> , PuO <sub>2</sub> (s)	PuO <sub>2</sub> , PuO <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> , PuO <sub>2</sub> <sup>2+</sup>
Sb (3, 5)	Sb(OH) <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	Sb(OH) <sub>5</sub> <sup>+</sup>
U (4, 6)	UO <sub>2</sub> (s)	UO <sub>2</sub> <sup>2+</sup>
V (4, 5)	VO <sup>2+</sup>	VO <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>

\*Potencial redox.

Fonte: Modificada de Guilherme et al., 2005.

Outros fatores como capacidade de troca catiônica e exsudação das mesmas, área superficial das raízes e a taxa de evapotranspiração, influem nos dispositivos de absorção das plantas, e cada espécie vegetal age de forma diferente na captação dos íons (ALLOWAY, 2013). A Tabela 5 mostra quais os controladores que influem na solubilidade dos metais presentes na solução do solo.

Tabela 5 - Alguns possíveis controladores da solubilidade dos metais na solução dos solos.

Elemento	Condições aeróbias	Condições anaeróbias
Ag	AgCl, Ag <sub>2</sub> O (alto pH)	Ag, Ag <sub>2</sub> S
AS	Ca <sub>3</sub> (AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> , Mg <sub>3</sub> (AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> , ASO <sub>5</sub>	As, As <sub>2</sub> S <sub>3</sub> , As <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>
Cd	Cd(OH) <sub>2</sub> , CdCO <sub>3</sub>	Cd, CdS
Co	Co(OH) <sub>2</sub> , CoCO <sub>3</sub> , CoSO <sub>4</sub>	Co(OH) <sub>2</sub> , CoCO <sub>3</sub> , CoSO <sub>4</sub>
Cr	Cr(OH)3, (pH baixo a neutro)	Cr(OH)3
Cu	CuO, CuO <sup>3</sup> , Cu(OH) <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	Cu, CuS, Cu <sub>2</sub> S
Hg	HgCl <sub>2</sub> , HgO, Hg(OH) <sub>2</sub>	Hg, HgS
Mn	MnO <sub>2</sub> , MnOOH, Mn <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Mn(OH) <sub>2</sub> , MnCO <sub>3</sub> , MnS
Mo	FeMoO <sub>4</sub>	FeMoO <sub>4</sub>
Ni	NiO, NiCO <sub>3</sub> , Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub>	Ni, NiS
Pb	PbO, PbCO <sub>3</sub> , Pb <sub>3</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>	Pb, PbS

<b>Se</b>	Muito solúvel	Se, SeO <sub>2</sub>
<b>Si</b>	SiO <sub>2</sub>	SiO <sub>2</sub>
<b>Ti</b>	Ti(OH) <sub>3</sub> , Ti <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Ti <sub>2</sub> S, Ti <sub>2</sub> O
<b>V</b>	V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> , V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> , V(OH) <sub>3</sub>
<b>Zn</b>	Zn, Zn(OH) <sub>2</sub> , ZnCO <sub>3</sub> , ZnSO <sub>4</sub>	ZnS, Zn

Fonte: Modificada de Guilherme et al., 2005.

Assim a disponibilidade dos metais no solo para as plantas depende não somente da sua quantidade global no solo, mas principalmente das características das plantas e dos solos onde estas se encontram, o que limita o grau de contaminação e toxicidade no meio (INTAWONGSE; DEAN, 2005; CHOPIN; ALLOWAY, 2007).

#### **4.3 Adsorção não específica, troca iônica ou ligação eletrostática**

Os principais mecanismos envolvidos na adsorção dos metais nos solos são: troca iônica, adsorção não específica ou de esfera externa; adsorção específica ou de esfera interna; e a complexação com o material orgânico do solo (quelação) (CAMARGO; ALLEONI; CASAGRANDE, 2001; REFAEY, et al., 2017).

Os solos possuem partículas dotadas de cargas elétricas. Essas cargas tendem a se manter em equilíbrio de acordo com o princípio da neutralidade, de modo que se tenha uma quantidade compatível de íons com cargas contrárias, e estas adsorvidas geralmente na superfície dos coloides do solo (ALLOWAY, 2013; REFAEY, et al., 2017).

A adsorção não-específica ou de esfera-externa decorre da ação de forças eletrostáticas entre cátions metálicos presentes na solução do solo e a superfície carregada com cargas negativas dos colóides. Nestas interações eletrostáticas há um íon carregado que entra no campo de influência de uma superfície sólida com carga líquida superficial de sinal contrário (FORD; SCHINOST; SPARKS, 2001; UDDIN, 2017). Esse tipo de adsorção possui baixa energia, ou seja, os metais estão em equilíbrio dinâmico com a solução do solo (VINHAL-FREITAS et al., 2010). Assim a adsorção não específica de íons já descrita por Ji e Li (1997), como sendo desinentes da troca iônica com as outras espécies iônicas.

Para um melhor entendimento, Sposito (1989), define adsorção como um acúmulo de um determinado elemento químico ou substância que está presente entre a interface de uma superfície sólida e uma solução adjacente. Se esta substância que estiver contida na fase líquida, acumular-se na interface sólido-líquido, será denominado como adsorvato, e quando esta estiver sendo removida da fase líquida se denomina absorvente (BOSCOV, 1997; VINHAL-FREITAS et al., 2010).

O mecanismo de formação de complexos de esfera-externa ocorre na adsorção não-específica de cátions metálicos nos solos, no qual ocorre uma atração eletrostática dos íons pelas superfícies dos solos que estão carregadas, sem que haja uma subordinação da configuração eletrônica do grupo funcional da superfície do solo (ALLOWAY, 2013; REFAEY, et al., 2017; UDDIN, 2017; ).

De acordo com Ford, Schinost e Sparks (2001) reações de esfera-externa ou adsorção não-específica são frutos da ação de forças eletrostáticas entre os cátions metálicos presente na solução do solo e a superfície dos coloides carregadas. Sposito (1989) discute que a interação nesse sistema de cargas engloba a adsorção de íons que estão em sua forma hidratada, de maneira que há uma diminuição na energia de ligação que ocorre entre a superfície do solo e um determinado elemento químico, sendo assim a adsorção não específica é pouco estável ou parcialmente fraca, haja vista que a água de hidratação (Solvatação) permanece, porque não há um compartilhamento de elétrons nesse tipo de reação.

Camargo, Raij e Valadares (1982) já enunciava que o montante de cátions que podem ser reversivelmente adsorvidas em formar trocáveis nos solos é denominado como CTC (Capacidade de troca catiônica), ou seja, pode se considerar a CTC de um solo como sendo a soma de bases trocáveis e da acidez total presente no solo. A CTC em um solo possui características como sendo reversível e controlada por difusão iônica, regida pela estequiometria e ocorre certa afinidade de um íon pelo outro em função do raio iônico hidratado e, a energia de hidratação dos cátions possuírem a mesma valência. Quanto maior for o raio iônico hidratado menor será a sua intensidade de retenção na superfície em questão, e os íons que têm maior valência têm maior força de deslocamento, com exceção do hidrogênio (CAMARGO; ALLEONI; CASAGRANDE, 2001).

#### **4.4 Adsorção específica ou de esfera-interna**

A adsorção específica ou de esfera interna é um processo de elevada afinidade que se desenvolve entre a superfície adsorvente e os cátions livre em solução, ou seja, ocorrem trocas entre os metais e os ligantes presentes na superfície dos colóides por meio de ligações covalentes ou iônicas, com os grupos hidroxila ( $\text{OH}$ ) e o oxigênio ( $\text{O}$ ) da superfície do solo. Esses mecanismos envolvidos na adsorção explicam o modo pelo qual se adsorve determinados íons em concentrações superiores à capacidade de troca catiônica do solo (CTC) (YONG; MOHAMED; WARKENTIN, 1992).

A ligação covalente pode ocorrer de duas maneiras, há covalente, onde a um compartilhamento de elétrons das duas espécies iônicas envolvidas, ou a covalente-coordenada onde o compartilhamento ocorre apenas por meio de uma das espécies iônicas envolvidas. Fatores como a valência, raio iônico do cátion e a polaridade que o cátion faz quando submetido a um campo elétrico, interferem no processo de afinidade mineral na adsorção (YONG; MOHAMED; WARKENTIN, 1992).

A adsorção específica é o mecanismo mais comum de ocorrência entre os metais pesados, em especial Cu, Zn, Co e Cd porque eles possuem vasta quantidade de cargas elétricas no núcleo atômico e pequeno raio iônico, ocorrem principalmente nos elementos das famílias IB e IIB (YU; SUN; ZHANG, 1997; BISWAS, et al., 2016). Os processos de esfera interna ocorrem mais frequentemente na adsorção de cátions metálicos, metais pesados, em superfícies como colóides orgânicos, caulinita, óxidos e hidróxidos, oxi-hidróxidos e silicatos amorfos (SPOSITO, 1989).

De acordo com Brummer (1986), os oxi-hidróxidos de ferro, alumínio e Manganês são os componentes de maior intensidade na adsorção específica de metais no solo. Os óxidos mais comuns nesse processo são  $\text{SiO}_2$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , isso em solos tropicais, os óxidos de ferro e manganês são mais fortemente envolvidos na adsorção de metais pesados, o hidróxido de alumínio e o óxido de manganês possuem a capacidade de adsorver metais pesados. Assim, como mecanismos de retenção de metais em alguns solos, superiores aos óxidos de ferro (KABATA-PENDIAS; PENDIAS, 2001; KABATA-PENDIAS, 2010).

O processo de adsorção de metais envolve reações de trocas catiônicas, processos de substituição isomórfica de cátions divalentes ou trivalentes pelos íons de ferro e manganês (BACKES et al., 1995; ALLOWAY, 2013).

Nesse processo de adsorção e retenção de metais ocorrem eventos de competição entre os íons adsorvidos na superfície do solo e os íons em solução, isso envolve vários fatores preponderantes na relação de afinidade desses íons, onde podem ocorrer diversas sequências de afinidade preferencial. Gomes et al. (2001), propôs uma sequência de afinidade de adsorção para solos Brasileiros altamente intemperizados, sendo respectivamente a seletividade em: Cr > Pb > Cu > Cd > Zn > Ni e Pb > Cr > Cu > Cd > Ni > Zn. Essa sequência demonstra os níveis de competição que ocorrem no sistema da solução do solo e as partículas.

#### **4.5 Biorremediação**

Uma das técnicas de descontaminação é a biorremediação, definida como a associação de processos biotecnológicos avançados junto com a engenharia ambiental para resolver ou mitigar os problemas ocasionados pela contaminação no ambiente (BOOPATHY, 2000; AQUINO, 2012; DZIONEK; WOJCIESZNSKA; GUZIK, 2016). Esta técnica consiste na utilização de bactérias, fungos ou plantas capazes de degradar ou reduzir as substâncias perigosas e ou tóxicas para a saúde humana e o meio ambiente (VIDALI, 2001).

Umas das técnicas de biorremediação é a biodegradação, sendo um procedimento ecológico baseado na capacidade metabólica que alguns micro-organismos têm de degradarem os contaminantes bioquimicamente (HUANG et al., 2011). Utiliza-se os micro-organismo na biorremediação pelo fato de eles possuirem enzimas capazes de desentoxicar esses contaminates (GARBISU; ALKORTA, 2003; MOREIRA; SIQUEIRA, 2006; MOSA et al., 2016).

Os micro-organismos podem ser de ocorrência natural na área afetada ou genéticamente modificados e introduzidos nas mesmas, tendo a função de proteger ou restaurar a área contaminda. A aplicação deles na técnica de bioremedação está condicionada à resistência e tolerância dos micro-organismos em manter suas funções metabólicas mesmo quando eles assimilarem os metais pesados presentes

na área contaminada (BOECHAT, 2014; AZUBUIKE; CHIKRE; OKPOKWASILI, 2016).

Os metais pesados permanecem do solo por não serem degradados química ou biologicamente, logo a remediação procura modificar a especiação química para formas ou processos não tóxicos além de remover o metal ou metaloide no ambiente em questão (RAJKUMAR et al., 2012; DIZIONEK; WOJCIESZNSKA; GUZIK, 2016).

Existem diversos mecanismos como precipitação, biomíneralização, bioassorção, produção de sideróforos, bioassufactantes, e proteínas ligantes que implicam na tolerância e resistência dos metais pesados desenvolvidos por micro-organismos, além da possibilidade desses mecanismos justaporem-se na aquisição de metais pesados no meio ambiente (BARKAY; SCHAEFER, 2001; CAMARGO et al., 2007; GADD; PAN, 2016).

A aplicação da técnica de biorremediação para descontaminação de ambientes poluídos com metais pesados pode ser *in-situ* ou *ex-situ*. No procedimento *ex-situ* retira-se o solo ou água contaminada para posterior tratamento enquanto no *in situ* o tratamento é feito na própria área contaminada (KAVAMURA; ESPOSITO, 2010; TOMEI; DAUGULIS, 2013).

Existe um gama de técnicas de biorremediação que estão sendo desenvolvidas nos últimos anos, algumas delas são bioaumentação, bioestimulação, bioventilação dentre outras (LYNCH; MOFFAT, 2005; SUJA et al., 2014).

Ao longo dos anos um grande número de trabalhos de pesquisa validaram a eficácia das técnicas de biorremediação em solos contaminados, principalmente a técnica de fitorremediação aplicada para a remoção ou estabilização de metais pesados nos solos (MEGHARAJ et al., 2011; PRASAD, 2015).

#### **4.5.1 Fitorremediação e seus mecanismos**

A fitorremediação é uma técnica de biorremediação *in-situ* que consiste na utilização de plantas para remover e desintoxicar áreas que contenham contaminantes inorgânicos ou orgânicos, como por exemplo, os metais pesados (USEPA, 2000). É uma técnica relativamente barata, ambientalmente correta e uma estratégia ecológica de reabilitação dessas áreas (DARY et al., 2010; GLICK, 2010; MALIK; RAVINDRAN; SATHIYARAJ, 2017).

Segundo Afzal, Khan e Sessitsch (2014), a fitorremediação beneficia a estabilização dos contaminantes no solo, atua no sequestro de carbono e aumenta a produção de biomassa além da possibilidade de acumular vários poluentes ambientais. Assim, as plantas tratam as áreas contaminadas sem prejudicar a camada superficial do solo, conservando e ou favorecendo a utilidade e a fertilidade do solo.

De acordo com Wang et al. (2017), a fitorremediação é um método eficiente de reduzir o risco ambiental originados dos rejeitos de mineração (como os metais pesados). Ao promoverem a estabilização dos poluentes no solo, melhora a sua qualidade, promovendo um aumento da matéria orgânica e da concentração de nutrientes no mesmo através da atividade biológica presente (TEIXEIRA et al., 2011; GATLIFF et al., 2016).

A aplicação da técnica de fitorremediação pode ser dividida conforme o destino dos contaminantes, como a contenção, extração de biomassa, degradação ou em função dos sistemas envolvidos no processo, tais como: a concentração dos contaminantes no tecido vegetal da planta; a volatilização ou transpiração de contaminantes voláteis das plantas para a atmosfera; a degradação do contaminante por processos bióticos e abióticos; a extração do contaminante do solo e das águas subterrâneas; o controle hidráulico de águas subterrâneas contaminada; o controle do escoamento superficial; a imobilização de contaminantes no sistema radicular da planta; a infiltração por tipos de coberturas vegetais e o controle da erosão dos solos (USEPA, 2000; PRASAD, 2015; HRYNKIEWICZ et al., 2018).

As técnicas de fitorremediação são distinguidas de acordo com as propriedades das espécies vegetais em fitoextraír, fitoestabilizar, fitoacumular, fitovolatilizar, rizofiltrar e fitodegradar (Figura 2) (MARQUES; RANGEL; CASTRO, 2009; MA ET AL., 2011; GATLIFF ET AL., 2016).

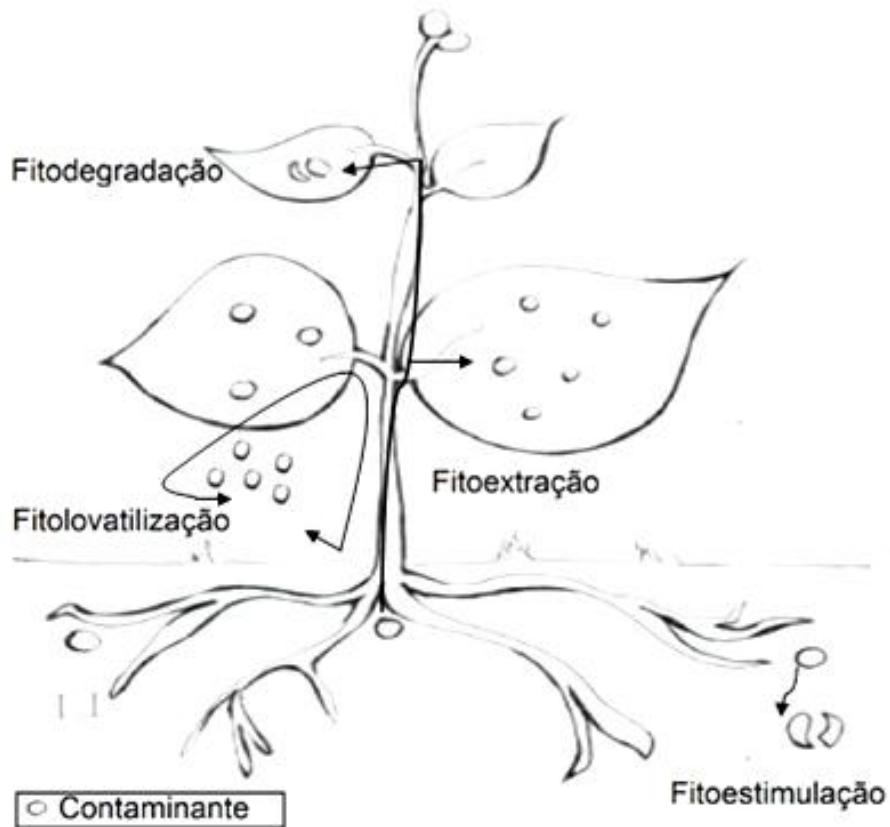


Figura 2 – Mecanismos de fitorremediação.

