Phytoremediation: past promises and future practises

M. J. Sadowsky

Department of Soil, Water, and Climate, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota, 55108, USA

ABSTRACT

Plant-based bioremediation technologies have received recent attention as strategies to clean-up contaminated soils and water. These strategies have collectively been termed phytoremediation and refer to the use of green plants and their associated microbiota for the *in situ* treatment of soil, sediment, and ground water. Biologically based remediation strategies, including phytoremediation, have been estimated to be four to 1000 times cheaper, on a per volume basis, than current non-biological technologies. Compounds targeted for phytoremediation strategies include heavy metals, chlorinated solvents, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, polychlorinated biphenyls, pesticides, munitions and radionuclides. While some of these contaminants are more readily degraded or detoxified than others, plants or their attendant rhizosphere microbes have been shown in several instances to transform these compounds to some degree. The main types of phytoremediation strategies used include the stimulation of non-specific and specific authochthonous and zymogenous rhizosphere microorganisms (both bacteria and fungi) for the accelerated biodegradation of herbicide and solvent contaminants, the use of "hyperaccumulating" plants for remediation of soils contaminated with metals, and the use of plants to transform soluble contaminants to less soluble or less toxic forms. The ultimate goal of all phytoremediation technologies is to either remove the contaminant from the affected area, a process termed phytodecontamination, or to stabilize the contaminant to prevent movement or toxicological affects. Below ground phytodecontamination processes are thought to chiefly rely on rhizosphere degradation activity (either plant enzyme-or microbiologically-driven) to transform hazardous waste materials. Future biotechnological strategies for enhancing phytoremediation include enlarging root mass to increase adsorption area, using Agrobacterium rhizogenes, the direct genetic engineering of plants for altered biodegradation potential, and the genetic engineering of rhizosphere microorganisms. However, while phytoremediation processes hold great promise as means to remediate contaminated soils and water, there are advantages and disadvantages associated with these strategies that must be carefully considered. Whereas attractions of phytoremediation processes include cost effectiveness and non-invasiveness, they require relatively long periods of time, often require the disposal of toxic vegetation, are ineffective at remediating sites containing pollutants located deep into the soil profile, do not work on all contaminants, are sensitive to contaminant types and concentrations, may end up producing secondary metabolites which are more toxic than parent compounds, and in many instances don't remove environmentally significant quantities of pollutants.

Remediation of soils, water, and sediments contaminated with organic and inorganic pollutants is of major importance and concern. It has been estimated that it will require *Microbial Biosystems: New Frontiers*

Proceedings of the 8th International Symposium on Microbial Ecology Bell CR, Brylinsky M, Johnson-Green P (eds) Atlantic Canada Society for Microbial Ecology, Halifax, Canada, 1999. over \$20 billion annually to clean-up contaminated sites in the United States and Europe [5]. However, estimates of the costs of remediating contaminated soil and water vary widely, depending on: (1) the location of the contaminant; (2)the chemical, physical and biological properties of the contaminant; (3) whether the contaminated soil contains more than one type of pollutant; (4) the degree of remediation desired; (5) subsequent disposal requirements; and (6) the techniques used. For example *in situ* remediation techniques have been estimated to cost \$10-100/m³, *ex-situ* processes \$30-\$300/m³, and *in situ* soil vitrification processes over \$1,000/m³ [15]. On the other hand, biologically based remediation technologies, including phytoremediation, have been estimated to be 4 to1000 times cheaper, on a per volume basis, than current non-biological techniques [14]. Consequently, the lower cost of phytoremediation makes it an attractive alternative over other existing technologies, and in many instances, cost will be the driving force behind adoption of plant-based remediation on a large scale.

Biologically-based remediation strategies (bioremediation) have received much recent attention as means to clean-up contaminated soils and water. Phytoremediation, collectively referring to all plant-based remediation strategies, uses green plants to remediate contaminated sites. Several features make phytoremediation an attractive alternative to most currently practiced *in situ* and *ex situ* techniques. These include low capital cost, relatively minor on-going maintenance costs, non-invasiveness, easy start-up, high public acceptance, regulatory agency acceptance, and the techniques provide a pleasant appearance to the landscape [5].

