# Nickelophilous plants and their significance in phytotechnologies

### Majeti Narasimha Vara Prasad

Department of Plant Sciences, School of Life Sciences, University of Hyderabad, Hyderabad 500046 AP, India. Email: mnvsl@uohyd.ernet.in

Nickeliferous soils are invaded predominantly by members of the Brassicaceae, Cyperaceae, Cunoniaceae, Caryophyllaceae, Fabaceae, Flacourtiaceae, Euphorbiaceous, Lamiaceae, Poaceae and Violaceae, and many of these plants are metal tolerant. About 300 Ni hyperaccumulating plants been identified. These members exhibit unusual appetite for toxic metals and elemental defense. Hyperaccumulators provide protection against fungal and insect attack. Investigations suggested that Ni-hyperaccumulation has a protective function against fungal and bacterial pathogens in *Streptanthus polygaloides* and *Thlaspi montanum*. Significance of nickelophilous plants and their significance in phytotechnologies are discussed in this paper. **Key words:** heavy metal, hyperaccumulators, nickel, phytomanagement, tolerance.

Plantas niquelófilas e sua importância em fitotecnologias: Solos ricos em Ni, niquelíeros, são invadidos predominantemente por membros de Brassicaceae, Cyperaceae, Cunoniaceae, Caryophyllaceae, Fabaceae, Flacourtiaceae, Euphorbiaceous, Lamiaceae, Poaceae e Violaceae, e muitas dessas plantas são tolerantes e metais. Aproximadamente 300 plantas que superacumulam Ni (hiperacumuladoras) já foram identificadas. Estas plantas apresentam capacidade não usual de acumular metais tóxicos e defesa contra eles. O acúmulo excessivo de metais fornece proteção contra o ataque de insetos e fungos. Investigações sugerem que a hiperacumulação de Ni tem como função a proteção contra fungos e bactérias patogênicos em *Streptanthus polygaloides* e *Thlaspi montanum*. A importância de plantas niquelíferas e a sua significância em fitotecnologias são discutidas nesta revisão.

Palavras-chave: fitomanejo, metal pesado, níquel, plantas hiperacumuladoras, tolerância.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Serpentine soils, "hotspots" of metallophyte endemics are a rich source of toxic trace elements. Serpentinized rocks are distributed all over the world viz., western north America; Newfoundland, Mount Albert in eastern Canada; Lizard peninsula, Wales and Scotland; north-east Cuba; Portugal; Italy; Balkan peninsula; Turkey; topical far east; Central Brazil; New Caledonia; south east Asia; Philippines; Japan; Zimbabwe; eastern Transvaal Loweveld of South Africa, New Zealand; greenstone belts of western Australia. (Proctor and Woodell, 1975; Sequeira et al., 1991).

Serpentine soils contain heavy metals including nickel (averaging 10 mg per gram soil), cobalt and chromium, both of the latter being present at lower levels than nickel. Serpentine soils are also characterized by high concentrations

of iron and magnesium and low nutrient levels. An interesting ecosystem is established in these biotopes driven by a nickel cycle, in which hyperaccumulating trees extract nickel from deep soil and rock layers and subsequently store it in their leaves (up to 1 % Ni in leaf dry matter). When the leaves are shed from the trees, the nickel is leached out into the surrounding topsoil. The solubilized metal exerts a localized selective pressure on the topsoil microflora, which acquire resistance to high levels of nickel (> 20 mM), as well as on other plant species, which are susceptible to toxic levels of Ni. Interestingly, the microflora which was not found directly beneath the canopy but in the same soil, showed tolerance to lower levels of nickel (3 mM) compared to the resistant population. Thus, the nickel selection pressure exists as a gradient around the hyperaccumulator plants and has a

dramatic effect on the composition of the local microbial population (Prasad, 2001).