Na fitoextração as plantas absorvem os contaminantes tais como os metais pesados através de suas raízes e acumulam eles em sua parte aérea sem degradá-los, nesse tipo de extração podem ocorrer acumulação ou hiperacumulação dos metais pesados na biomassa da planta, essa biomassa pode ser colhida e descartada como resíduos perigosos ou ainda incinerada, podendo assim, recuperar os metais contidos na biomassa (GARBISU; ALKORTA, 2001; WANG et al., 2017).

A fitoextração é a mais comum técnica de fitorremediação e a mais empregada para a remoção de metais pesados e metalóides tanto em solos, águas ou sedimentos contaminados. Porém, a fitoextração depende de várias condições, como a biodisponibilidade dos metais pesados no solo ou na solução do solo, assim como das espécies vegetais envolvidas, além dos micro-organismos como fungos e bactérias que podem ser essenciais na biodisponibilidade destes metais às plantas (ALI; KHAN; SAJAD, 2013).

As bactérias associadas na rizosfera ajudam a melhorar as condições de fitoextração, modificando o transporte de metais pesados, nutrientes, solubilidade e

disponibilidade dos metais, reduzindo o pH do solo, altera a liberação de quelantes, potencial redox, solubilização de fosfatos e produção de biosurfactantes, ácidos orgânicos e enzimas (ZHUANG et al., 2007; SHEORAN-V; SHEORAN-A; POONIA, 2016).

As plantas adequadas para fitoextração apresentam propriedades como grande produção de biomassa na parte aérea, elevada taxa de crescimento, sistema radicular bem desenvolvido e ramificado, elevada capacidade de acumulação do metal alvo, alta capacidade de translocação dos metais das raízes para a parte aérea, são resistentes aos efeitos dos metais em seu sistema são adaptadas dentre outros fatores (SHABANI; SAYADI, 2012; ALI; KHAN; SAJAD, 2013; MAHAR et al., 2016). Plantas fitoacumuladoras apresentam a capacidade de acumularem em peso seco 100 mg/kg de Cd, Ti e Se, mais de 300 mg/kg para o Cr, Co; 1.000 mg/kg para o Pb, Cu, As e Ni; 3.000 mg/kg de Zn e mais de 10.000 mg/kg de Mn e Zn (BAKER; BROOKS, 1989; VAN DER ENT et al., 2013).

Na fitoestabilização as plantas promovem um efeito tampão reduzindo a mobilidade e biodisponibilidade dos metais, consequentemente dificulta a entrada deles na cadeia alimentar. A parte aérea da planta tem como uma de suas funções a dispersão eólica, já as raízes imobilizam os metais pesados e evitam a lixiviação, além de ajudar no controle da erosão do solo. Deste modo a fitoestabilização é adequada para os processos de estabilização em longo prazo de metais nos solos que podem ser advindos dos rejeitos de mineração (WANG et al., 2017; GIL-LOAIZA et al., 2016), e em outros casos em que não se possa ter tanto trânsito de máquinas e ou dificuldade de manejo.

A fitovolatilização está na capacidade de determinadas espécies vegetais absorverem poluentes - dentre eles os contaminantes orgânicos e liberá-los para a atmosfera por meio dos estômatos, estes poluentes entram pelas raízes da planta percorrem seu sistema até chegarem às folhas, onde têm a possibilidade de volatilizar os poluentes como, por exemplo, selênio e mercúrio (GARBISU; ALKORTA, 2001; MENDEZ; MAIER, 2008). Esta volatilização feita pelas espécies vegetais necessita-se de cautela, devido ao risco de poluição atmosférica (ANDRADE; TAVARES; MAHLER, 2007; ARYA et al., 2017).

O processo de rizofiltração constitui-se em concentrar e absorver metais nas raízes das plantas, sendo uma técnica aplicada na remediação de ambientes aquáticos. É importante que estas plantas acumulem os metais apenas em suas

raízes, já que a translocação dos metais para a parte aérea da planta (Folhas) pode diminuir a eficiência na rizofiltração (KUMAR et al., 1995; PRASAD; FREITAS, 2003; TIWARI et al., 2019).

Por fim, o processo de fitodegradação age de forma indireta e consiste na planta estimular a biodegradação microbiana dos metais e ou outros contaminantes presentes na água ou solos, por meio dos exsudatos radiculares das plantas e do fornecimento de tecidos vegetais como fonte de energia, além de proporcionar um sombreamento e um aumento na umidade do solo, corroborando o desenvolvimento dos micro-organismos (VALUJEVA et al., 2018).

As plantas fitodegradadoras dispõem de sistemas de raízes grande e densos com altos níveis de enzimas degradadoras, o fato de essas plantas apresentarem grandes áreas de superfície de raízes, beneficiam o crescimento e desenvolvimento microbiano favorecendo a fitoestimulação ou fitodegradação (PILON-SMITS, 2005).

Em função dos tipos de mecanismos de fitorremediação, o seu uso na fitossanidade para remediação de rejeitos de mineração em solos contaminados é cada vez mais estudado, sendo relevante descobrir novas espécies de plantas tolerantes e capazes de efetuar uma biorremediação mais efetiva (WANG et al., 2017; GIL-LOAIZA et al., 2018).

#### **4.5.2 Vantagens e desvantagens da fitorremediação**

A fitorremediação possui inúmeras vantagens e pode ser empregada para solucionar e controlar diversos contaminantes nos solos, em especial os metais pesados. Cita-se as seguintes vantagens descritas pelos autores Khan et al. (2000), Pilon-Smitis (2005), Chaves et al. (2010) e Burges et al. (2018):

- ❖ Técnica de baixo investimento e operação, pois se usa luz solar;
- ❖ Aplica-se em *in-situ* e depois se pode reutilizar a área;
- ❖ Aplicável para diversos tipos de poluentes tais como: pesticidas e herbicidas, hidrocarbonetos de petróleo, metais pesados, compostos organoclorados, radionuclídeos dentre outros;
- ❖ Técnica consolidada e bem aceita pela sociedade, pois mitiga os impactos de degradação e desestabilização de áreas contaminadas; não causa impactos visuais;

- ❖ Diminui as perturbações no meio, pois evita o tráfego pesado de escavações;
- ❖ Podem ser aplicadas em grandes áreas;
- ❖ Melhoria da qualidade do solo em termos de suas propriedades químicas e físicas, uma vez que aumentam a porosidade e a taxa de infiltração de água no solo favorecendo a ciclagem de nutrientes e prevenindo e controlando a erosão dos solos, além da melhoria na fertilidade e biodiversidade do solo, assim como absorção dos metais de forma natural pelas plantas;

Algumas desvantagens da técnica de fitorremediação estão relacionadas como as dependências que a técnica exige na questão de implantação, estabilização e crescimento das espécies vegetais nas áreas afetadas, tais como, o clima, propriedades dos solos, tipo de contaminantes, e qual dos mecanismos de fitorremediação serão aplicadas na área (USEPA, 2000; MUTHUSARAVANAN et al., 2018).

Importante salientar que no processo de fitoextração precisa-se de produção de biomassa com posterior descarte e disposição dessa biomassa em um local adequado, além de que a remoção de um determinado poluente do solo, água ou sedimentos não é 100%. Assim, antes de aplicar a fitorremediação deve-se conhecer bem a área contaminada para que se obtenha sucesso na descontaminação da mesma.

## **5 ARTIGO 1**

O artigo intitulado “**Bioprospection of indigenous flora grown in copper mining tailing area for phytoremediation of metals**” é apresentado conforme as normas da Revista Land Degradation & Development, ISSN: 1085-3278, classificação A1 na área de Ciências Ambientais, tendo sido submetido em 24 de janeiro de 2019.

**Bioprospection of indigenous flora grown in copper mining tailing area for  
phytoremediation of metals**

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## Abstract

This study evaluated plants with phytoremediation potential that occur spontaneously in the area of copper mining tailings, in the region of Camaquã Mines, Caçapava do Sul, Brazil. Eleven different plant species ( $n=49$ ) belonging to nine different families were found in the area and analyzed. The nutrients (P, K, Ca, Mg, S) and the metals (Cu, Zn, Fe, Mn, Cd, Cr, Ni, Pb) in the roots and shoots were determined. Significant concentrations ( $p<0.05$ ) of some chemical elements in the mining tailings and in the plants showed the presence of metal contamination, especially Cu, Cr, Ba and Ni. Some species found showed higher concentrations of metals: *S. viarum* Dunal ( $\text{Cr} \geq 440 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Ba} \geq 1946 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Cu} \geq 366 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Ni} \geq 199 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Zn} \geq 376 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), *B. trimera* Less DC. ( $\text{Cu} \geq 586 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Cr} \geq 25 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), *C. dactylon* L. Pers. ( $\text{Cr} \geq 35 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Cu} \geq 354 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), *Oenothera* sp. ( $\text{Ba} \geq 941 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Cu} \geq 283 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Cr} \geq 33 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), *P. tomentosa* Lam. ( $\text{Ba} \geq 525 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Cu} \geq 306 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Cr} \geq 54 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), *V. bonariensis* L. ( $\text{Cr} \geq 39 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), *E. horridum* Malme ( $\text{Ba} \geq 811 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Cu} \geq 321 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev ( $\text{Ba} \geq 557 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{Cu} \geq 388 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ). All species had higher copper concentrations ( $>100 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), and two species presented a potential for phytostabilization of Pb and seven species for phytostabilization of Cu. It was concluded that the species presented tolerance to toxic metals, supporting low levels of nutrients and high rates of metals in the biomass of the plant.

**KEYWORDS:** bioremediation, indigenous plants, contamination of soils, phytoremediation, translocation factor, bioconcentration factor.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

In Brazil, there are 264 tailing dams registered in the National Department of Mineral Production (DNPM), for the year 2013/2014. Among these tailing dams, more than four are copper tailings, distributed among the states of the Bahia, Goiás, Pará and Rio Grande do Sul (IBRAM, 2016).

Brazil faces problems arising from mining activities which are related to water and soil pollution and mainly to the generation of areas degraded and/or contaminated by metals (Farias, 2002). Much of the solid waste from Brazil's mining is disposed of in piles within the mining area or thrown directly on soils, becoming the waste areas known as mining tailings (Bomfim, 2017; IBRAM, 2018). Due to excavations in copper exploration, the topsoil is frequently removed (Kangwa, 2008; Lindahl, 2014), making long-term unproductive soils.

According to the survey carried out by the Brazilian Ministry of the Environment (MMA, 2002), the main environmental impacts resulting from the extraction of metallic minerals in Brazil are metal-rich mining tailings (Pb, Cu, Zn, Pg and As), with levels considered high by Brazilian legislation.

Tailings that contain a high sulfide mineral concentration, i.e. pyrite, become oxidized and thus promote acid drainage. This, in turn, causes damage to the water resources of the region, as shown in Laybauer and Bidone (1998a, 1998b), Bidone et al. (2001), and Pestana and Formoso (2003) in studies on pollution in the Camaquã and Arroio João Dias rivers that arose from copper mining activities (associated with lead and zinc) in the Minas Camaquã region of southern Brazil. Currently, the possibility of reopening lead and zinc mining in the Camaquã region is being considered, but the mine tailings area of the Uruguay Mine has not yet been recovered.

Although Brazil lacks studies on the recovery of mining areas through the application of phytoremediation techniques, especially phytoremediation of copper mining tailings, some work has been carried out in other countries. Among these, the studies by Lam et al. (2017; 2018) have demonstrated the potential of plants to hyperaccumulate Cu in areas of copper mining tailings in the region of Antofagasta (Chile).

Other works, such as those developed by Andrade et al. (2009) in the locality of Panelas de Brejaúvas, Southern Brazil, showed that phytoextraction using several species (*Avenastrigosa* Schreber, *Helianthus annuus* L. and *Paspalum notatum* Flügge) was not efficient for metals such as Pb, Cd, Cu, Ni and Zn. However, Domingo and David (2014) demonstrated that two species of leguminous plants, *Calopogonium mucunoides* Desv. and *Centrosema mollle* Mart. ex Benth, both can be planted in copper mining waste. Species from the diverse Brazilian flora may be capable of significantly reducing concentrations of heavy metals in mine tailings, and it is a challenge for further studies, because the species need to be adapted to this kind of environment.

Copper mining is a worldwide activity and produces many problems in the environment, mainly by copper contamination and the production of a wide range of waste products and tailings. Tailings are either spread over the ground, or accumulate in tailing dams, and these areas have high potential for pollution and present problems for plant growth. Metal pollution in the soil has become a global environmental problem. Unlike organic pollutants, metals cannot be degraded, and their bioaccumulation through the food chain can cause a number of diseases in humans and animals (Kan et al., 2008; Nagajyoti et al., 2010; Roy & McDonald, 2015; Huang et al., 2017a).

The major sources of metals are anthropogenic activities such as mining, medical and industrial waste, smelting, fertilizers, pesticides, coal combustion, leaded gasoline combustion and batteries (Senesil et al., 1999; Alloway, 2013; Zhang et al., 2017a; 2017b). Mining areas, especially areas of mining tailings are usually characterized by low floristic diversity as a result of adverse factors such as acidity, nutrient deficiency, the presence of toxic metals, and poor soil/substrate without a good physical structure (Pratas et al., 2014; Emamverdian et al., 2015; Courtney & Pietrzykwska, 2018).

Metals can significantly influence the physiological activities of plants, such as water transport, absorption of essential elements and photosynthesis causing chlorosis, leading to physiological disturbances, such as atrophied plant growth and changes in reproduction rate (Ali et al., 2013; Shahid et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017c). However, some plants can adapt

to these conditions and tolerate the high concentrations of metals in the substrate. Plants established in mining tailings and soils contaminated with metals can be very useful in environmental restoration and remediation actions (Wong, 2013; Prasad, 2015; Favas et al., 2018; Lam et al., 2017; Lam et al., 2018).

Recently, different physicochemical and biological approaches have been used to remediate soils contaminated with metals (Cunningham et al., 1995; Mulligan et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2018). The remediation of environments contaminated with metals by phytoremediation has received great attention (Bolan et al., 2014; Prasad, 2015; Huang et al., 2017b). The phytoremediation technique is driven by solar energy and can completely remove pollutants from contaminated sites. It is considered an economical alternative, presenting a high stability and environmentally-friendly strategy for remediation (Mahar et al., 2016; Abou-Shanab et al., 2018; Gong et al., 2018a; 2018b; Novo et al., 2018).

Phytoremediation uses plant biomass to remove and/or detoxify both organic and inorganic contaminants, and it is also one of the best methods for decontaminating areas containing metals (Dary et al., 2010; Leguizamo et al., 2017; Dubchak & Bondar, 2019; Kumar et al., 2019). Plants are capable of extracting, transferring, sequestering and stabilizing a variety of metals, making them particularly suitable for removing metals from the contaminated environment (Gong et al., 2018a), and these characteristics can provide many important phytoremediation methods.

There are several mechanisms related to phytoremediation, such as phytostabilization, phytoextraction and hyperaccumulation. When there is immobilization of the metals in the roots of the plants it is understood that phytostabilization mechanisms are taking place, but when the plants translocate the metal to their shoots the phytoextraction technique is promoted (Hrynkiewicz et al., 2018).

Species with a translocation factor greater than one ( $TF > 1$ ) and a bioconcentration factor that is also greater than one ( $BCF > 1$ ) indicate the potentiality of the species for phytoremediation, since they have potential for phytoextraction (Brooks, 1998; Cluis, 2004;

Wei & Zhou, 2004; Yoon, 2006). Species that present  $BCF > 1$  and  $TF < 1$  have a potential for phytostabilization.

Plants with the capacity to concentrate more than  $1000 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  of metals in their biomass are known as hyperaccumulating plants (Baker & Brooks, 1989; Adriano, 2001; Bulak et al., 2014). However, tolerant plants demonstrate the natural ability to survive and reproduce after exposure to toxic levels of the metal in their biomass, thereby developing physiological mechanisms such as exudation of organic acids and intracellular chelation, among others, which allow them to tolerate exposure to toxic metal levels (Baker, 1981; Ramírez-Benítez et al., 2008).

In this context, the present paper aims: (i) to identify the different plant species with spontaneous occurrence in the area of copper mining tailings, in the region of Minas do Camaquã, Caçapava do Sul, RS, Brazil; (ii) to determine the concentration of macro and micronutrients and metals in the biomass of these plant species; (iii) to determine whether plant species are developing phytoextraction, hiperaccumulating, or phytostabilization mechanisms *in situ*.

## 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1 Study area

The study area is located in the Camaquã Mines region, at Caçapava do Sul city, Rio Grande do Sul State, Brazil, in coordinates 30.912167 S and 53.429709 W (Figure 1). The geologic and tectonic setting of the area belongs to the Southern Brazilian Shield (SBS) and to the Camaquã Basin (Chemale, 2000; Paim et al., 2000; Borba et al., 2008).

The Camaquã Mines hold one of the largest base-metal deposits of Cu (Au, Ag) and Pb and Zn (Cu, Ag) discovered in the clastic sequences of the Camaquã Basin (Remus et al., 2000), and they have been explored since the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Teixeira et al., 1978). The mining area of Camaquã Mines includes the Uruguay Mine (Cu) tailings (closed in 1996), which is the specific area of this study.

Geologically, in the study region (Minas do Camaquã), there is no consensus about the formation of mineral deposits, but there are studies showing the presence of the following minerals: pyrite, chalcopyrite, bornite, hematite, barite, galena, sphalerite, quartz and feldspar, which was the target of the discovery of the mineralization in the region of the Camaquã Mines (Veigel & Dadenne, 1990; Paim & Chemale-JR & Lopes, 2000).

The copper deposit is located geologically in the Bom Jardim window (a structural feature composed of sedimentary and volcanic rocks), and it is the main source of sulfides of chalcopyrite, bornite, chalcocite and pyrite (Laybauer & Bidone 1998a; 1998b). According to Ribeiro (1991), the copper sulfide exploited from the Camaquã Mines (Uruguay Mine, closed in 1996) occurs dissemination.