In the last several decades, phytoremediation strategies have been examined as a means to clean-up a number of hazardous organic and inorganic pollutants, including: heavy metals [11,28,38], chlorinated solvents [22,43], agrochemicals [1,24,27]; polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons [2,33], polychlorinated biphenyls [7,18], munitions [39] and radionuclides [20]. Those soluble organic and inorganic contaminants, which move into plant roots or the rhizosphere by the processes of mass flow or diffusion, appear to be the most amenable to phytoremediation technologies [14,15,39]. In several instances, plants and/or their attendant rhizosphere microbes have been shown to transform these compounds to some degree [13,41,43]. Diverse plant species show great promise as phytoremediation agents. These plants include: grasses, legumes, trees and several other monocots and dicots [9,11,14,19,38,39]. Several different species of aquatic plants also appear to be useful for phytoremediating contaminated surface water [34].

Phytoremediation technologies can be directed to above or below ground contaminants and either remove pollutants from the affected area (phytodecontamination) or stabilize them to prevent off-site movement (phytosequestration or phytostabilization). These later techniques are useful for contaminants having low biodegradation potential or those which rapidly move into the soil profile. Below ground phytostabilization processes involve the sequestration of contaminants into soil particles, cell wall lignins, or into the soil humus fraction [14] and reduce the bioavailability of contaminants [38]. Below ground phytodecontamination processes, on the other hand, often rely on rhizosphere degradation activity (either plant enzyme- or microbiologically-driven) to transform hazardous waste materials (see below). In addition, several of these processes can occur *ex planta* or *in planta. Ex planta* phytoremediation processes refer to those driven by the action of plant-or microbially-derived soil enzymes [39] or by plant-associated microorganisms [1,4,12,22,26,35,37]. While not yet used on field scale levels, enzymes responsible for *ex*

planta soil enzyme biodegradation (dehalogenases, nitroreductases, nitrilases, peroxidases, and laccases) have been investigated in some detail [5,39]. Cell free enzyme systems, whether added to the soil or excreted from plant roots, may hold particular promise in environments that are adverse for the growth and persistence of microorganisms [4]. *The in planta* phytoremediation processes require that the pollutant is taken up into the plant. Pollutants are taken up by roots, and either sequestered or translocated to shoots and leaves [17]. Plants usually uptake organic compounds in the aqueous phase, by diffusion or mass flow processes, although in some instances vapor phase transport can occur [14]. For many organic compounds, root uptake has been shown to be proportional to K_{ow} , the noctanol/water partition coefficient [8,15]. Organic and inorganic compounds can be transported to other portions of the plant apoplastically or symplastically [38]. Ultimately, the compound is either metabolized within the plant by conjugation to glutathione [21], sequestered, or transpired from the plant.

Sequestration of pollutants within plants is the basis for phytoextraction of soils and water contaminated with heavy metals [28,32]. Metals targeted for this type of phytoremediation process include Cd, Pb, Zn, Cu, Cr, Ni, Se, and Hg [see 11,14]. Phytoextraction, using "hyperaccumulating" plants is proving to be one of the most effective phytoremediation methods to clean-up metal contaminated soils and water [3]. Several plant species, including *Thlaspi caerulescens* have been shown to accumulate very high levels of Zn and Cd from soils [3]. *Brassica juncea* has also been found to be an excellent accumulator plant for metals in soils, such as Cd, Cr, Ni, Zn, and Cu [28,38] and several plant species have been shown to accumulate Pb [15,19,25]. Plants, such as *Eichhornia crassipes, Hydrocotyle umbellata, Lemna minor, Scirpus lacustris, Phragmites karka, Bacopa monnieri*, and *Azolla pinnata* and are also effective at removing metals from aquatic systems [see 10,38]. Plant shoots and roots containing metals are subsequently harvested and treated as hazardous waste or the metals are recovered as ore.