Hyperaccumulator plants are geographically distributed and are found throughout the plant kingdom (Brooks, 1998; Chaney et al., 1995). To date approximately 450 taxa, ranging in growth habit from annual herbs to perennials are known. Hyperaccumulator plants have been identified on all continents, both in temperate and tropical environments (table 1). Natural occurrences of hyperaccumulators for Ni include New Caledonia, Cuba, Southeast Asia, Brazil, southern Europe and Asia Minor; for Zn and Pb include northwest Europe; and for Cu and Co include south-central Africa. Some families and genera are particularly well documented as Ni hyperaccumulators [Brassicaceae (Alyssum and Thlaspi), Euphorbiaceae (Phyllanthus, Leucocroton) and Asterceae, Zn Brassicaceae (Thlaspi), and Cu and Co (Lamiaceae, Scrophulariaceae) (Brooks, 1998). There are not many Cr hyperaccumulators in nature, but there are numerous Ni hyperaccumulators. A few Cr hyperaccumulators have been identified, partly because Cr exists predominantly in the 3+ oxidation state and is very insoluble and much less available for plant uptake.

Some metals may interact competitively for accumulation (e.g., Zn and Ni in calamine and serpentine soils). The number of Ni hyperaccumulator taxa are more than 300 in 35 families (table 1). They commonly have 3-4 % Ni in the dry matter of leaves. Alyssum betolonii, which is endemic to serpentine soils, is known for its high concentration of Ni (> 10,000 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> in leaves). The fact that serpentine (ultramafic) soils also contain other elements such as Cr has led to the assumption that the preferential accumulation of Ni in many species of Alyssum is due to a selective uptake mechanism. Brassica juncea (Indian mustard) - a high-biomass producing plant that can accumulate Pb, Cr(VI), Cd, Cu, Ni, Zn, 90 Sr, B, and Se (Palmer et al., 2001; Prasad, 2001) produces biomass of over 20 times that of Thlaspi caerulescens (Salt et al., 1998). Brassica juncea had the best ability to transport lead to the shoots. Except for sunflower (Helianthus annuus) and tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum), other non-Brassica plants had phytoextraction coefficients less than one. B. juncea cultivars varied widely in their ability to accumulate Pb, with different cultivars ranging from 0.04 % to 3.5 % Pb accumulation in the shoots and 7 to 19% in the roots (Kumar et al., 1995).

#### Nickel hyperaccumulators - environmental implications

One of the most persuasive ecological explanations for hyperaccumulation of Ni and other toxic metals appears to be

the defensive role against herbivores or pathogens (Dudley, 1986; Boyd and Martens, 1988, 1994). This function, which might be similar in other hyperaccumulators, can be improved if the metal is localized in the outer layers of leaves and roots. Like in other Ni accumulators, such as Hybantus floribundus, Senecio coronatus and Thlaspi montanum variety siskiyouense, and A. bertolonii, Ni has been evidenced in leaf epidermal cells as a red-stained nickel-dimethylglyoxime complex (Boyd, 1988; Farago et al., 1988; Mesjasz-Przybylowicz et al., 1994; Heath et al., 1997; Sanita Di Toppi, 2001). Furthermore, microprobe analysis has shown that leaf hairs have the highest nickel concentrations (Vergano, 1967). Similarly, in A. lesbiacum, using a micro-PIXE technique, Ni was found in the epidermis and in leaf trichomes (Gabrielle et al., 1997). The Ni hyperaccumulator T. montanum var. siskiyouense accumulates the highest Ni concentration at the leaf surface, particularly in the subsidiary cells surrounding the guard cells, and in other elongate epidermal cells, a characteristic that supports the defense hypothesis (Heath et al., 1997; Pollard and Baker, 1997).