The Camaquã Mines belongs to the Pampa Biome, characterized by vegetation of the wooded steppe type (IBGE, 2012). The climate is temperate of the subtropical type, classified as humid mesotherm (Cfa – Köppen-Geiger climate classification), with average annual precipitation of 1727.4 mm, and the region is located in the João Dias Stream sub-watershed, which belongs to the watershed of the Camaquã River (BRASIL, 2006).

The soils that comprise the Camaquã Mine region are classified as Chernozems (EMBRAPA, 2013; IUSS, 2015). The Camaquã Mine region is marked by copper mining structures and located on flat levels of mining tailings in which the cava (the previously mined area) has been filledin. The tailing was abandoned in 1996.

## **2.2 Plant samples**

Sample collection was carried out in the summer (Nov. 2017). Eleven different species of plants ( $n=49$ ) were sampled in the area of mining tailings. For this, the biomass was removed and placed in plastic bags, properly identified and stored until the laboratory processes. The identification of the species was carried out at the Department of Botany of the Institute of Biology at the Federal University of Pelotas. Other samples of the same plants were washed with tap water and rinsed with distilled water to remove sediment particles attached to the plant surfaces.

For analysis of the concentration of metals, the root system was separated from the shoots by cutting. Plant tissues were dried at 70 °C for 48 h or until achieving constant weight (Hunter, 1975). The fresh and dry weight were determined. The dried tissues were ground into a powder.

Next, acid digestion was performed using concentrated 3:1 nitric-perchloric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3\text{-HClO}_4$ ), according to the methodology described by Hunter (1975) and Tedesco et al. (1995). All elements were determined with Inductively coupled plasma – optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, PerkinElmer® - Optima™ 8300, Waltham, USA).

After the quantification of the metals in the root system and plant shoots, as well as in the copper mining tailings, the translocation factor (TF) and bioconcentration factor (BCF) were determined.

The translocation factor (TF) was described as the concentration of metals in the shoots of the plant in relation to the roots (Equation 1) (Cui et al., 2007), and the bioconcentration factor (BCF) was expressed as the ratio of metal concentration in the roots in relation to the tailings (Equation 2) (Yoon et al., 2006).

$$TF = [\text{metals shoots}] / [\text{metals roots}] \quad (1)$$

$$BCF = [\text{metals roots}] / [\text{metals soil}] \quad (2)$$

### **2.3 Chemical Analyses of the Tailings**

The sample collection of the waste in the tailings was carried out in the summer, together with the sampling of the plants. Sampling was carried out with a composite of five copper mining waste subsamples in tailing area per plot (from the depth of 0–20 cm; 500 g; n=5). Copper mining tailing samples were taken at a mean distance of 0.335 km, and were collected only within the copper mining tailing area, as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1 - Location Map of Copper Mining Tailing Area, Minas do Camaquã, South Brazil.

All samples were air-dried (one week), ground and sieved (3 mm) prior to analysis (Table 1). Physico-chemical properties of tailings were determined; pH with water using 1:1.5; (w/v) adapted from the methodology in Landon (1991); CEC: Cation Exchange Capacity was measured by the sum of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl extractable Na, Al, Ca, K, Mg (Ross, 1995); P, Na, Cu, and Zn (extractable): extracted with 0.1 M HCl; Mg(exchangeable): extracted with 1.0 M KCl; H + Al: titration; sulfur (S): extracted with 500 M calcium phosphate; organic matter (O.M) by humid digestion; pseudo-total elements, by acid digestion using 1 gram per sample according to EPA-3050B (USEPA, 1996) and determined with Inductively Coupled Plasma – Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES, PerkinElmer® - Optima™ 8300, Waltham, USA) using internal standards for control and verification of procedures (with recovery between 81 and 105% for Cu, Cr, Pb, Ni, Zn and Limits of Detection (LD) of: Cd - 0.2; Cr and Ni - 0.4; Cu - 0.6; Pb and Zn - 2.0; ug/g.).

Table 1 – Chemical-physical characteristics of the copper mining waste.

#### **2.4 Statistical analysis**

All values presented in this study are means of the four replicates (n= 49, plants). The nutrients and metal concentration analysis were submitted to the normality test (Shapiro-Wilk), and mean comparisons were calculated using the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA); when significant, the Tukey test was carried out (p<0.05). All graphs and statistical analyses were performed using Statistica® software program, version 7.0. (Statsoft, USA).

For the multivariate analysis, clusters (CA) were applied in order to verify the similarity between the species. The clusters were applied to translocation factor (TF) and bioconcentration factor (BCF), considering the metals copper and lead using Ward's method of linking based on Euclidean distance. AC produced dendograms with well-defined clusters.

### **3 RESULTS**

### 3.1 Macronutrient uptake

In the investigation of species of spontaneous occurrence in the area of copper mining tailings, eleven plant species belonging to nine different families were identified. The Asteraceae family was represented by the species *Baccharis dracunculifolia* DC. and *Baccharis trimera* Less DC.; the Poaceae family was represented by the species *Cynodon dactylon* L. Pers. and *Rostraria cristata* L. Tzvelev; the Equisetaceae family by *Equisetum giganteum* L; the Juncaceae (*Juncus* sp.); the Onagraceae (*Oenothera* sp.); the Plantaginaceae (*Plantago tomentosa* Lam.); the Solanaceae (*Solanum viarum* Dunal); the Apiaceae (*Eryngium horridum* Malme) and, finally, the Verbenaceae by *Verbena bonariensis* L. (Table 2).

Table 2 – Plants species in copper mining tailing

The small number of species is due to the low concentration of nutrients in the tailings (Table 1), as well as the high concentration of metals such as copper ( $259.7 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), chromium ( $15.3 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) and nickel ( $9.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), which contribute to the low biodiversity (Alloway, 2013; Singh et al. 2019). In addition, the local condition promoted the growth of plants with ground-growing and low-vigor characteristics, and many plants also showed signs of chlorosis and a deficiency of nutrients.

The concentrations of the macro and micronutrients in the plants were high in relation to the mining tailings, which presented minimum concentrations of the macroelements (Na, P, S) and significant concentrations ( $p<0.05$ ) of copper and nickel, as well as average values for the concentrations of organic matter (0.5 %), cation exchange capacity (6.7) and low clay content (13%), but adequate pH (6.2) (Table 1).

The concentrations of the macronutrients were higher for phosphorus (P) and calcium (Ca) elements in the biomass of the shoots of all plants, except for *Solanum viarum* Dunal, *Eryngium horridum* Malme and *Oenothera* sp. which showed higher concentrations of Ca in the roots in relation to the shoots, with values of  $34.3 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ,  $31.3 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  and  $30.1 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ,

respectively (Table 3). Potassium (K) concentrations differed from P and Ca, with the species presenting higher concentrations in the biomass of the roots than in the shoots for all plants, with the exception of the species *Cynodon dactylon* L. Pers. and *Oenothera* sp. which presented, respectively, 4.9 g kg<sup>-1</sup> and 2.1 g kg<sup>-1</sup> for K in the shoots (Table 3).

Table 3 - Macronutrients contents in dry mass of the roots and shoots of plants grown in the mining tailing area.

The species *E. horridum* Malme, *Equisetum giganteum* L., *Juncus* sp. and *Plantago tomentosa* Lam. showed higher concentrations of magnesium (Mg) in the biomass of the roots in relation to the shoots, whereas in the species *Baccharis trimera* Less DC., *C. dactylon* L. Pers. and *Rostraria cristata* L. Tzvelev the concentrations of Mg were similar in both the roots and shoots. The same occurred for the sulfur (S) concentrations in both the shoots and the roots, respectively 1.3 g kg<sup>-1</sup> and 0.9 g kg<sup>-1</sup> in the species *E. giganteum* L. and *Juncus* sp., *B. trimera* Less DC. and *B. dracunculifolia* DC. had the same concentration (2.0 g kg<sup>-1</sup>) of S in the roots (Table 3).

Among all species analyzed, the plant *S. viarum* Dunal had the highest concentrations of macroelements in both roots and shoots, except for calcium (Ca). The species *B. trimera* Less DC. had the highest concentration of this element in the root (Table 3).

### **3.2 Metal Contents in the Biomass of the plants**

The mining waste had significant concentrations ( $p<0.05$ ) of copper, nickel and lead, but these elements did not significantly interfere in the absorption of phosphorus by the species *S. viarum* Dunal, *P. tomentosa* Lam. and *Verbena bonariensis* L. The micronutrient uptake in the roots and shoots also differed between species. The concentrations of these micronutrients in the indigenous plants showed similar values for the same element in both roots and shoots (Table 4).

Table 4 - Heavy metal contents in dry mass of the roots and shoots of plants grown in the mining tailing area.

The concentrations of copper in the dry biomass of the roots of the species *B. dracunculifolia* DC., *B. trimera* Less DC., *C. dactylon* L. Pers., *E. giganteum* L., *E. horridum* Malme, *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev and *S. viarum* Dunal were high compared with other species (Table 4).

All species showed total concentrations of copper (shoots + roots) above 200.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, except for *Juncus* sp. (110.4 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of copper) and *V. bonariensis* L. (115.7 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of copper). *B. trimera* Less DC. obtained the highest concentration of copper (586.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) in the whole plant in relation to the other species (Table 4).

*S. viarum* Dunal showed the highest concentrations of Fe, Cu, Zn, Mn and Ni in the shoots, as well as in the roots with values of Fe, Zn, Mn and Ni compared to the other species under study. However, *B. trimera* Less DC. also stood out due to its high levels of Cu in the roots, which were higher in it than in other plants (Table 4).

The nickel levels in *V. bonariensis* L., *P. tomentosa* Lam. and *S. viarum* Dunal were higher in the roots compared to the shoots. These species showed tolerance to high nickel concentrations, with the concentrations in the roots showing values of 10.4 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, 24.5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and 178.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Ni, respectively (Table 4).

The plants presented significant levels ( $p<0.05$ ) of eight metals: Ba, Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, Pb, V, Zn (Tables 4 and 5). There are different trends of accumulation between the concentrations of the metals present in the dry biomass of the species studied. However, the metal cadmium (Cd) exhibited low concentrations in the roots and in the shoots of plants. The average concentrations of Cd in the dry biomass in the roots and shoots of the plants were in the ranges from 0.010 to 0.244 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and from 0.001 to 0.276 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Table 5).

Table 5 – Heavy metals contents in dry mass of the roots and shoots of plants grown in the mining tailing area.

*E. horridum* Malme, *Oenothera* sp. and *S. viarum* Dunal showed high concentrations of barium (Ba) in the roots, while *P. tomentosa* Lam., *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev, *E. horridum* Malme, *Oenothera* sp. and *S. viarum* Dunal showed high concentrations of Ba in the total plant (Table 5).

Most species showed resistance to high concentrations of metals, especially chromium (Cr) and copper (Cu). All species presented high Cr indices both in the biomass of the roots and in the shoots. The Cr values in the roots of the plants were higher than in the shoots. Cr values in the roots were in the range of 13.0 to 382.3 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of the biomass (Table 5).

The highest concentration of Cr in the roots (382.3 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) was found in *S. viarum* Dunal, and this species also presented the highest concentrations of Cr in the shoots and in the whole plant among all the investigated species, with values of 57.7 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Cr and 440.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Cr, respectively (Table 5).

Regarding lead levels, both *B. dracunculifolia* DC. and *B. trimera* Less DC. exhibited inverse concentrations between roots and shoots. *Juncus* sp. showed the lowest concentration of lead in the roots (0.8 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>), while *S. viarum* Dunal had the highest concentration of lead in both roots (33.0mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and shoots (9.4mg kg<sup>-1</sup>), among all the investigated plants (Table 5).

Seven plants accumulated high concentrations of vanadium, with *B. trimera* Less DC., *E. giganteum* Malme and *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev mostly in the roots (roots), *S. viarum* Dunal in the shoots, *C. dactylon dactylon* L. Pers. and *P. tomentosa* Lam. in the total plant (Table 5).

### 3.3 Translocation Factor and Bioconcentration Factor

The translocation factor (TF) and the bioconcentration factor (BCF) for copper and lead are shown in Figures 2 and 3.

*S. viarum* Dunal presented the highest translocation factor for copper (TF= 1.3, Cu) followed by *C. dactylon* L. Pers. (TF= 0.9, Cu), while *E. giganteum* L. had the lowest translocation factor for copper (TF= 0.1, Cu). The other species presented TF<0.5 for copper (Figure 2).

Figure 2 - Translocation factor (TF) for copper and lead. \*Values are the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation, (n=49). Means followed by the same letter within a column are not significantly different ( $p>0.05$ ) at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).

Although the translocation factor for lead did not show statistical differences, the species *B. trimera* Less DC., *B. dracuncuifolia* DC., *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev, *V. bonariensis* L., *C. dactylon* L. Pers. and *Juncus* sp. stood out among the other species when presenting TF> 1, with values, respectively, of 1.1; 1.4; 1.8; 2.1 and 2.15 (Figure 2).

Only three species presented a bioconcentration factor for copper greater than one (BCF> 1). These were *E. horridum* Malme (BCF= 1.1, Cu), *E. giganteum* L. (BCF= 1.5, Cu) and *B. trimera* Less DC. (BCF> 1.8, Cu) (Figure 3), while the other species had a BCF less than 0.9.

Figure 3 - Bioconcentration factor (BCF) for copper and lead. \*Values are the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation, (n=49). Means followed by the same letter within a column are not significantly different ( $p>0.05$ ) at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).

All species had BCF> 1 for lead, except *Juncus* sp. (BCF= 0.4, Pb), *V. bonariensis* L. (BCF = 0.8, Pb) and *C. dactylon* L. Pers. (BCF= 0.9, Pb). *S. viarum* Dunal stood out among all species, presenting the highest BCF for lead, with a value of 16.4 (Figure 3).

### 3.4 Cluster analysis (CA)

In the analysis of the clusters, the similarity between the species found in the area of copper mining tailings showed three well-defined groups for copper translocation factor (Figure 4A) and two groups for lead (Figure 4B).

Figure 4 – Cluster Analyses in all species; A - Dendrogram of translocation factor for copper; B - Dendrogram of translocation factor for lead.

For the similarity between the species in relation to the copper translocation factor, we formed groups: Group 1 is represented by the species *B. dracunculifolia* DC., *S. viarum* Dunal, *C. dactylon* L. Pers. and *V. bonariensis* L.; Group 2 is represented by the species *B. trimera* Less DC., *Oenothera* sp. and *E. giganteum* L.; and Group 3 by the species *E. horridum* Malme, *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev, *Juncus* sp. and *P. tomentosa* Lam. (Figure 4A).

For the similarity between the species in relation to the lead translocation factor, Group 1 is represented by *B. dracunculifolia* DC., *V. bonariensis* L., *C. dactylon* L. Pers. and *Juncus* sp., while Group 2 is represented by *B. trimera* Less DC., *Oenothera* sp., *E. giganteum* L., *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev, *E. horridum* Malme, *P. tomentosa* Lam. and *S. viarum* Dunal (Figure 4B).

For the bioconcentration factor, four main groups were defined for both copper (Figure 5A) and lead (Figure 5B). The groups related to the similarity among the species regarding the bioconcentration factor of copper are: Group 1, represented by the species *B. dracunculifolia* DC., *P. tomentosa* Lam., *E. horridum* Malme, *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev and *Oenothera* sp.; Group 2, represented by the species *Juncus* sp. and *V. bonariensis* L.; Group 3, represented by species *C. dactylon* L. Pers. and *S. viarum* Dunal; and Group 4, represented by the species *B. trimera* Less DC. and *E. giganteum* L. (Figure 5A).

Figure 5 – Cluster Analyses in all species; A – Dendrogram of bioconcentration factor for copper; B – Dendrogram of bioconcentration factor for lead.

As for lead, the grouping of the species in relation to the bioconcentration factor has four main groups: Group 1, represented by *B. dracunculifolia* DC., *E. horridum* Malme, *B. trimera* Less DC., *Oenothera* sp., *E. giganteum* L. and *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev; Group 2, represented by the species *C. dactylon* L. Pers., *V. bonariensis* L. and *Juncus* sp.; Group 3, represented by the species *P. tomentosa* Lam.; and Group 4, represented by the species *S. viarum* Dunal (Figure 5B).

#### 4 DISCUSSION

The extreme conditions found in copper mining tailings, such as low nutrient concentration, poor structure for plant growth, difficulty in water retention and high levels of metals, causes a strong environmental selection of the plants in this kind of site. Thus, bioprospecting of adapted plants at such a site should be an alternative strategy when attempting to remediate these environments, which have characteristics that jeopardize plant growth. In addition, these plants have potential resistance to these conditions, and the identification of their potential for phytoremediation contributes to finding a promising alternative for the recovery of these areas.

Several plants have been used to remediate environments contaminated by various pollutants, including metals. As the composition of the substrate (mining tailings) is one of the preponderant factors for good plant development, appropriate concentrations of macro and micronutrients in soils are the ideal support for thriving plant species (Kabata-Pendias, 2010; Alloway, 2013). If the nutrient concentrations are not adequate, and also with the high levels of metals in soils, these conditions will limit the development of plants, causing underdeveloped species, as may be the case of some species found in this study (data not shown, representing low plant growth).

In this context, the condition of the copper mining tailings in the Camaquã Mines (study area) is not in accordance with the Brazilian legislation (FEPAM Number 85/2014), which provides the reference values for soil quality in the state of Rio Grande Sul, Brazil. The study area had copper and nickel levels above the levels recommended by the Brazil

legislation (7-11 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> for Cu and 4-7 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> for Ni), as well as low macro and micronutrient contents, which harms the development of the plants present in the tailings area.

High concentrations of metals are typical in mineralized soils/tailings in areas of metalliferous deposits (Prasad, 2015), corroborating the high levels of metals found in copper mining tailings. Ghaderiam and Ravandi (2012) also detected high levels of Cu (1,300.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>), Zn (1,500.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>), Pb (700.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and Ni (35.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) in tailings of copper mining areas, at the Sarcheshmeh mine in Iran. These results are higher than those found in the present study for the Camaquã Mine tailings.