Ex planta phytoremediation can also occur via the degradative activity of rhizosphere microorganisms. The rhizosphere is operationally defined as the "soil-root interfacial area" and relatively large numbers of diverse species of microorganisms live in association with plant roots [16]. The word "rhizosphere", first introduced by Hiltner in 1904 [23] to describe the interaction between bacteria and the roots of legumes, has been operationally defined to mean many things to many researchers [29]. The rhizosphere consists of the endorhizosphere (various cell layers of the root), ectorhizosphere (the immediate soil area surrounding the root) and the rhizoplane (the root surface) [29]. Microorganisms colonize and live within these areas and the degree of intimacy at which a microorganism interacts with a root varies in proportion to the distance from the root surface. The closer a microbe is to the root surface, the more its growth and behavior is influenced by plant-released materials [36]. The intimacy of the association between soil microorganisms and plant roots is determined, in part, by the types and concentrations of compounds exuded by roots [35]. Root exudations are thought to have a stimulatory affect on rhizosphere microbes, which in turn, are purported to accelerate biodegradation in the rhizosphere [1,2,13,22,30,33,41]. While there has been much discussion on the usefulness of this technology, the reader is cautioned to examine published studies carefully, since in many instances reported enhanced biodegradation is relatively small, environmentally insignificant, or occurs at rates not suitable for field use. Moreover, inconsistent results have been reported from several studies, using various plants and microorganisms and

different substrates. It has been hypothesized that this may be due to specific soilchemical-plant interactions [26,37,42] or other abiotic factors. A variety of compounds have now been evaluated for their ability to be degraded in planted soils, including: hydrocarbons, halogenated aromatic, aromatic hydrocarbons, halogenated aliphatics, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, pesticides, and nonvolatile hydrocarbons [6,12,43]. While there is some information available concerning the ecology of rhizosphere populations in planted, contaminated soils [30], there is little information about how polluted soils change microbial community structure in the rhizosphere.

Rhizosphere-enhanced degradation has also been reported to occur with genetically engineered microorganisms. In 1995, Brazil and coworkers [7] described the genetic construction of rhizosphere-competent pseudomonads which were engineered to contain the bacterial *bph* genes for biodegradation of PCBs. These strains have the potential to degrade PCBs in the rhizosphere and could be useful for bioremediation purposes. In addition, Crowley and coworkers [13] reported that a rhizosphere competent *Pseudomonas fluorescens* strain containing genes for 2,5-dichlorobenzoate degradation (2,5-DCB) had higher degradation rates in planted soil than non-planted ones. The degree of bioremediation appears to be related to the plant species present [40] and most likely reflects differences in: (1) root architecture; (2) plant metabolism; (3) quantity and quality of root exudates; (4) root radius [12]; and (5) soil type [6].

Summary

In summary, phytoremediation processes hold great promise as means to clean-up polluted soils and water. Currently, the most advanced and effective phytoremediation technology is phytoextraction of heavy metals from soils using hyperaccumulating plants. In addition, aquatic plants also hold great promise to rid contaminated water of heavy metal contaminants. It is hoped that in the future, phytoremediation technologies using rhizosphere microorganisms will become more efficacious. This will most likely occur by using genetic engineering and plant breeding techniques and having a much better understanding of the ecology of rhizosphere microorganisms growing in polluted soils and water.

Literature Cited

- 1. Anderson TA, Kruger EL, Coats JR [1994] Enhanced degradation of a mixture of three herbicides in the rhizosphere of a herbicide-tolerant plant. Chemosphere 28:1551-1557
- 2. April W, Sims RC [1990] Evaluation and use of prairie grasses for simulating polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon treatment in soil. Chemosphere 20:253-265
- Baker AJM., Brooks RR [1989] Terrestrial higher plants which hyperaccumulate metallic elements - a review of their distribution, ecology, and phytochemistry. Biorecovery 1:81-126
- Bollag J-M, Martz T, Otjen L [1994] Microorganisms in soil biormediation. *In:* Anderson TA, Coats JR [eds] Bioremediation through rhizosphere technology, vol. 563 Am Chem Soc, Washington, DC, pp. 2-10
- 5. Boyajian GE, Carreira, LH [1997]. Phytoremediation: A clean transition from laboratory to marketplace? Nature Biotech 15:127-128
- 6. Boyle JJ, Shann JR [1998] The influence of planting and soil characteristics on mineralization of 2,4,5-T in rhizosphere soil. J Environ Qual. 27:704-709