Peterson et al. (2003) studied plants, soil, and invertebrates from Portuguese serpentine outcrops whose vegetation is dominated by the Ni hyperaccumulator *Alyssum pintodasilvae*. Peterson et al. (2003) concluded that grasshoppers, spiders, and other invertebrates that fed on these hyperaccumulators spread metals through food chain

Hyperaccumulation of metals is known for about 450 species of flowering plants, which take up, transport and sequester metallic elements, achieving tissue concentrations that are toxic to most organisms (Baker et al., 2000; Reeves and Baker, 2000). Several hypotheses have been advanced to explain the evolution of this trait (Boyd and Martens, 1992), with most attention focused on the hypothesis that hyperaccumulated metals may act as defenses against herbivory (Boyd, 1998; Boyd and Martens, 1998; Pollard, 2000; Pollard et al., 2000). With the exception of recent work by Wall and Boyd (2002), most studies to date have considered interactions between individual plants and herbivores, with little attention being paid to the effects of hyperaccumulators on their communities or ecosystems.

The broader environmental consequences of hyperaccumulation are of practical importance because of developing technologies that would use metal-accumulating plants to cleanse contaminated soil, termed phytoremediation (Schwitzguébel et al., 2002). A relatively unexplored risk of these techniques is that metals sequestered in plant tissues could be consumed by herbivores and thus mobilized into NICHELOPHILOUS PLANTS 115

Table 1. Brassicaceae that accumulate nickel (Ni) (for details refer to Palmer et al., 2001).

Metal (mg.g <sup>-1</sup> d.wt.)	Taxa	Distribution
1958	Cardamine resedifolja L. Alyssum singarense Boiss. and Hausskn.	Italy Iraq
2000	Thlaspi bulbosum Spruner ex Boiss.	Greece
440	T. japonicum H.Boissieu	Japan
000	T. epirotum Halacsy	Greece
140	Pseudosempervivum sempervium Boiss and Balansa) Pobed	Turkey
420	Alyssum tenium Halacsy	Greece
960	A. fallacinum Hausskn	Crete
000	Thlaspi ochroleucum Boiss. and Heldr.	Greece
480	Alyssum alpestre L	Southern Europe
550 590	A. euboeum Halacsy A. obovatum (C.A.Mey) Turez	Greece Russia
900	A. condensatum Boiss. and Hausskn.	Iraq, Syria
530	Thlaspi montanum L. var. montanum	USA
5230	Alyssum virgatum Nyar.	Turkey
6600	A. smolikanum Nyar.	Greece
080	A. murale WealdstandKit	Balkans
290	A. oxycarpum Boiss. And Balansa	Turkey
390	A. giosnanum Nyar.	Turkey
600	A. peltarioides subsp.virgatiforme Nyar.T.R.Dudley)	Turkey
700	A. floribundum Boiss. and Balansa	Turkey
860 170	A. penjwinensis T.R.Dudley	Iraq
090	A. anatolicum Nyar. A. akamasicum B.L.Burtt	Turkey Cyprus
0000	A. serpylifolium Desf	Spain
0200	A. bertolonii subsp. scutarinum Nyar	Balkans
0200	A. syriacum Nyar.	Syria
0400	A. crenulatum Boiss	Turkey
0900	A. callichroum Boiss. And Balansa	Turkey
1400	Bornmulleria sp petri Greuter, Charpipn and Dittrich	Greece
1500	Alyssum eriophyllum, Boiss. and Hausskn.	Turkey
1700	A. discolor T.R.Dudley and Huber-Morath	Turkey
1800	Thlaspi tymphaeum Hausskn.	Greece
1900	Alyssum trapeziforme Nyar.	Trukey
2000 2400	Thlaspi goesingense Halacsy	Greece Greece
2500	T. graecum Jord Alyssum heldreichii Hausskn.	Greece
2500	A. robertianum Bernard ex Godronand Gren	Corsica
3400	A. bertolonii Desv.	Italy
3500	A. cilicium Boiss. And Balansa	Turkey
3500	A. corsicum Duby	Corsica
3500	A. huber-morathii T.R.Dudley	Turkey
3600	Thlaspi kovatsii Heuffel	Yugoslavia
3700	Alyssum markgrafii O.E.Schulz	Albania
4800	Streptanthus polygaloides A.Gray	USA
6200	Thlaspi caerulescens J.Presl	Greece
6300	Alyssum chondrogynum B.L.Burtt	Cyprus
6500	A. dubertretii gomb	Turkey
6500 7100	A. carcium T.R.Dudleyand Huber-Morath A. troodii Boiss.	Turkey Turkey
7600	Pseudosempervium aucheri (Boiss.) Pobed	Turkey
8100	Alyssum constellatum Boiss.	Turkey
8300	Thlaspi rotundifolium (L.) Gaudin var. corymbosum (Gay)	Central Europe
8900	Alyssum samariferum Boiss. and Hausskn.	Samar
8900	Peltaria dumulosa Post	Asia
9200	Bornmuellaria glabrescens (Boiss and Balansa) Cullen and TR Dudley	Turkey
9600	Alyssum davisianum T.R. Dudley	Turkey
0000	Alyssum cassium Boiss	Turkey
0800	Thlaspi elegans Boiss	Turkey
8300	T. rotundifolium (L.) Gaudin var.corymbosum (Gay)	Central Europe
8900 1100	A. samariferum Boiss. and Hausskn	Samar
1300	A. pinifolium (Nyar.)T.R.Dudley Bornmuellera baldaccii (Degen) Heywood	Turkey Greece
2200	Alyssum pterocarpum T.R Dudley	Turkey
2400	A. lesbiacum (P.candargy) Rech.f	Greece
3600	A. cypricum Nyar	Cyprus
4300	A. masmenaeum Boiss	Turkey
26900	Thlaspi jaubertii Hedge	Turkey
27300	T. caerulescens	Germany/Belgiun
29400	Alyssum argenteum All	Italy
31000	Thlaspi sylvium (as T. alpinum subsp. sylvium)	Central Europe
1200	Bornmuellaria tymphea (Hausskn.) Hausskn	Greece
4400	Peltaria emarginata (Boiss.) Hausskn.	Greece
35600 52120	Thlaspi oxyceras (Boiss.) Hedge	Turkey, Syria
	Thlaspi cypricum Bornm.	Cyprus