Copper mining activities have significant effects on the environment due to the high amounts of metals in soils, which reduce or limit the growth of plant cover (Meier et al., 2011; Prasad, 2015; Gong et al., 2018b). The presence of metals such as Cu, Pb, Zn and Ni in soils at high concentrations due to metal toxicity restricts plant growth, except for the more tolerant and/or resistant plants (Alloway, 2013), as inferred for the species of *S. viarum* Dunal (Cr, Ba, Cu, Ni, Zn), *B. trimera* Less DC(Cu, Cr), *C. dactylon* L. Pers.(Cr, Cu), *Oenothera* sp. (Ba, Cu, Cr), *P. (Ba, Cu, Cr)*, *V. bonariensis* L. (Cr), *E. horridum* Malme (Ba, Cu), *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev (Ba, Cu), which showed high concentrations of metals.

Most of these plants occur naturally in the tailings waste areas, and they are native species. Many plants are considered weeds in relation to agriculture; the literature currently available for these plants is somewhat limited in relation to macro, micronutrients and metals. Nevertheless, the focus of current studies is on other areas, such as *B. dracunculifolia* DC., which has been studied for pharmacological purposes in the production of propolis, or *B. trimera* Less DC. and *P. tomentosa* Lam., studied for medicinal purposes. In this way, evaluating the ideal condition for the development of each species by verifying the essential or toxic concentrations for each plant is a step that science has not taken in relation to the aforementioned plants.

In the present study, the absorption of macro and micronutrients and metals were different between species; however, for some metals like copper, barium and chromium

there is some similarity in the absorption. Different plants have different capacities in the absorption of minerals, and some species that survive naturally in metalliferous soils are often restricted to this type of area (Pollard et al., 2014; Prasad, 2015).

In the development of *S. americanum* Mill, for example, there is a limitation in nutrient competition between weeds and other annual crops in Brazil (Bianco et al., 2010). Plant competition for macronutrients is an important biotic factor that negatively affects the growth of other species around *S. americanum* Mill (Bianco et al., 2010). This competition could be seen in the results shown by the species *S. viarum* Dunal; in general, this plant obtained the highest concentrations of macronutrients, micronutrients and metals in relation to the other species investigated, standing out among the other species.

In studies on *S. americanum* Mill, which belongs to the same family as *S. viarum* Dunal, Bianco et al. (2010) demonstrated the Ca>Mg>P>S>K sequence for macronutrient concentrations. This sequence was different from the results found for *S. viarum* Dunal (from this study), which demonstrated Ca>K>Mg>S>P. The variation in the concentration of these elements, which are known as the nutrients most required by most cultivars of economic interest (Epstein & Bloom, 2005; SBCS-NRS, 2016), is due to the competition among species for the same elements in the exchanges sites (Alloway, 2010).

Evaluating the behavior of the macronutrients in the specie *C. dactylon* L. Pers., it can be noticed that the concentrations of P, K, Ca and Mg are well below those obtained by Rezende (2015), with values of 63,000.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of P; 31,300.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of K; 3,800.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Ca; 3,000.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Mg; and 2,400.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of S. Thus, it can be inferred that *C. dactylon* L. Pers. is limited in development, not only due to macronutrient concentrations in the dry biomass of the plant, but mainly due to the substrate conditions (soil in the tailings area). In addition, these plants have undergone few studies on nutrient uptake because there are not of agricultural importance, making it complicated to compare nutrient levels with some native and indigenous species.

When analyzing plant growth on soils and tailings with copper-contamination and substantial contamination with other metals, Pastor et al. (2015) identified concentrations of

metals in the area and in the roots of species of the family Poaceae. The concentrations of metals in the shoots and roots of the plants determined by that author were substantially high. Values of Cd and Cr ( $> 5.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), Ni ( $> 10.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) and Zn ( $> 100.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) (Table 6) are considered toxic for many plants (Kabata-Pendias, 2010). These studies show that the plants currently under study have resistance and the ability to grow in these contaminated environments.

Table 6 - Reference values in dry weight basis for various species in the world (Kabata-Pendias, 2010).

When comparing the results found by Pastor et al. (2005), with the species *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev and *C. dactylon* L. Pers., it was observed that there is similar behavior in the absorption of the metals Fe, Cd, Pb, Cr, Ni (in the shoots), but lower values than those presented by that author for the elements Mn, Zn, Pb, Cd (in the roots) and values between the intervals ( $1.2\text{-}78 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  of Cr and  $0\text{-}19 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  of Ni) for Cr and Ni in the roots. On the other hand, the other plants had higher concentrations of copper (Cu) in the shoots than in the roots when compared to the results obtained in another study by Pastor et al. (2015). This demonstrates that the plants of in this study presented tolerance to toxic metals or elevated levels of certain metals; these were not only copper, but also Ba, Ni and Cr (Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6).

*C. dactylon* L. Pers. and *Juncus maritimus* Lam. are plants that accumulate metal in the shoots, especially Cd, Cu and Ni. These species are considered hyperaccumulators and concentrate considerable amounts of metals in the substrate (soils or tailings) by means of their root system. A study by Ltifi et al. (2018) showed that *J. maritimus* Lam. has more capacity to accumulate Cd, Cu, Zn and Ni than *C. dactylon* L. Pers..

Copper concentrations in the roots of the dry biomass were high for *B. dracunculifolia* DC., *B. trimera* Less DC., *C. dactylon* L. Pers., *E. giganteum* L., *E. horridum* Malme, *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev and *S. viarum* Dunal. This shows the copper retention capacity in the

roots of these plants, and they can be considered phytostabilizers. Some of these species are known in the literature as potential accumulators of Zn, Pb and Cu, together with other species from the family Equisetaceae (*Equisetum arvense* L.) (Cannon et al., 1968), the species *C. dactylon* L. Pers., tolerant to Zn, Cu, Pb (About et al., 2007) and the species of *B. decumbens* Stapf. Prain, tolerant to Cd, Zn, Pb (Santos et al., 2007).

Regarding copper concentrations in *C. dactylon* L. Pers., these concentrations were lower than those found by Yoon et al. (2006) in the roots (310-432 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Cu); however they were close to the levels found by Shu et al. (2002), which were 7-198 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Cu. *Oenothera* sp. also showed high Cu concentrations, and this species is described in the literature as a pseudo-metalophyte, like *Oenothera picensis* Phil., which is Cu tolerant (González et al., 2008).

When investigating *O. picensis* Phil in areas contaminated with copper in the Puchuncaví valley, Central Chile, Meier et al. (2011) noticed the tolerance of this species to toxic concentrations of copper. However, the author observed no effect of apparent dilution on the concentration of nutrients in the plant when there was an increase in copper concentration in the tailings. The accumulation and concentration of macro and micronutrients in the plant followed a similar trend in their development, and the Cu content in the biomass increased when Cu increased in the tailings. This relationship was described by Meier et al. (2011), in a study which can be extrapolated for the copper absorption in the plants of this study, since all of the plants had high concentrations of copper in their biomass.

The species *P. tomentosa* Lam., *V. bonariensis* L. and *S. viarum* Dunal showed higher concentrations of nickel in the roots compared to the shoots, and all three species showed tolerance to concentrations considered toxic (> 10.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) (Kabata-Pendias, 2010). The species *E. horridum* Malme, *Oenothera* sp., *P. tomentosa* Lam., *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev, and *S. viarum* Dunal also showed tolerance to toxic concentrations of barium. The Ba concentrations (> 500.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) in shrub leaves indicated symptoms of phytotoxicity (Kabata-Pendias, 2010).

Absorption of barium (Ba) from the soil by vascular plants can vary among some species (Myrvang et al., 2016). Despite the toxicity of the soluble compounds of Ba to the plants, there are few studies about the mechanisms of control of Ba uptake by natural soils (Watmough, 2014). Barium (Ba) shares many chemical characteristics with the elements calcium (Ca), lead (Pb) and strontium (Sr). However, barium is not much studied in the literature because it does not present any notable nutritional benefits either for plants or animals (Abbasi et al., 2016).

Most of the species studied showed a certain tolerance to high concentrations of metals such as chromium, copper, barium, nickel and vanadium. Some of the species are known in the literature as tolerant to some metals, as is the case with *Juncus* sp., which is tolerant to Cd and Pb (Johnston & Proctor, 1977; Archer & Caldwell, 2004) and *Solanum elaeagnifolium* Cav., which is tolerant to Cr (Del Rio et al., 2002), among others described above.

*S. viarum* Dunal was the plant with the highest concentrations of Pb, Cr, Ni, V, Ba, Zn and Mn in relation to the other species found in the tailings of the copper mining area at Camaquā Mines, presenting a potential use for phytoremediation of environments contaminated by metals. Although *E. horridum* Malme and *B. trimera* Less DC. did not accumulate high concentrations of Zn and Pb in the present study, these species were previously described by Boechat et al. (2016) as phytoextractors, since they accumulated 924.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Zn in the roots; 188.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Pb in shoots (*E. horridum* Malme) and *B. trimera* Less DC. accumulated 276.8 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Zn and 98.3 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Pb (both in the shoots).

In this context, the potential use of plant species as a source of decontamination of areas rich in metals is reflected in the evaluation of TF and BCF that each species presents.

Thus, data presented in the present study indicate that while copper was largely retained in the roots (TF<1, Cu), lead tended to translocate to the shoots (TF> 1, Pb) (Figure 2).

When evaluating 12 native species in Pb/Cu/Zn mining areas in China, Deng et al. (2004) identified that the species *Equisetum ramosisti* (family Equisetaceae) and *Juncus effuses* L. (family Juncaceae) tend to accumulate Pb and Cu in the roots. These species presented values of TF less than one, with TF= 0.17 (Pb) and 0.21 (Cu) for *E. ramosisti* and 0.15 (Pb) and 0.35 (Cu) for *J. effuses* L..

Differently from the study presented by Deng et al. (2004), *Juncus sp.* and *E. giganteum* L. tend to accumulate Pb in the shoots and Cu in the roots. Some plants play an important role in the retention of metals in contaminated soils, since by immobilizing the metal in the roots, it is not translocated to the shoots (Ye et al., 2001).

Lorestani et al. (2011), when investigating native species in a mining area in Iran, found a high potential to translocate copper from roots to shoots (TF> 1) in several species of the Asteraceae family, for example *Centaurea virgata* Lam. (TF> 1.88), *Cousinia jarensis* Rech. F. (TF> 5.44) and *Cousinia robustus* L. (TF> 1.57). However, these same species presented low BCF for copper, respectively 0.11, 0.21 and 0.21. This contrasts with the results found in *B. trimera* Less DC. and *B. dracunculifolia* DC., both from the Asteraceae family, with high potential for phytostabilization of copper (BFC> 1 and TF< 1) and lead phytoextraction (BCF> 1 and TF >1) (Figures 2 and 3).

The species *E. horridum* Malme and *E. giganteum* L. also presented high potential for phytostabilization of copper, whereas *S. viarum* Dunal and *E. horridum* Malme presented phytostabilization of lead. However, *R. cristata* L. Tzvelev and *C. dactylon* L. Pers. showed potential for phytoextraction of copper and lead, whereas *P. tomentosa* Lam., *Oenothera* sp., *E. giganteum* L. and *Juncus sp.* Showed potential for phytoextraction of lead.

In this context, the use of clustering analysis allowed the separation of more or less uniform groups showing their phytoremediation potential. Thus, it is extrapolated that plants of the same group may have potential in phytostabilization or phytoextraction, provided that at least one species of the said group has had at least one of those potentials.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

The indigenous plants found in this study showed tolerance to toxic metals, and they supported low levels of nutrients and high rates of metals in the plant biomass, which suggests a promising advantage in their use in further phytoremediation studies and applications.

Thus, according to the results presented, most species studied here have the potential for phytoextraction and/or phytostabilization of lead or copper, as well as the possibility of being applied in the recovery of mining areas and/or areas contaminated with metals. However, further studies are needed.

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## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Table 1 – Chemical-physical characteristics of the copper mining waste.

<b>Soil Texture</b>		<b>Value in Soil</b>	<b>Ref. Value</b>
Clay	%	13.0	41.0-60.0 <sup>a*</sup>
pH	1:1	6.2	6.0-6.5d
O.M.	%	0.5	-
CEC	cmol <sub>c</sub> dm <sup>-3</sup>	6.7	>15.0e
Na	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	9.3	5000.0d
P	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	77.0	800.0d
S	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	1.2	700.0d
Mn	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	11.0	418.0c
Cu	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	259.7	7.0-11.0a
Zn	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.9	19.0-20.0a
Cd	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	<0.2	0.3-0.4a
Cr	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	15.3	16.0-21.0a
Ni	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	9.0	4.0-7.0a
Pb	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	<2.0	13.0-16.0a
Ba	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.3	≤150.0b
Mo	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	3.3	≤30.0b

<sup>a</sup>FEPAM N.<sup>o</sup> 85/2014; <sup>b</sup>CONAMA N<sup>º</sup> 460/2013 (Value for prevention); <sup>c</sup>Kabata-Pendias (2010);

<sup>d</sup>EMBRAPA (2010); <sup>e</sup>SBCS-NRS (2016). (n=5).

Table 2 – Plants species in copper mining tailing.

<b>Code</b>	<b>Family</b>	<b>Species</b>	<b>Occurrence in Brasil</b>	<b>Wet root mass (g)</b>	<b>Height (cm)</b>
BD	Asteraceae	<i>Baccharis dracunculifolia</i> DC.	Native	1.07	33.52
BT	Asteraceae	<i>Baccharis trimera</i> (Less) DC.	Native	2.96	42.10
CD	Poaceae	<i>Cynodon dactylon</i> (L.) Pers.	Native	0.50	21.30
RC	Poaceae	<i>Rostraria cristata</i> (L.) Tzvelev	Native	1.57	31.75
EG	Equisetaceae	<i>Equisetum giganteum</i> L.	Native	1.34	28.88
EHM	Apiaceae	<i>Eryngium horridum</i> Malme	Native	18.04	47.66
JSP	Juncaceae	<i>Juncus</i> sp.	Native	1.41	33.20
OSP	Onagraceae	<i>Oenothera</i> sp.	Native	7.69	46.5
PTL	Plantaginaceae	<i>Plantago tomentosa</i> Lam.	Native	1.01	15.37
SVD	Solanaceae	<i>Solanum viarum</i> Dunal	Native	1.21	17.50
VB	Verbaceae	<i>Verbena bonariensis</i> L.	Native	0.88	38.26

Table 3 - Macronutrients contents in dry mass of the roots and shoots of plants grown in the mining tailing area.

Plants	P	K	Ca g kg <sup>-1</sup>	Mg	S
<b>Shoot</b>					
BD*	0.7±0.3c**	2.9±1.4c	13.7±7.4bc	1.4±0.6c	1.4±0.6a
BT	0.9±0.1bcd	3.6±0.4c	33.9±8.6a	2.2±0.1bc	1.7±0.5a
CD	0.4±0.1d	4.9±1.8bc	5.6±1.3bc	1.0±0.1c	2.3±0.9a
EG	0.7±0.3cd	1.8±0.7c	10.0±4.6bc	1.6±0.7c	1.3±0.8a
EHM	1.1±1.3bcd	12.9±5.1ab	16.2±4.6abc	0.5±0.4c	1.3±0.9a
JSP	0.4±0.1d	1.3±1.0c	3.8±0.8c	0.4±0.1c	0.9±0.2a
OSP	0.9±0.4bcd	2.1±0.3c	23.7±2.3ab	3.9±0.3bc	1.7±0.2a
PTL	2.0±0.3ab	3.7±2.9c	29.8±8.6a	3.1±1.7bc	3.0±3.1a
RC	0.6±0.2cd	1.7±1.0c	5.7±1.6bc	2.0±1.0c	1.7±1.6a
SVD	3.1±0.9a	15.0±12.0a	31.7±17.7a	12.0±4.9a	3.9±2.3a
VB	2.0±1.5abc	1.6±0.1c	16.4±3.4abc	6.1±0.6b	1.1±0.2a
<b>Root</b>					
BD	0.4±0.3c	8.1±8.9b	10.8±9.0bcd	1.1±0.8c	2.0±1.4b
BT	0.7±0.1bc	4.1±1.2b	14.0±1.1abcd	2.2±0.1bc	2.0±0.4b
CD	0.3±0.2c	3.2±0.6b	2.7±2.1d	1.1±0.8bc	1.5±1.0b
EG	0.5±0.1c	3.9±2.9b	9.9±3.1bcd	2.5±0.9bc	1.3±0.8b
EHM	0.8±0.4bc	13.3±4.5ab	31.3±25.8ab	1.1±0.3bc	1.7±0.2b
JSP	0.3±0.1c	1.8±0.8b	2.4±0.2d	0.7±0.1bc	0.9±0.4b
OSP	0.4±0.1c	1.2±0.5b	30.1±5.4abc	3.3±0.9abc	0.5±0.2b
PTL	1.9±0.4b	6.0±4.6b	13.2±2.0abcd	4.1±1.8ab	2.1±0.9b
RC	0.5±0.1c	2.0±1.3b	4.5±1.5d	2.0±0.5bc	1.0±0.5b
SVD	3.6±2.0a	39.7±36.6a	34.3±26.2a	7.7±5.6a	9.0±6.6a
VB	1.7±1.4bc	2.0±0.2b	3.5±0.3cd	2.2±0.7bc	1.4±0.3b

\*BD (*Baccharis dracunculifolia* DC.); BT (*Baccharis trimera* (Less) DC.); CD (*Cynodon dactylon* (L.) Pers); EG (*Equisetum giganteum* L.); EHM (*Eryngium horridum*); JSP (*Juncus* sp.); OSP (*Oenothera* sp.); PTL (*Plantago tomentosa* Lam.); RC (*Rostraria cristata* (L.) Tzvelev); SVD (*Solanum viarum* Dunal); VB (*Verbena bonariensis* L.). \*\*(Means±SD; n=49), means followed by the same letter within a column for same element are not significantly different at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).

Table 4 - Heavy metal contents in dry mass of the roots and shoots of plants grown in the mining tailing area.