- Brazil GM, Kenefick L, Callanan M, Haro A, de Lorenzo V, Dowling DN, O'Gara F [1995] Construction of a rhizosphere pseudomonad with potential to degrade polychlorinated biphenyls and detection of *bph* gene expression in the rhizosphere. Appl Environ Microbiol 61:1946-1952.
- 8. Briggs GG, Bromilow RH, Evans AA [1982]. Relationships between lipophilicity and root uptake and translocation of non-ionized chemicals by barley. Pest Sci 13: 495-504.
- Brown SL, Chaney RL, Angle JS, Baker AJM [1994] Phytoremediation potential of *Thalspi caerulescens* and bladder campion for zinc and cadmium-contaminated soil. J Environ Qual 23:1151-1157
- Chandra P, Sinha S, Rai UN [1997] Bioremediation of chromium from water and soil by vascular aquatic plants. *In:* Kruger EL, Anderson TA, Coats JR [eds] Phytoremediation of soil and water contaminants vol. 664, American Chemical Society, Washington, D.C., pp.274-282
- 11. Chaney RL, Malik, M, Li YM, Brown SL, Brewer EP, Angle JS Baker A J [1997] Phytoremediation of soil metals. Curr Opin Biotechnol 8:279-284
- 12. Chang YY, Corapcioglu MY [1998] Plant-enhanced subsurface bioremediation of nonvolatile hydrocarbons. J Environ Eng ASCE 124:162-168
- 13. Crowley DE, Brennerova MV, Irwin C, Brenner V, Focht DD [1996] Rhizosphere effects on biodegradation of 2,5-dichlorbenzoate by a bioluminescent strain of root-colonizing *Pseudomonas fluorescens* FEMS Microbiol Ecol 20:79-89
- 14. Cunningham SD, Anderson TA, Schwab AP, Hsu FC [1996] Phytoremediation of soils contaminated with organic pollutants. Adv Agron. 56:55-114
- 15. Cunningham SD, Shann JR, Crowley DE, Anderson AA [1997] Phytoremediation of contaminated water and soil. *In:* Kruger EL, Anderson TA, Coats JR [eds] Phytoremediation of soil and water contaminants, vol. 664 American Chemical Society, Washington, D.C., pp.2-17
- 16. Curl EA, Truelove B [1986] The Rhizosphere. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.
- Devine MD, Vanden Borden WH [1991] Absorption and transport in plants. *In:*. Grover R, Cessna AJ [eds] Environmental Chemistry of Herbicides, CRC Press, Boca Raton, Fl, pp. 119-140
- 18. Donnely PK, Fletcher JA [1995] PCB metabolism by ectomycorrhizal fungi. Bull Environ Toxicol 54:507-513
- Dushenkov V, Kumar PB, Motto AH, Raskin I [1995] Rhizofiltration: the use of plants to remove heavy metals from aqueous streams. Environ Sci Technol 29:1239-1245
- 20. Entry JA, Watrud LS, Manasse RS, Vance NC [1997] Phytoremediation and reclamation of soils contaminated with radionuclides. *In:* Kruger EL, Anderson TA, Coats JR [eds] Phytoremediation of soil and water contaminants, vol. 664 American Chemical Society, Washington, D.C., pp. 299-306
- 21. Field JA, Thurman EM [1996] Glutathione conjugation and contaminant trasnformation. Environ Sci Technol. 30:1413-1418
- 22. Haby, P. A., and Crowley, D. E. 1996. Biodegradation of 3-chlorobenzoate as affected by rhizodeposition and selected carbon substrates. J. Environ. Qual. 25:304-310.