food chains (Chaney et al., 2000). One way to investigate the possibility of such mobilization is through studies of natural ecosystems whose vegetation is dominated by hyperaccumulating plants.

High Ni concentrations in both grasshoppers and spiders suggest that the presence of hyperaccumulating plants affects the flux of Ni to both herbivore and carnivore trophic levels. This parallels findings recently published by Boyd and Wall (2001) showing that Ni accumulated by a herbivore feeding on hyperaccumulating plants can be passed on to carnivores. In one case, Boyd and Wall (2001) reported the Ni concentration in wild-caught crab spiders (*Misumena vatia*, Araneae: Thomisidae) from *Streptanthus polygaloides* growing on California serpentines.

The consequences and ecological role of metal hyperaccumulation is expanding rapidly. Hyperaccumulation is known for aluminium, copper, cobalt, manganesium, Ni and zinc (Baker and Brooks, 1989). Caledonia, Sebertia acuminata, (a tree Sapotaceae) is the classic example capable of concentrating Ni up to 26 % (on a dry matter basis) in the xylem tissue. In Portuguese serpentine ecosystems, Alyssum serpyllifolium, a dominant weed, accumulates up to 10,000 ppm of Ni in the leaves. The objective of this paper is to highlight the scope and limitations of Ni tolerant plants and Ni accumulators and their role in promoting phytotechnologies for the environmental cleanup of heavy metals and radionuclides. The below and above-ground biodiversity of Ni tolerant plants/Ni accumulators (alien/indigenous) of metalliferous substrates, is becoming increasingly considered for the phytomanagement of metal contaminated and polluted ecosystems. The Ni tolerant plants/Ni accumulators that accumulate and/or exclude metals have tremendous potential for moving phytoremediation forward. Therefore, for phytomanagement metal-accumulating plants are seeded or transplanted into metal-polluted soil/water. If metal availability were not adequate for sufficient plant uptake, the substrate would require amendment to release or arrest the mobility of metals in the substrate. Synthetic cross-linked polyacrylates (hydrogels) have protected plant roots from heavy metal toxicity and prevented the entry of toxic metals into roots. After sufficient plant growth and metal accumulation, the above-ground portions of the plant are harvested and removed, resulting in the permanent removal of metals from the site. The retention of metals by soil organic matter is also weaker at low pH, resulting in more available metal in the soil solution for root absorption. It is suggested that the phytoextraction process is enhanced when metal availability