Plants	Fe	Cu	Zn mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	Mn	Ni
<b>Shoot</b>					
BD*	1319.5±775.9b**	56.0±21.0a	18.5±15.3b	68.4±38.0bc	5.9±2.2b
BT	2109.0±1484.2b	110.1±40.8a	11.2±1.0b	146.8±52.8abc	5.1±0.3b
CD	2049.9±250.9b	103.6±19.3a	16.4±2.8b	119.4±36.6abc	4.7±0.7b
EG	908.6±566.8b	38.4±16.5a	18.9±9.0b	43.2±16.8c	3.5±0.9b
EHM	357.9±87.2b	32.9±1.2a	18.9±9.9b	205.4±154.5ab	4.8±1.6b
JSP	755.9±377.6b	33.0±14.7a	21.6±6.8b	88.9±27.8abc	5.8±0.9b
OSP	3339.3±647.1b	86.8±29.2a	21.8±5.0b	81.3±21.8abc	7.2±0.2b
PTL	6141.0±5421.0ab	111.2±101.8a	19.9±6.9b	99.5±67.8abc	6.7±5.0b
RC	6365.6±5417.7ab	130.8±64.1a	34.9±14.9b	134.3±76.2abc	5.7±0.6b
SVD	13722.0±8443.1a	136.9±60.0a	144.2±109.6a	227.3±126.8a	21.3±16.8a
VB	993.0±382.5b	42.5±7.0a	15.2±5.6b	113.4±40.3abc	5.7±0.3b
<b>Root</b>					
BD	2011.0±1871.0a	200.6±119.3a	20.8±14.9b	81.5±58.1b	14.3±16.6b
BT	6269.9±899.3a	476.1±197.0a	15.0±2.7b	128.4±20.8ab	6.0±0.9b
CD	4367.2±3554.7a	250.8±254.9a	15.2±7.5b	91.9±62.9ab	9.7±4.2b
EG	7213.9±3956.8a	398.2±128.4a	16.9±3.0b	109.6±52.8ab	6.7±1.9b
EHM	2168.6±1133.9a	289.0±102.9a	20.4±5.8b	178.6±142.8ab	6.6±0.5b
JSP	2034.7±329.1a	77.4±23.7a	27.0±10.3b	85.1±13.3ab	7.3±1.9b
OSP	2296.0±567.7a	196.2±35.6a	26.8±3.6b	63.7±24.8ab	6.6±1.0b
PTL	4143.6±4369.4a	195.1±118.3a	41.6±12.2b	70.8±44.5b	24.5±25.9b
RC	5627.8±3640.2a	257.8±99.2a	28.0±14.9b	211.3±21.7ab	8.3±3.4b
SVD	8339.0±7765.4a	229.1±202.9a	232.1±212.1a	251.0±212.1a	178.0±173.7a
VB	852.0±430.5a	73.2±8.4a	23.0±13.5b	40.3±0.8b	10.4±2.5b

\*BD (*Baccharis dracunculifolia* DC.); BT (*Baccharis trimera* (Less) DC.); CD (*Cynodon dactylon* (L.) Pers); EG (*Equisetum giganteum* L.); EHM (*Eryngium horridum*); JSP (*Juncus* sp.); OSP (*Oenothera* sp.); PTL (*Plantago tomentosa* Lam.); RC (*Rostraria cristata* (L.) Tzvelev); SVD (*Solanum viarum* Dunal); VB (*Verbena bonariensis* L.). \*\*(Means±SD; n=49), means followed by the same letter within a column for same element are not significantly different at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).

Table 5 - Heavy metals contents in dry mass of the roots and shoots of plants grown in the mining tailing area.

Plants	Cd	Cr	Pb mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	V	Ba
<b>Shoot</b>					
BD*	0.027±0.019b**	14.7±5.3b	3.0±1.3b	1.1±0.5b	75.6±63.0b
BT	0.046±0.0002b	12.3±0.8b	4.0±0.04ab	2.1±1.1ab	75.1±6.4b
CD	0.009±0.001b	12.0±2.5b	2.3±0.5b	2.3±0.4ab	76.4±50.1b
EG	nd***	7.5±2.7b	2.4±0.8b	0.8±0.6b	109.8±77.5b
EHM	nd	10.0±1.9b	3.3±1.1b	0.1±0.0b	239.9±33.7b
JSP	0.020±0.010b	13.6±3.4b	1.7±0.3b	0.3±0.1b	146.1±73.5b
OSP	nd	17.2±0.4b	2.8±0.5b	2.1±1.3ab	329.3±130.5b
PTL	0.276±0.084a	13.1±7.6b	5.1±3.0ab	4.5±3.6ba	133.0±124.4b
RC	0.189±0.134a	13.1±3.8b	2.1±0.9b	5.0±4.7ab	105.9±66.1b
SVD	0.019±0.010b	57.7±43.2a	9.4±6.3a	7.9±5.8a	823.1±539.7a
VB	0.001±0.001b	14.4±0.4b	2.2±0.1b	0.4±0.0b	58.6±4.9b
<b>Root</b>					
BD*	0.227±0.313a	33.7±38.4b	4.3±4.7b	2.4±2.5ab	174.9±207.9b
BT	0.197±0.017a	13.6±1.8b	3.6±0.0b	6.0±0.7a	80.6±17.8b
CD	0.229±0.042a	23.2±12.5b	1.7±1.4b	3.7±2.7ab	389.3±58.4ab
EG	0.190±0.150a	14.7±6.6b	2.7±0.8b	6.3±3.4a	305.9±305.8ab
EHM	0.002±0.000a	16.5±1.2b	5.2±0.7b	1.4±0.9ab	572.0±269.9ab
JSP	0.125±0.005a	15.6±4.7b	0.8±0.4b	1.3±0.4ab	172.7±112.9ab
OSP	0.151±0.000a	15.9±2.2b	3.0±0.5b	0.7±0.7ab	612.2±130.2ab
PTL	0.313±0.135a	41.3±35.1b	7.8±6.1b	3.0±3.4ab	392.0±411.2ab
RC	0.244±0.181a	13.0±9.1b	2.4±1.6b	5.0±2.6ab	452.0±442.0ab
SVD	nd***	382.3±372.3a	33.0±30.0a	0.001±0.0b	1123.4±1075.4a
VB	0.010±0.018a	25.0±4.3b	2.0±0.8b	0.3±0.2b	112.0±33.4ab

\*BD (*Baccharis dracunculifolia* DC.); BT (*Baccharis trimera* (Less) DC.); CD (*Cynodon dactylon* (L.) Pers); EG (*Equisetum giganteum* L.); EHM (*Eryngium horridum*); JSP (*Juncus* sp.); OSP (*Oenothera* sp.); PTL (*Plantago tomentosa* Lam.); RC (*Rostraria cristata* (L.) Tzvelev); SVD (*Solanum viarum* Dunal); VB (*Verbena bonariensis* L.). \*\*(Means±SD; n=49), means followed by the same letter within a column for same element are not significantly different at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).

\*\*\*nd (not determined).

Table 6 - Reference values in dry weight basis for various species in the world (Kabata-Pendias, 2010).

Elements	Situation	
	Sufficient or Normal	Excessive or Toxic
	-----mg kg <sup>-1</sup> -----	
Ba	-	500
Cd	0.05-0.2	5-30
Co	0.02-1	15-50
Cr	0.01-0.05	5-30
Cu	20-30	20-100
Mn	30-300	400-1000
Ni	0.1-5	10-100
Pb	5-10	30-300
V	0.2-1.5	5-10
Zn	27-150	100-400

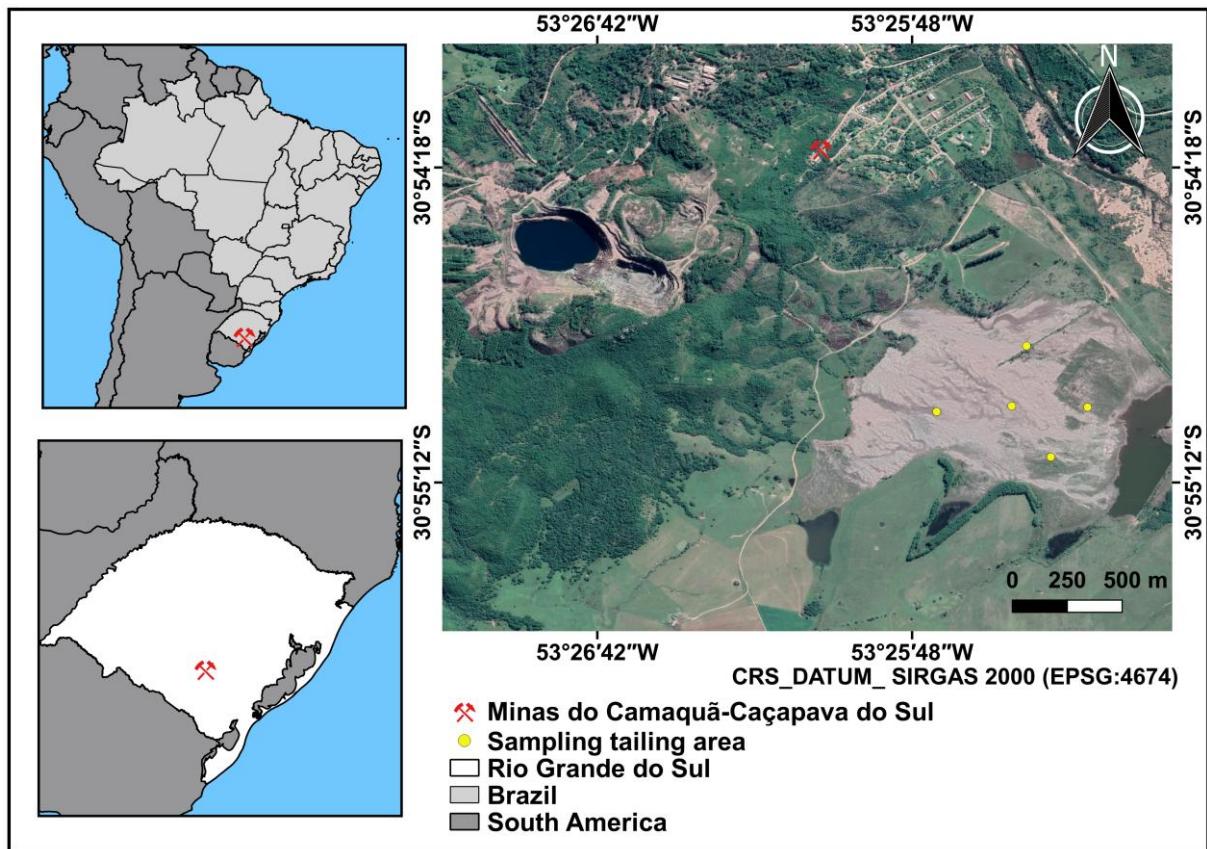


Figure 1 - Location Map of Copper Mining Tailing Area, Minas do Camaquã, South Brazil.

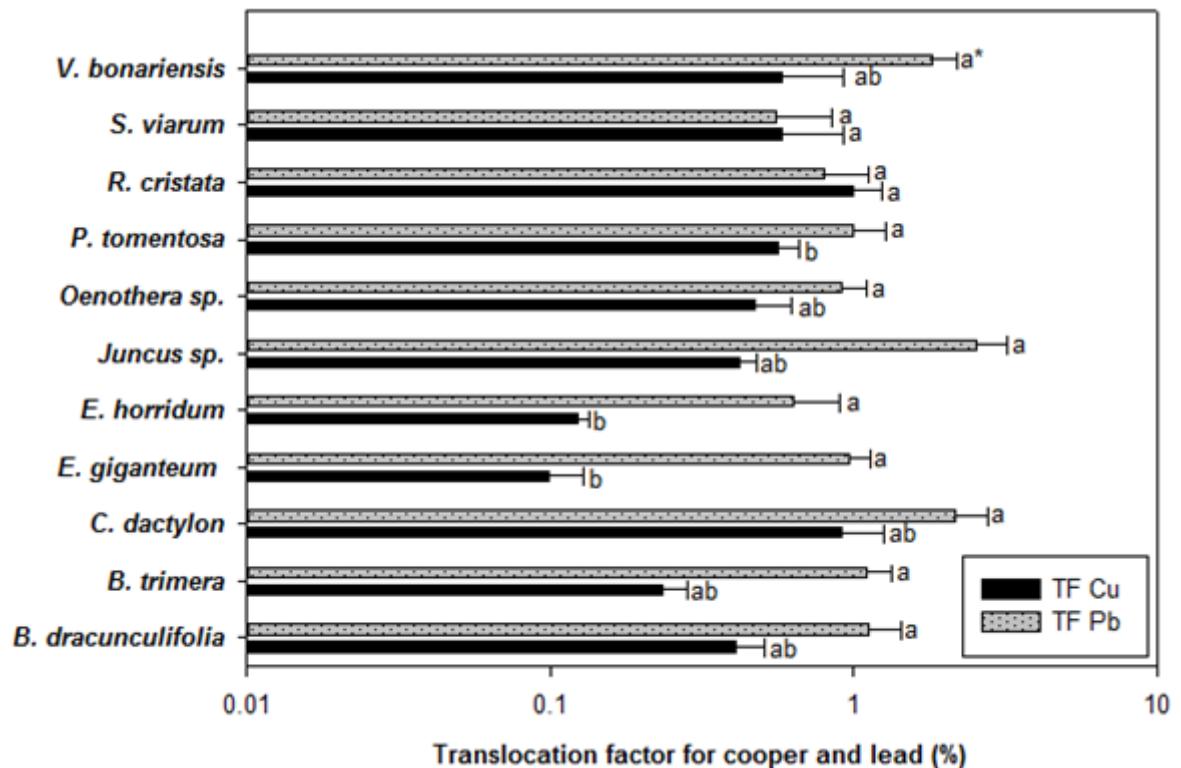


Figure 2 - Translocation factor (TF) for copper and lead. \*Values are the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation, (n=49). Means followed by the same letter within a column are not significantly different ( $p>0.05$ ) at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).

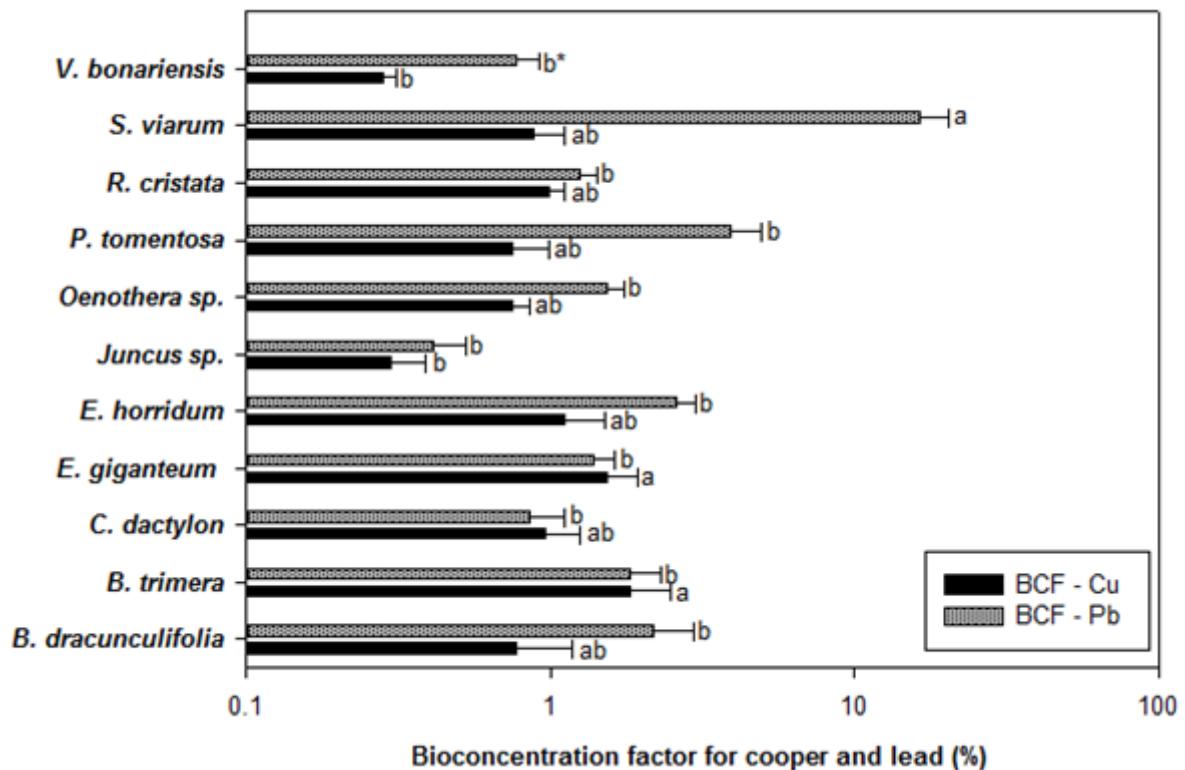


Figure 3 - Bioconcentration factor (BCF) for copper and lead. \*Values are the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation, ( $n=49$ ). Means followed by the same letter within a column are not significantly different ( $p>0.05$ ) at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).