- 23. Hiltner L [1904] Uber neuere Erfahrungen und Probleme auf dem Gebiet der Bodenbakteriologie und unter besonderer Berucksichtigung der Grundungung und Brache. Arbeiten der Deutschen Landwirtschaftlichen Gesellschaft 98:59-78.
- Hoagland RE, Zablotowicz RM, Locke MA. [1997] An integrated phytoremediation strategy for chloracetamide herbicides in soil. *In:* Kruger EL, Anderson TA, Coats JR. [eds] Phytoremediation of soil and water contaminants, vol. 664 American Chemical Society, Washington, D.C., pp. 92-105
- 25. Huang JW, Chen J, Cunningham SD [1997] Phytoextraction of lead from contaminated soils. *In:* Kruger EL, Anderson TA, Coats JR. [eds] Phytoremediation of soil and water contaminants, vol. 664 American Chemical Society, Washington, D.C., pp. 283-298
- 26. Knaebel DB, Vestal RJ [1994] Intact rhizosphere microbial communities used to study microbial biodegradation in agricultural and natural soils. *In:* Anderson TA, Coats JR [eds.] Bioremediation through rhizosphere technology, vol. 563 American Chemical Society, Washington, DC, pp. 56-69
- 27. Kruger EL, Anhalt JC, Sorenson D, Nelson B, Chouhy AL, Anderson TA, Coats JR [1997] Atrazine degradation in pesticide-contaminated soils: phytoremediation potential. *In:* Kruger EL, Anderson TA, Coats JR [eds] Phytoremediation of soil and water contaminants, vol. 664 American Chemical Society, Washington, D.C., pp. 54-64
- 28. Kumar PB, Dushenkov V, Motto H, Raskin I. [1995] Phytoextraction: the use of plants to remove heavy metals from soils. Environ Sci Technol 29:1232-1238.
- 29. Lynch JM [1990] Introduction: some consequences of microbial rhizosphere competence for plant and soil. In: Lynch JM [ed] The Rhizosphere, John Wiley and Sons, Chichester, pp.1-9
- 30. Nichols TD, Wolf DC, Rogers HB, Beyrouty CA, Reynolds, CM [1997] Rhizosphere microbial populations in contaminated soils. Water Air Soil Poll 95:165-178
- 31. Pignatello JJ [1989] Sorption dynamics of organic compounds in soil and sediments. *In:* Sawhney BL, Brown K [eds] Reactions and Movement of Organic Chemicals in Soils. Soil Science Society of America Special Pub. No. 22, Madison, WI.
- 32. Raskin I, Smith RD, Salt DE [1997] Phytoremediation of metals: using plants to remove pollutants from the environment. Curr Opin Biotechnol. 8:221-226
- Reilley KA, Banks MK., Schwab AP [1996] Organic chemicals in the environment: dissipation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in the rhizosphere. J Environ Qual 25:212-219
- 34. Rice PJ, Anderson TA, Coats JR [1997] Phytoremediation of herbicide-contaminated surface water with aquatic plants. *In:* Kruger EL, Anderson TA, Coats JR [eds] Phytoremediation of soil and water contaminants, vol. 664 American Chemical Society, Washington, D.C., pp. 133-151
- 35. Sadowsky MJ [1996] Use of phytoremediation strategies to bioremediate contaminated soils and water. *In:* Stacey G, Mullin B, Gresshoff P [eds] Biology of Plant-Microbe Interactions, International Society for Plant-Microbe Interactions, St. Paul, MN, pp. 527-532
- 36. Sadowsky M. J, Schortemeyer M. [1997] Soil microbial responses to increased concentrations of atmospheric CO₂. Global Change Biol 3:217-244

- 37. Sadowsky MJ, Turco RF [1998] Enhancement of indigenous microorganisms for bioremediating contaminated soils. *In:* Frankenberger WT *et al.* [eds], Bioremediation of Contaminated Soils, Soil Science Soc. Amer., Madison, WI, In Press
- 38. Salt DE, Blaylock M, Kumar NP, Dushenkov V, Ensley BD, Chet I., Raskin, I [1995] Phytoremediation: a novel strategy for the removal of toxic metals from the environment using plants. Bio/Technol. 13:468-474.
- Schnoor JL, Licht LA, McCutcheon SC, Wolfe NL, Carreira LH [1995] Phytoremediation of organic and nutrient contaminants. Environ Sci Technol. 29:318-323
- 40. Shann JR, Boyle JJ [1994] Influence of plant species on *in situ* rhizosphere degradation. *In:* Anderson TA, Coats JR [eds] Bioremediation through rhizosphere technology, vol. 563 American Chemical Society, Washington, DC, pp. 69-81
- 41. Siciliano SD, Germida JJ [1998] Degradation of chlorinated benzoic acid mixtures by plant-bacteria associations. Environ Tox Chem 17:728-733.
- 42. Turco RF, Sadowsky MJ. [1995]. The microflora of bioremediation. *In:* Bioremediation: Science and Applications, Soil Science Special Publication No. 43 Soil Science Society of America, Madison, Wisconsin, pp. 87-102
- 43. Walton BT, Guthrie EA, Hoylman AM [1994] Toxicant degradation in the rhizosphere. *In:* Anderson TA, Coats JR [eds] Bioremediation through rhizosphere technology, vol.563 American Chemical Society, Washington, DC, pp. 11-26