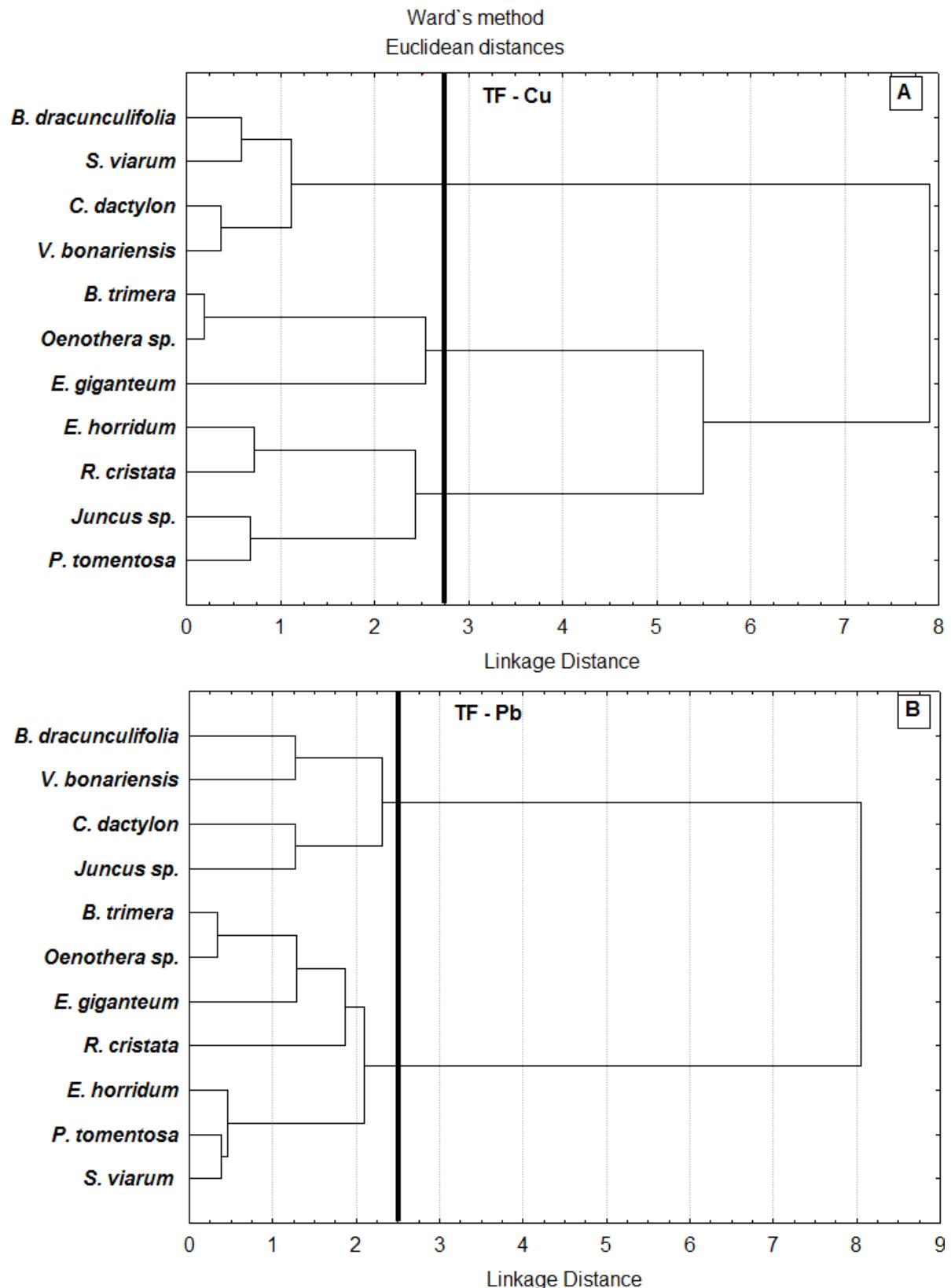


Figure 4 – Cluster Analyses in all species; A - Dendrogram of translocation factor for copper; B - Dendrogram of translocation factor for lead.

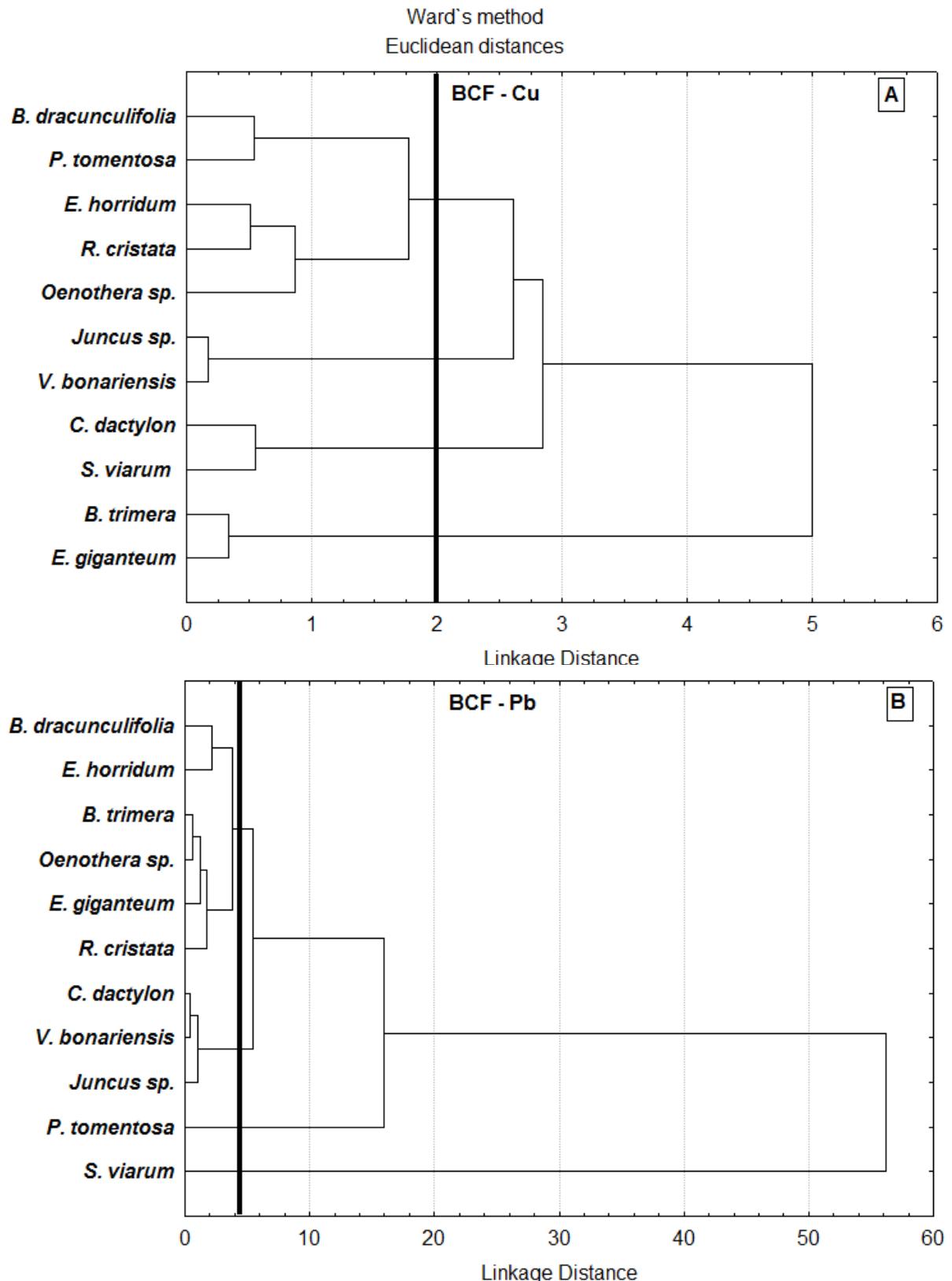


Figure 5 – Cluster Analyses in all species; A – Dendrogram of bioconcentration factor for copper; B – Dendrogram of bioconcentration factor for lead.

## **6 ARTIGO 2**

O artigo intitulado “**Potential of *Solanum viarum* Dunal in use for phytoremediation of heavy metals to mining areas, Southern Brazil**” é apresentado conforme as normas da Revista Environmental Science and Pollution Research, ISSN: 0944-1344, classificação A1 na área de Ciências Ambientais, tendo sido submetido em 21 de novembro de 2018.

**Potential of *Solanum viarum* Dunal in use for phytoremediation of heavy metals to mining areas, Southern Brazil**

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**Abstract**

Mining tailings areas may contain metal minerals such as Cu, Pb, Zn, Cr and Cd at high concentrations and low nutrients for growth of plants. This kind of conditions of soil/tailings as well as lack of soil/tailing structure may reduce or limit the development of plants growing on these areas. Thus, the present study determined the macro and micronutrient concentrations in the tissues of the roots and shoots of the *S. viarum* specie as well as it was evaluated the potential use of the plant for phytoremediation of areas contaminated with heavy metals. The nutrients (P, K, Ca, Mg, S) and the metals (Cu, Zn, Fe, Mn, Cd, Cr, Ni, Pb, Co and V) in the roots and shoots were determined by the digestion method with nitric and perchloric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3\text{-HClO}_4$ ) and quantified by the ICP-OES. The results showed that *S. viarum* has high tolerance to toxic concentrations of heavy metals Cu, Cr, Ni, Ba, Zn, Mn, Pb, Co, V, and a strong potential for phytoaccumulation not only Cu but also metals such Zn, Mn, Ni, Cr, Pb and Ba, especially in the roots. In addition, *S. viarum* presented capacity of soil metal extraction higher than 1% for the Zn, Mn, Ni, Cr, Pb and Ba. It shows a potential use of this plants in further studies on reclamation of tailing mining areas.

**Keywords** phytoextraction, phytoremediation, contamination of soils, TF, BCF, MER, PEN

## Introduction

The heavy metals, because they are characterized as a single class of contaminants (Buhlungu and Ntoni 2015) have been causing serious environmental problems by posing risks to human health, plants and the environment (Saad-Allah and Elhaak 2015).

Heavy metals in soils appears from various sources of contamination such as coal combustion, batteries, leaded from gasoline combustion, fertilizers and pesticides application, wastewater irrigation, industrial waste, smelting, recycling, mining, among other sources (Yoon et al. 2006; Cao et al. 2009; Huang et al. 2017).

The mining areas, for example, such as metalliferous deposits which are places with a wide range of heavy metals are exposed in subsurface and, after the process of ore beneficiation, this material is disposed in the soils in tailings dams (Pratas et al. 2014 ).

These mining tailings areas may contain metallic minerals such as copper (Cu), lead (Pb), zinc (Zn), chromium (Cr) and cadmium (Cd) in high concentrations. These heavy metals at high concentrations in soils/tailings as well as low nutrient concentration, high acidity levels and lack of soil/tailing structure may reduce or limit the development of plants growing on these areas (Pratas et al. 2014; Prasad 2015; Zhang et al. 2017). Thus, the identification of plant species that have the capacity to tolerate and concentrate in their biomass high levels of these heavy metals becomes an important factor in phytoremediation studies nowadays (Yu et al. 2015).

Phytoremediation is a technique that uses plant species for the removal of heavy metals and metalloids from contaminated soils (Garbisu and Alkorta 2001; Wang et al. 2017), and it is a reliable, low-cost and environmentally friendly method for cleaning up the environment (Ehsan et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2016; Tao et al. 2016).

Some species of plants have the capacity to accumulate toxic metals in their biomass in concentrations higher than  $1000 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  and are known as hyperaccumulators (Baker and Brooks 1989; Ma et al. 2001; Zhou and Song 2004, Buendia-Gonzalez et al. 2010). In addition, plants with hyperaccumulating capacity must present a translocation factor (TF) and bioconcentration factor (BCF) greater than one (Brooks 1998; Cluis 2004; Wei and Zhou 2004).

The *S. nigrum* L. species was described in the literature since 2005 as a Cd hyperaccumulator (Wei et al. 2005) and it is an example of a potential plant for phytoremediation; however *S. viarum* Dunal is a species that has not yet been investigated for these purposes.

The species *S. viarum* is an annual native shrub also known as a weed with economic importance in Mexico, Central America, South America (Brazil, Argentina) (Mullahey et al. 1993; Markle et al. 2014). In Brazil it usually occurs to the east of the country and it is commonly known as Joá-bravo, Horse-mackerel and Horse-riding (Lorenzi 2000). So, the present study determined the macro and micronutrient concentrations in the tissues of the roots and the shoots of the *S. viarum* species, as well as evaluated the potential use of this plant with spontaneous occurrence in the copper mining tailings in the Camaquã Mine region, RS-Brazil, for the purpose of phytoremediation of areas contaminated with heavy metals.

## **Materials and Methods**

### **Study area**

The research area is located at the Municipality of Caçapava do Sul which is located at 260 km from the capital Porto Alegre in the state of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil, more specifically at Camaquã Mines, which is a district of the Municipality of Caçapava do Sul, whose coordinates are 30°54'31.59 "South latitude and 53°26'49.48" West longitude at an altitude of 444 meters.

The Camaquã Mines belongs to the Pampa Biome (IBGE 2012); it has a subtropical temperate climate classified as humid mesothermic and the region is located in the João Dias stream subwatershed, which belongs to the Camaquã river watershed (BRASIL 2006).

The geological and tectonic scenario of the area belongs to the South Brazilian Shield (SBS) and the Camaquã Basin (Chemale 2000; Paim et al. 2000; Borba et al. 2008). Camaquã mines contain one of the largest deposits of basic copper metals with associated silver and gold, as well as lead, zinc, silver and copper, discovered in the clastic sequences of the Camaquã Basin (Remus et al. 1999) and the mine has been explored since the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Teixeira et al. 1978). The mining area of the Camaquã Mines includes the tailings from the Uruguay Mine (Cu) (closed in 1996) which is the specific area of this study.

The Camaquã Mine region is marked by the copper mining and it is located on flat levels of mining tailings where the cava (already mined area) has been filled. The soils of the Camaquã Mine region are A-Chemozênic (EMBRAPA 2013).

### **Plant samples**

Samples were collected during the summer in the mine tailing area of the Uruguayan Mine, located in the district of Minas do Camaquã, Caçapava do Sul region, Brazil. The *S. viarum* plant was collected, later it was packed in properly paper bags identified and then sent to the laboratory.

The plants collected in triplicates in three locates were washed with tap water and subsequently with distilled water to remove any sediment or particles attached to the plant surfaces.

For analysis of the concentration of metals, the root system was separated from the shoots. Plant tissues were dried at 70°C for 48 hours or until they achieved constant weight. Fresh and dry weight was determined. The dried tissues were milled into powder or until they achieved 2 mm granulometry. Subsequently, acid digestion was performed using 3:1 concentrated nitric-perchloric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3\text{-HClO}_4$ ) for each aliquot of 1 g of dry tissue sample. After the digestion process the macro and microelements contained in the samples were determined by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (PerkinElmer®-Optima™ 8300, ICP-OES).

### **Soil samples**

The tailing sampling was concomitant with the collection of *S. viarum*, being a composite sampling taken at a depth of 0 to 20 cm.

All samples were air-dried, ground and sieved (3 mm) prior to analysis (Table 1). Phisicochemical properties of the soil were the determined: the pH in water ratio 1:1; O.M by humid digestion; CEC: cation exchange capacity; P, Na, Cu, and Zn (extractable): extracted with 0.1 M HCl; Mg (exchangeable): extracted with 1.0 M KCl; H + Al: titration; S: extracted with 500 M calcium phosphate; Cd, Ni, Cr, Pb, Mo, Ba (USEPA 3050b 1996) and determined with Inductively Coupled Plasma – Optical Emission Spectrometry (PerkinElmer® - Optima™ 8300, ICP-OES).

### **Metal accumulation**

After the quantification of the metals in the roots and shoots of the plants biomass as well as in the copper mining tailing, phytoremediation indexes were calculated.

The translocation factor (TF) was described as the concentration of metals in the shoots of the plants in relation to the root (Eq. 1) (Cui et al. 2007). In order to measure the capacity of adsorption of the heavy metals

present in the mining tailings in relation to the roots of the plant, the bioconcentration factor (BCF) expressed as the ratio of metal concentration in the roots in relation to the tailings (Eq. 2) (Yoon et al. 2006) was determined. In the same way, the MER index was also determined. The MER is defined as the ratio of the metal accumulation in the shoots of the plant to that in the soil (Eq. 3) which it expresses the capacity of extraction of metals considering the biomass produced by the plant and the volume that will be decontaminated (Mertens et al. 2005).

$$TF = [\text{Metal}]_{\text{shoots}} / [\text{Metal}]_{\text{roots}} \quad (1)$$

$$BCF = [\text{Metal}]_{\text{roots}} / [\text{Metal}]_{\text{soil}} \quad (2)$$

$$MER = ([C_{\text{plant}}] \times [M_{\text{plant}}]) / ([C_{\text{soil}}] \times [M_{\text{rooted zone}}]) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

The plant effective number (PEN) was also determined which it is defined as the number of the plants required to extract 1.0 g of the element/metal of interest, when the shoot biomass (PENs) and total plants are considered (PENt) (García et al. 2004; Sun et al. 2008). Both effective plant numbers were calculated using plant concentration levels as well as their dry weight.

The phytoremediation potential ( $\text{g ha}^{-1}$ ) was estimated considering the biomass weight of the plant along with the total concentration in the plant of the target element. For this, it was considered the plant's dry biomass production ( $2.74 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ) estimated based on the studies of Mullahey and Cornell (1994) and Manimegalai et al. (2011), multiplied by the total plant concentration of each target element ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$  total).

The plant effective number (PEN) and metal extraction (MER) were applied to evaluate the plant's ability to remediate contaminated soil.

### **Statistical analysis**

The values presented in this study are the means of three replicates for each element investigated. The experimental design was completely randomized.

For the multivariate analysis, clusters (CA) were applied in order to verify the similarity between the elements in the plant, considering the total concentrations of metals in the plant (shoots + roots). The clusters were applied to eighteen variables (the elements) using Ward's method of linking based on Euclidean distance. AC produced dendograms with well-defined clusters.

Bar charts were built using SigmaPlot® software version 14.0 (Systat software, Inc).

## Results

### Heavy metal and nutrients concentration in the roots, shoots and total plants

The species *S. viarum* occurs spontaneously in the copper mining tailings area. It obtained average dry weights of 1.68 g (shoots), 0.9 g (root) and an average height of 17.5 cm.

In the dry biomass of the *S. viarum* species the concentrations of the macroelement phosphorus (P) in the shoots and roots were similar, being  $3,075 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1a) and  $3589 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  respectively (Fig. 1b), the same occurred for the calcium with values of  $31,723 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1a) and  $34,316 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  in the shoots and roots, respectively (Fig. 1b). However, the potassium element (K) at root concentrations ( $39724 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  Fig. 1b) were more than twice times as high than the shoots ( $15049 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  Fig. a), the same occurred for sulfur (S), with concentrations of  $9,047 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1b) and  $3,943 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1a), respectively.

In relation to the sodium (Na) levels, this was higher in the roots compared to the shoots, being  $11575 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1b) and  $2385 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1a), respectively, and magnesium (Mg), where it presented 55.89% higher concentrations in the shoots compared to the roots with values of  $11959 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1a) and  $7671 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1b), respectively.

In *S. viarum*, the average concentrations of the metals presented in the dry biomass varied between the shoots and roots, being higher in the roots (Fig. 1b) for metals such as Cu ( $229 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), Zn ( $232 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), Mn ( $251 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), Cr ( $382 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), Ni ( $178 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), Pb ( $33 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) and Ba ( $1123 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), while in the shoots the highest concentrations were for metals such as Fe ( $13722 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), Al ( $5795 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), Co ( $1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) e V ( $7 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) (Fig. 1a).

The average of the total concentrations of micronutrients in the dry biomass of *S. viarum* were  $199 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  for Ni,  $366 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  for Cu and  $376 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  for Zn, while to the total concentrations achieved values of  $440 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  for Cr and  $42 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  for Pb, while for metals Mn, Co and V the concentrations were  $478 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ,  $2 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  and  $8 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1c), respectively. Barium (Ba) presented the highest total concentration among all metals achieving values of  $1947 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1c).

### Phytoremediation indexes

In the *S. viarum* species, the translocation factor (TF) for the analyzed elements did not present significant differences, except for the vanadium (V) (Table 2). Translocation values higher than one (TF> 1) are considered good, so the *S. viarum* species presented a higher translocation capacity for the metals Fe (TF= 2), Al (TF= 3), Ba (TF= 2) and V (TF= 7979). However, the heavy metals Zn, Cr and Pb have a translocation factor equal to one (TF= 1). For the Na as well as the heavy metal nickel (Ni), the translocation factor was less than one (TF<1) indicating that *S. viarum* species tend to concentrate these elements in the roots.

Regarding to the bioconcentration factor (BCF), it was higher for the Ba (BCF= 3874.1)> Na (BCF= 1240.1)> Zn (BCF= 268.0) among all elements analyzed (Table 2). For the other elements BCF values were lower than 25 being the heavy metal copper with the lowest BCF value (1) and the highly toxic heavy metals Cr, Pb respectively with BCF 25.0 and 16.4 whereas Mn and Ni metals presented BCF of 23.1 and 20.1, respectively.

Among the analyzed elements the metal extraction ratio (MER) was higher for the Ba (MER= 535.1%) and Na (MER= 107.2%). Although the rate of extraction of heavy metals Cu (MER= 0.1%), Mn (MER= 5.0%), Cd (MER= 0.05%), Cr (MER= 2.0%), Ni (MER= 1.2%) e Pb (MER= 2.1%) have been lower than 5% (Table 2), the zinc presented a metal extraction rate of 32.3%.

When it was considered the plants effective number (*S. viarum*), the toxic heavy metal cadmium was the one that demanded the largest number of plants (PENs= 141,906,452 plants) (Table 3). Cu, Zn and Ni heavy metals requested 35,260 plants, 32,172 plants and 218,272 plants, respectively; and the toxic heavy metals Cr and Pb required 80319 plants and 489419 plants, respectively (Table 3).

Analyzing the effective number of plants, considering the whole plant (PENt), necessary to remove one gram (1 g) of the target element, it is observed similar behavior to the PENs, the cadmium was the element with larger number of whole plants needed to remove one gram of this element of the soil, 17,700,994 plants (Table 3). The heavy metals Cu, Zn and Cr required a similar number of whole plants (PENt) with values of 5380 for Cu, 5395 for Zn and 5744 for Cr, while Pb needed 48154 of whole plants and Ni 13967 of whole plants to remove 1 g of the metal (Table 3).

The analysis of the phytoremediation potential of the plant *S. viarum* demonstrated a high possibility of removal of heavy metals of Cu, Zn, Mn, Ni, being about 1000 g per hectare. This potential for the Cd, Co, V and Pb metals was increasing with values of 0.1, 10, 20 and 100 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. For the barium (Ba) and aluminum (Al) the removal potential would be 5,000 and 28,000 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2).

In the multivariate analysis of the elements investigated in the plant *S. viarum* there are four main clusters demonstrating the similarity between them, being the groups 1 (Ca, K), group 2 (Fe, Mg), group 3 (Al, Na, S) and group 4 (Ba, Pb, V, Co, Cd, Ni, Cr, Mn, Zn, Cu, P) (Fig. 3). The groups 1, 2 and 3 are composed basically by essential macronutrients for the development of plants. Group 4 consists exclusively by metals, except by presence of potassium, including essential metals like copper, nickel and zinc as well as the toxic metals Cd, Cr, Pb.

## **Discussion**

The copper mining tailings areas present an extreme condition which means low concentration of nutrients, high concentration of heavy metals, besides a poor structuring of the tailings, which it reflects in a strong pressure of environmental selection demanding more resistant and adapted plants. Thus, several studies have investigated plants capable of adapting to environments contaminated with heavy metals, being an alternative for reclamation and remediation of these areas.

The adequate composition of macro and micronutrients in the mining tailings promotes the development of the plants (Kabata-Pendias 2010; Alloway 2013) and the *S. viarum* is not in favorable conditions for its development. According to Cuda et al. (2004) *S. viarum* can achieve 1.8 m height under highly fertile soil conditions being 10.58 times higher than the height found in this study.

The studies of Manimegali et al. (2011) demonstrated that *S. viarum* is resistant and an easily adaptable plant and can present dry biomass of the root in a range between 3.62 and 4.82 g, and to dry biomass of the shoots in a range between 4.85 and 6.05 g. A study performed by Soares et al. (2001) in Brazil evaluating the development of weeds in Zn, Cd, Cu and Pb contaminated soils showed that the species *Solanum granulosum-leprosum* Dun. (from the same family of *S. viarum* (Solanaceae)) obtained dry mass of 3 g (roots) and 3.7 g (shoots). Values found in the present study were well below to those reported by Soares et al. (2001) and Manimegali et al. (2011) on similar conditions of development of Solanaceae family species.

The mean total concentrations of micronutrients as well as the heavy metals showed in the dry biomass of *S. viarum* were above the toxicity limit (Table 4) for the metals such as Cu, Cr, Ni and Ba, whereas for the metals such as Zn, Mn, Pb, Co and V, the concentrations are among the ranges considered excessive or toxic (Kabata-Pendias 2010).

The concentrations of metals present in the dry biomass of *S. viarum* were higher in the roots compared to the area for the most of the heavy metals investigated. The studies of Soares et al. (2001) corroborate with the present study since the author also found concentrations of Cd (128 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>), Cu (147 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and Zn (3087 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) higher in the roots of *Solanum granulosum-leprosum* Dun. in relation to the shoots, except for the Pb that obtained the same concentration in the shoots as in the roots (3.5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>). These concentrations are higher for the Cd, Zn, and lower for the Pb and Cu metals when compared to the present study.

According to Kahle (1993), high accumulation of metals in the roots may be related to the immobilization of these metals by insoluble organic polymers present in the plant tissue. In addition, as *S. viarum* grew on a mining tailings containing high levels of metals, mainly Cu and Cr, may have had an additive phytotoxic effect, which may be related to its low development, although it has presented high tolerance to high concentrations of metals in its biomass.

Although high concentrations for both Cu and Zn heavy metals may be detrimental to plant growth, these metals are essential elements for their development depending on the levels (Naser et al. 2015). Some studies indicate that high concentrations of Zn<sup>2+</sup> in soil solution may promote antagonistic effects on the absorption of metals such as Cu<sup>2+</sup> (Alloway 1993; 2013).

The inverse of this effect could be seen in the absorption of both copper and zinc in *S. viarum* since that in the copper mining tail the Zn concentrations were low and Cu concentrations were high, and in the plant the concentrations of these metals maintained the same pattern (high concentrations of Cu and low concentrations of Zn). The same effect was observed by Yu et al. (2015) in the species *Solanum nigrum* L., so that, for high concentrations of Cu in soils the accumulation of Zn in the leaves was inhibited.

Regarding to the translocation factors (TF) and to the bioconcentration factor (BCF), there is a lack of specific literature for *S. viarum* species, either for concentrations of heavy metals or potential of the plant for use in the recovery of contaminated environments.

Most of the studies for this plant are currently focused on its potential use in medicine, since this species is considered toxic to animals and interferes with the development of other plant species, contains several compounds with therapeutic potentials such as phenolic compounds and solasodine (steroid glycoalkaloids used for the synthesis of cortisone), antioxidant derivatives of glycosylated kaeoylquinic acid among others (Ma et al. 2010; Wu et al. 2012).

Therefore, the TF and BCF indexes most studied in species of the same family of *S. viarum* are related to the metals such as Zn, Cd, As, Ti in the species of *S. granulosum-leprosum* Dun. or *S. nigrum* L. (Table 5) and

other results found according to the authors Soares et al. (2001), Sun et al. (2008), Wu et al. (2015), Khan et al. (2016), Khan et al (2017a) and Mukherjee et al. (2018).

TF value for Zn (= 47) determined by the Soares et al. (2001) in the species *S. granulosum-leprosum* Dun. was above to the value found in this study. For cadmium, Khan et al. (2017a) found TF values between 1021-2311 (TF) in the species *S. nigrum* L. which demonstrated in its study the potential of the species such as hyperaccumulate plant for cadmium.

*S. viarum* in this study showed no translocation index for cadmium, it presented a translocation factor greater than or equal to one (1) for metals Al, Cu, Zn, Mn, Cr and Pb. The study by Yoon et al. (2006) with 36 native plants found on areas contaminated with Zn, Cu, Pb showed that both elements Zn and Cu have a greater tendency of translocation to the shoots, which corroborates with the values obtained for the metals mentioned above that presented  $TF \geq 1$ . Translocation factor (TF) and bioconcentration factor (BCF) greater than one indicate the potential of the plant to be used for phytoextraction of heavy metals (Fitz and Wenzel 2002; Yoon et al. 2006).

The BCF values for copper (0.21), zinc (0.42) and lead (0.09) obtained in the study of Yu et al. (2015) for *S. nigrum* L. were lower than those found in this study, so, this author evaluated the interference between these metals in soils contaminated with Cu, Zn, Pb and Cd and it so that although *S. nigrum* L. has not presented BCF values for bioaccumulation indicators for Cu, Zn, and Pb, and also it is suggested that there is a mutual effect for these elements in the plant, indicating that the species has great potential to be hyperaccumulating of these metals.

Thus, these studies in *S. nigrum* L. corroborate with results obtained in *S. viarum* being able to be characterized with high potential in phytoremediation and stabilization of heavy metals. Plants with BCF greater than 1 can be considered as hyperaccumulating (Cluis 2004). Thus, the results indicate that *S. viarum* presented potential characteristics of hyperaccumulating heavy metals Cu, Zn, Mn, Ni, Cr, Pb and Ba showing a strong potential for phytoacumulation.

The results obtained for *S. viarum* indicated a high MER, that is, the capacity of the plant to accumulate the metals in the shoots in relation to the mining tailings. This reinforces its potential characteristic of hyperaccumulating metals as well as the *S. nigrum* L. capacity of hyperaccumulating As and Cd (Sun et al. 2008; Khan et al. 2017a). In addition, the plant characteristics required for phytoremediation of soils contaminated by multiple metals are high tolerance to metal and metalloid toxicity (Baker and Whiting 2002; Leguizamo et al. 2016).

*S. viarum* exhibited good soil metal extraction (copper mining tailings) (MER), which means that in one harvest of this plant, more than 1% of the metals Zn, Mn, Ni, Cr, Pb and Ba contained in the soil can be removed from it. In addition, the plant effective number of PENs and PENt was higher than the results found by Andreazza et al. (2013) in *R. communis* L., with 72,752 plants (PENs) and 781 plants (PENt) needed to remove copper in the same contaminated soils. However, these results indicate a strong potential of *S. viarum* in phytoaccumulating not only Cu, but also other metals such as Zn, Mn, Ni, Cr, Pb and Ba, especially in the roots.

As the *S. viarum* in ideal conditions for its development can achieve 1.8 meters height and considering its potential phytoaccumulation and phytostabilization of metals. It can be assumed that in ideal conditions, the PEN values besides having the possibility to decrease drastically there is possibility of an increase in the removal efficiency of heavy metals from soils.

In this context, being the method of Ward with Euclidean distances one of the most used to determine the degree of similarity among the variables (Hair et al. 2009; Azhari et al. 2017), these analysis complemented the estimation of *S. viarum* potential for phytoremediation of metals, since in the analysis of the clusters, all metals, except for Fe and Al, were grouped in the same group. This result is similar to those found by Demarco et al. (2018). Thereby, the results showed once again that the *S. viarum* has a great commercial potential for the application in phytoremediation and treatment of areas contaminated with heavy metals.

## Conclusions

This study showed that *S. viarum* presented high tolerance to toxic levels of heavy metals Cu, Cr, Ni, Ba, Zn, Mn, Pb, Co, V and it has a strong potential in phytoaccumulating not only Cu but also the metals Zn, Mn, Ni, Cr, Pb and Ba especially in the roots. This plant showed strongly adaptation in this kind of contaminated area, and also, it is important to emphasize that it is an environment with strong pressure for selection of plants and organisms, highly difficult for find new plants. In addition, *S. viarum* showed soil metal extraction capacity greater than 1% for the metals Zn, Mn, Ni, Cr, Pb and Ba. Therefore, the *S. viarum* has indicated a strong potential for phytoremediation of areas contaminated with heavy metals, especially metals such as copper, barium and chromium; however, further studies are needed regarding the maximum accumulation capacity of toxic metals in the biomass of the species *ex situ* and *in situ* evaluations.

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**Table 1** Chemical-physical characteristics of soil: copper mining waste.

<b>Soil Texture</b>		<b>Value in Soil</b>	<b>Ref. Value</b>
Clay	%	13.0	41.0-60.0e*
pH	1:1	6.2	6.0-6.5d
O.M.	%	0.5	-
CEC	cmol <sub>c</sub> dm <sup>-3</sup>	6.7	>15.0e
Na	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	9.3	5000.0d
P	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	77.0	800.0d
S	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	1.2	700.0d
Mn	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	11.0	418.0c
Cu	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	259.7	7.0-11.0a
Zn	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.9	19.0-20.0a
Cd	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	<0.2	0.3-0.4a
Cr	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	15.3	16.0-21.0a
Ni	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	9.0	4.0-7.0a
Pb	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	<2.0	13.0-16.0a
Ba	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.3	≤150.0b
Mo	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	3.3	≤30.0b

<sup>a</sup>FEPAM N.<sup>o</sup> 85/2014; <sup>b</sup>CONAMA N<sup>o</sup> 460/2013 (valores para prevenção); <sup>c</sup>Kabata-Pendias (2010); <sup>d</sup>EMBRAPA (2010); <sup>e</sup>SBCS-NRS (2016).

**Table 2** Phytoremediation indexes: translocation factor (TF), bioconcentration factor (BCF), metal extraction rate in the shoots in relation to the soils (MER) at *in situ* evaluation of the *Solanum viarum* Dunal.

Metals	<i>Solanum viarum</i> Dunal		
	TF	BCF	MER
		%	
<b>Cu</b>	1.3±1.4b	1±0.7c	0.1±0.1b
<b>Zn</b>	1.0±0.6b	268.0±244.8c	32.3±18.8b
<b>Fe</b>	4.1±0.4b	-	-
<b>Mn</b>	1.4±0.1b	23.1±19.3c	5.0±3.7b
<b>Na</b>	0.2±0.0b	1240.1±1068.8bc	107.2±61.8b
<b>Cd</b>	-	-	0.05±0.07b
<b>Cr</b>	1.0±0.7b	25.0±24.3c	2.0±1.2b
<b>Ni</b>	0.4±0.5b	20.1±19c	1.2±0.9b
<b>Pb</b>	1.0±0.4b	16.4±15.0c	2.1±0.8b
<b>Al</b>	3.1±3.2b	-	-
<b>Co</b>	-	-	-
<b>Ba</b>	2.4±3.0b	3874.1±3708.5b	535.1±324.4ab
<b>V</b>	7979.2±5844.0a	-	-

\*Values are means ( $\pm$  SD; n = 3) and means followed by the same letter within a column are not significantly different at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).

**Table 3** Phytoremediation indexes: plant effective number (PENs and PENt) at *in situ* evaluation of the *Solanum viarum* Dunal.

Metals	<i>Solanum viarum</i> Dunal	
	PENs	PENt
	-----number of plants-----	
<b>Cu</b>	35260±29687b	5380±5769b
<b>Zn</b>	32172±25859b	5395±4696b
<b>Fe</b>	341±285b	89±94b
<b>Mn</b>	20731±17441b	4124±4458b
<b>Na</b>	2064±1380b	147±124b
<b>Cd</b>	141906452±241257140a	17700994±27415909a
<b>Cr</b>	80319±64924b	5744±3326b
<b>Ni</b>	218272±171795b	13967±7902b
<b>Pb</b>	489419±406589b	48154±41398b
<b>Al</b>	809±679b	195±206b
<b>Co</b>	2451106±2063972b	1094129±1352912b
<b>Ba</b>	5653±4707b	1026±947b
<b>V</b>	581077±473425b	246498±260948b

\*Values are means ( $\pm$  SD; n = 3) and means followed by the same letter within a column are not significantly different at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).

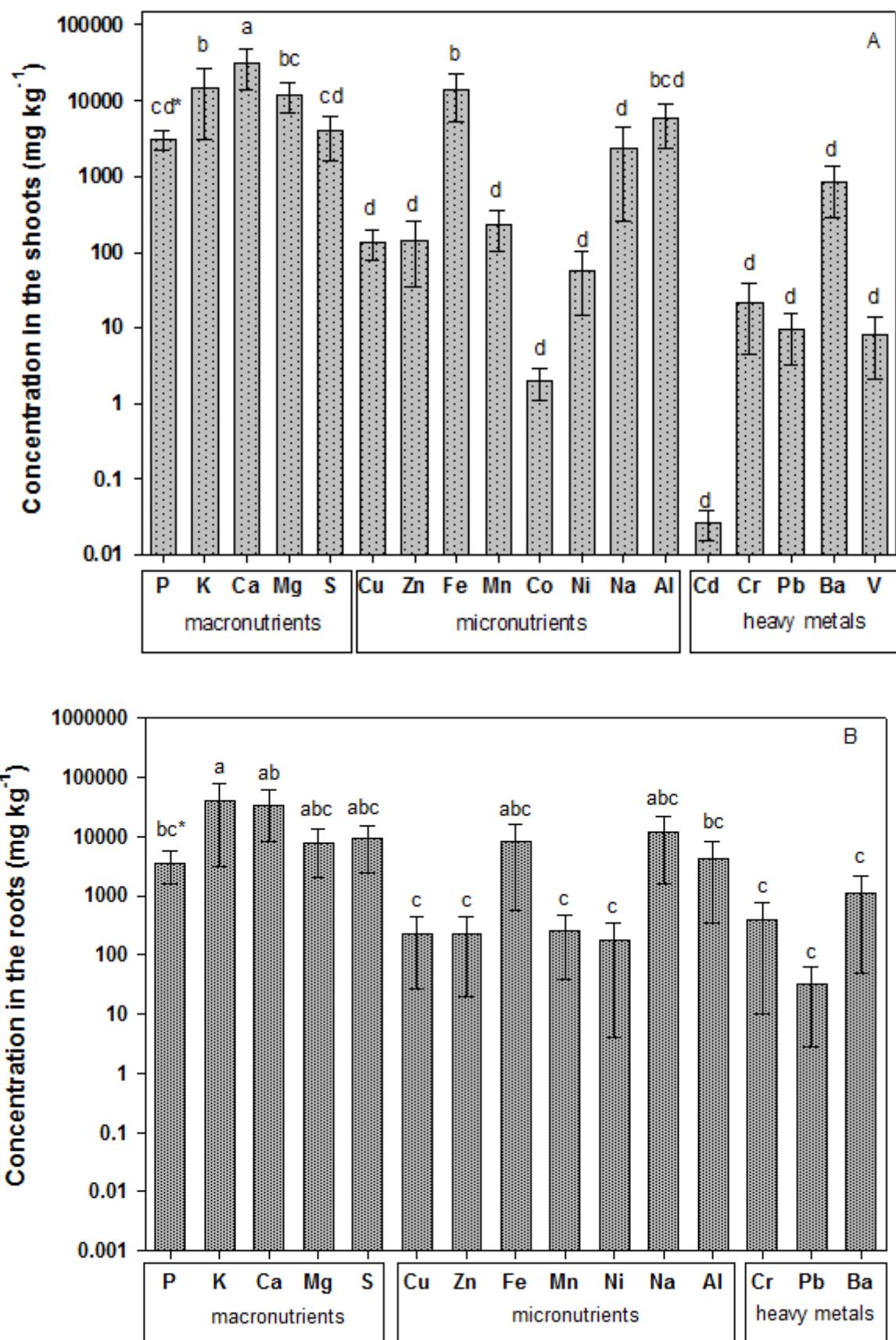
**Table 4** Reference values in dry weight basis for various species in the world (Kabata-Pendias, 2010).

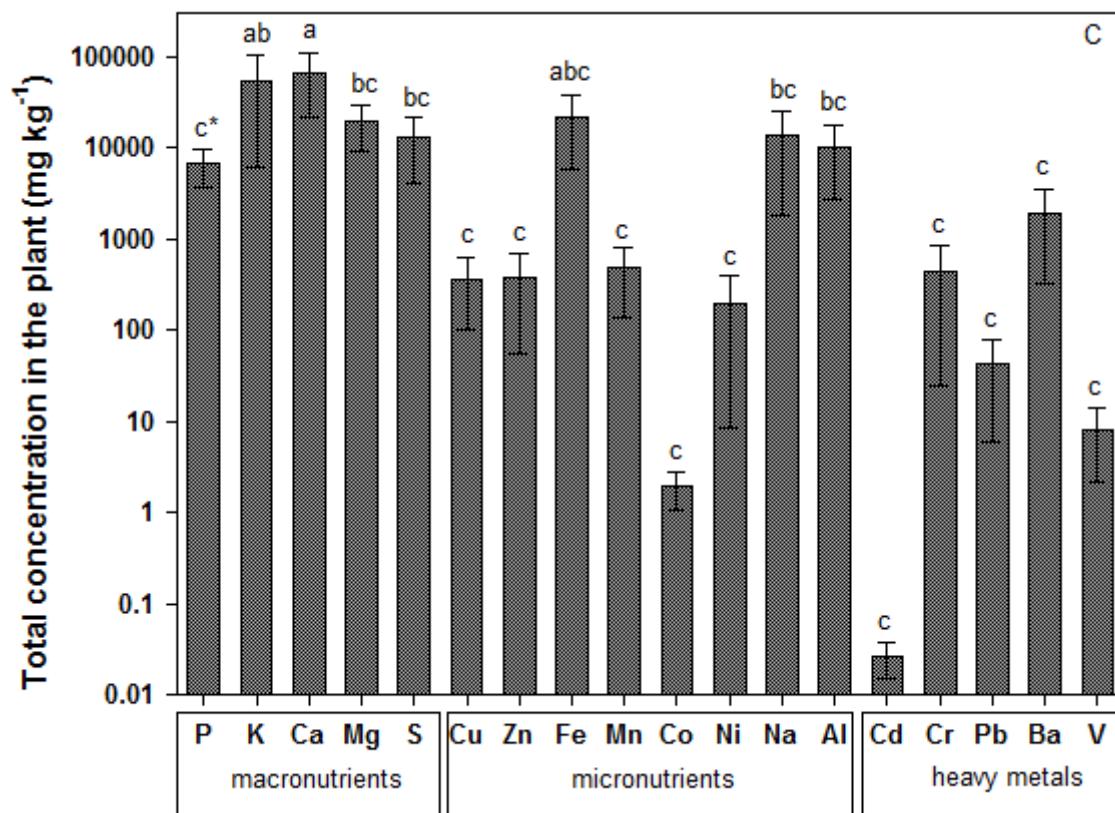
Metals	Situation	
	Sufficient or Normal	Excessive or Toxic
	-----mg kg <sup>-1</sup> -----	
<b>Ba</b>	-	500
<b>Cd</b>	0.05-0.2	5-30
<b>Co</b>	0.02-1	15-50
<b>Cr</b>	0.01-0.05	5-30
<b>Cu</b>	20-30	20-100
<b>Mn</b>	30-300	400-1000
<b>Ni</b>	0.1-5	10-100
<b>Pb</b>	5-10	30-300
<b>V</b>	0.2-1.5	5-10
<b>Zn</b>	27-150	100-400

**Table 5** Studies in *Solanum sp.*

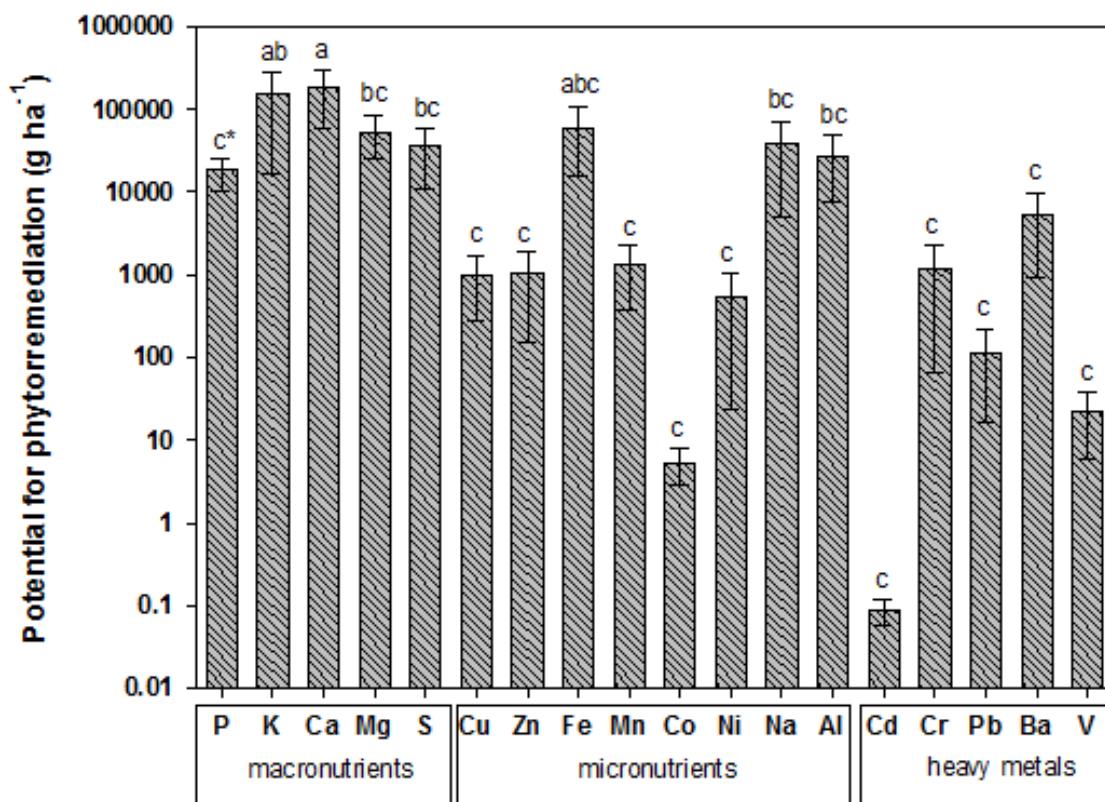
Species	Height	Dry weight (shoots)	Dry weight (roots)	Metal concentration		Phytoremediation indexes	Reference
				shoots mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	roots mg kg <sup>-1</sup>		
<i>Solanum granulosum-leprosum</i>	-	3.7 g (soils contaminated with Zn, Cu, Cd, Pb)	3.0 g (soils contaminated with Zn, Cu, Cd, Pb)	Cd (98) Zn (2917) Cu (45) Pb (3.5)	Cd (128) Zn (3087) Cu (147) Pb ( 3.5)	TF 34 (Cd) TF 37 (Zn) -	Soares et al. (2001)
<i>Solanum viarum Dunal</i>	1.8 m	-	-	-	-	-	Cuda et al. (2004)
<i>Solanum viarum Dunal</i>	63-86.6 cm	4.85-6.05 g	3.62-4.82 g	-	-	-	Manimegalai et al. (2011)
<i>Solanum viarum Dunal</i>	2.0 m	-	-	-	-	-	Kandari et al. (2011)
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	-	-	-	Cd (88) As (500)	-	TF >1 (Cd) -	Sun et al. (2008)
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>		13.6-26.11 g (soils contaminated with Cu, Zn, Pb, Cd)	2.63-5.18 g	Cu (8.31-29.17)	Cu (141.97)	BCF=0.21 (Cu)	Yu et al. (2015)
		13.84 g (soils contaminated with Cu)	2.63 g (soils contaminated with Cu)	Pb (29.12-39.57) Cd (1.45- 69.55)	-	BCF=0.42 (Zn) BCF=3.22 (Cd)	
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	-	-	-	-	-	Biomass 2.584-2.612 mg kg <sup>-1</sup> m <sup>-2</sup>	Wang et al. (2015)

Species	Height	Dry weight (shoots)	Dry weight (roots)	Metal concentration		Phytoremediation indexes	Reference
				shoots	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> roots		
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	-	-	-	Cd (2.4) Zn (153) Ni (4.4) Pb (270) Fe (19.9) Co (3.2) As (4.2) Cr (24.8) Al (10.6)	Cd (0.4) Zn (90) Ni (2.6-4.8) Pb (28) Fe (10.5-24.8) Co (0.2-1.2) As (nd) Cr (3.6-12) Al (2-6.1)	-	Saad-Allah and Elhaak (2015)
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	5-50 cm	-	-	-	-	BCF> 1 (TI) TF=0.5 (TI)	Wu et al. (2015)
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	-	-	-	-	Cd (9.6-19.6)	-	Ji et al. (2016)
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	38.2-60.3 cm	0.84-1.41 g (total in the plant)		Cd (230.9-501.1)	Cd (1654.8-10495.8)	TF 0.05-0.6 (Cd)	Khan et al. (2016)
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	-	-	-	As (152.3)	As (1267)	BCF 321-523 (Cd) TF=18.19 (As)	Mukherjee et al. (2018)
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	-	-	-	Cd (489-1423 ) Cd (124.6)	Cd (1021-2311) Cd (110-460)	BCF >1 (As) TF 0.5-0.7 (Cd) BCF 1070-2464 (Cd)	Khan et al. (2017a)
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	-	-	-	Cd (11.15-16.21) Zn (0.22-0.35) Cu (11.95-30.28)	Cd (9.25-21.31) Zn (0.14-0.42) Cu (9.12-28.6)	-	Xu et al. (2018)
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	20-40 cm (roots)	3-4g	-	Cu (0.7)	Cu (0.5)	-	Khan et al. (2017b)

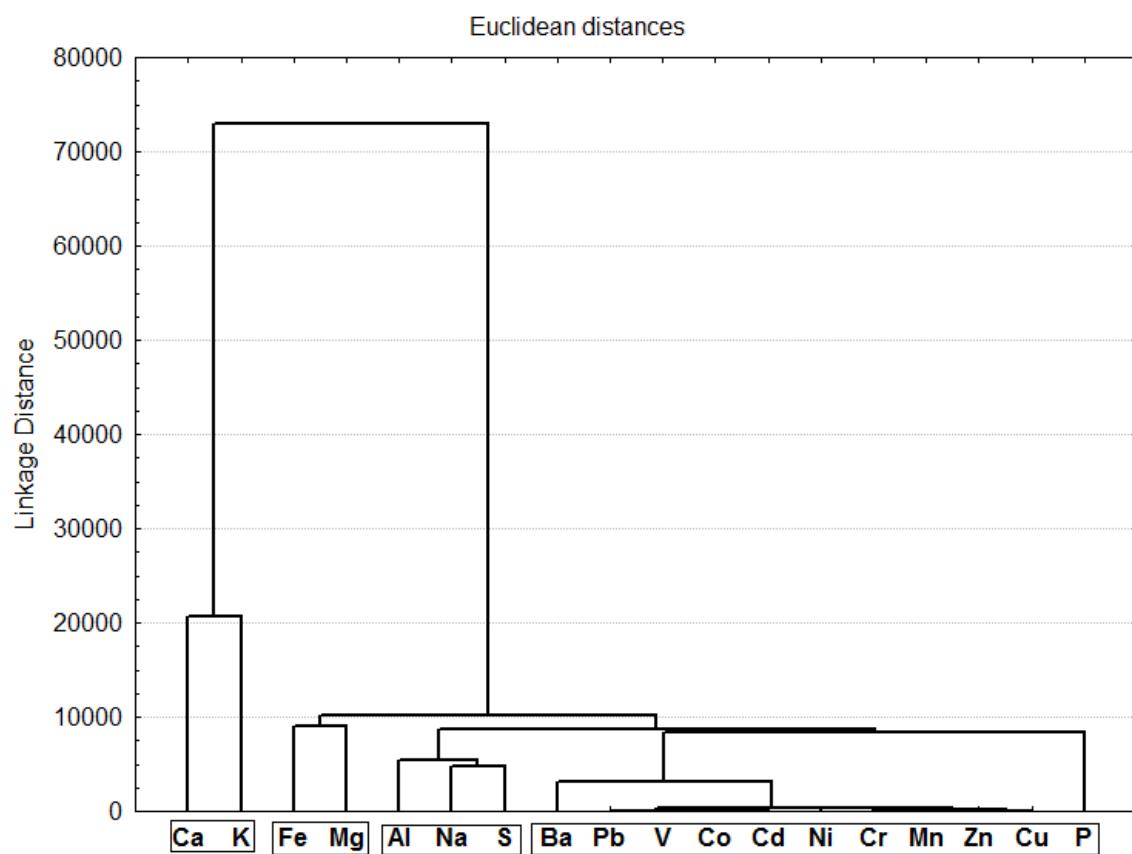




**Fig 1** Concentrations of the elements in the dry biomass of the *Solanum viarum* Dunal: (a) Concentrations in the shoots; (b) Concentrations in the roots; (c) Concentrations in the whole plant (shoots + roots). \*Values are presented as means ( $\pm\text{SD}$ ;  $n = 3$ ) and means followed by the same letter are not significantly different at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).



**Fig 2** Potential phytoremediation of the *Solanum viarum* Dunal under natural growth condition at the copper mining tailings area. \*Values are presented as means ( $\pm \text{SD}$ ;  $n = 3$ ) and means followed by the same letter are not significantly different at the 95% confidence level (Tukey's test).



**Fig 3** Dendrogram of heavy metal and nutrients in the *Solanum viarum* Dunal (total mg kg<sup>-1</sup>).

## **7 CONCLUSÃO**

A partir do desenvolvimento desta pesquisa foi possível perceber espécies de plantas espontâneas com uso potencial na recuperação e remediação de ambientes contaminados com metais pesados.

Nota-se, a tolerância de tais espécies quanto a níveis de metais pesados considerados tóxicos para as plantas.

Deste modo, entende-se que os resultados revelados durante o estudo indicam a possibilidade de aplicação das espécies para mitigar impactos oriundos dos metais pesados em solos e/ou área de rejeito de mineração, além de, contribuir para a obtenção de conhecimento científico aplicado para solucionar os impactos ambientais oriundos das atividades de mineração, cujos rejeitos sejam metais pesados.

O estudo elenca e fortalece o conhecimento do uso potencial da fitorremediação como técnica de recuperação de áreas contaminadas por metais.

## **8 PERSPECTIVAS**

- São necessários novos estudos quanto ao desempenho e desenvolvimento, das espécies aqui prospectadas, em relação ao tempo de exposição aos metais pesados, verificando a capacidade máxima de acumulação dos metais pesados em sua biomassa.
- Aplicação *in-situ* das espécies que apresentaram melhor desempenho na remoção de metais pesados, a fim de, avaliar taxas de descontaminação, da área de rejeito de cobre, ao longo do tempo.

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