to plant roots is facilitated through the addition of acidifying agents to the soil. Several researchers have screened fast-growing, high-biomass producing plants (e.g. Poaceae) for their ability to tolerate and accumulate metals in their shoots. The solubilized metal exerts a localized selective pressure on the topsoil microflora, which acquire resistance to high levels (e.g. Ni > 20 mM). Thus, knowledge of how plants can specifically accumulate or exclude essential elements and toxic metals, particularly of Ni tolerant plants or Ni accumulators, is fundamental for selecting species that can be utilized for phytomanagement. This includes knowledge on bioavailability of metals in rhizospheric processes as well as translocation and processing/storage in the above-ground parts of the plant.

## Nickelophilous plants phytotechnologies – advantages and limitations

The importance of below and above ground biodiversity is increasingly considered for the phytomanagement of the metalliferous ecosystems. This subject is emerging as a cutting edge area of research and gaining considerable commercial significance in the contemporary field of environmental biotechnology. Globally, metal pollution has increased several thousand-fold (Adriano, 2001). Several microbes, including mycorrhizal and non-mycorrhizal fungi, agricultural and vegetable crops, ornamentals, and wild metal hyperaccumulators and excluders are being tested both under lab and field conditions for cleanup of the metalliferous substrates in the environment. Brassicaceae has the largest number of taxa viz. 11 genera and 87 species. Different genera of Brassicaceae are known to accumulate metals. Ni hyperaccumulation is reported in 7 genera and 72 species, and Zn in 3 genera and 20 species. Thlaspi species are known to hyperaccumulate more than one metal i.e T.caerulescence for Cd, Ni. Pb, and Zn; T. goesingense and T.ochroleucum for Ni and Zn and T.rotundifolium for Ni, Pb and Zn (Prasad and Freitas, 2003).

Plants that accumulate and exclude metals have tremendous potential for application in remediation of metals in the environment. Significant progress has been achieved in phytoremediation (Vangronsveld and Cunningham, 1998; Glass, 1999; Terry and Bañuelos, 2000; McCutcheon and Schnoor, 2003; Prasad, 2003, 2004a,b). This process involves raising plants hydroponically and transplanting them into metal-polluted waters where the plants absorb and concentrate the metals in their roots and shoots. As they become saturated with the metal contaminants, roots or whole plants are harvested for disposal. The phytoextraction

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**Table 2.** Nickel in plant cell and environment - from adaptive physiology to phytomanagement.

This listed information pertains to Ni and its presence in the environment as a contaminant, and covers topics such as uptake, accumulation, phytotoxicity, physiology and biochemistry of toxicity and tolerance in plants, biochemical chraracterization and phytomanagement.

Function	Authors	Year
Environmental contaminant		
Nickel in rocks, soils, waters and plants adjacent to the Chorchanskaya	Doksopulo	1961
Contamination of road side soil and vegetation	Lagerwerff and Specht.	1970
Impact of nickel contamination on the production of vegetables on an organic soil, Ontario, Canada	Frank et al.	1982
Zinc, copper and nickel concentrations in soil extracts and crops grown on four soils treated with metalloaded sewage sludges	Sanders et al.	1987
Uptake of nickel and cadmium by vegetables grown on soil amended with different sewage sludges	Singh et al.	1989
Nickel in the terrestrial environment	McIlveen and Negusanti	1994
Trace metal bioavailability in municipal solid waste and sewage sludge composts	Pichtel and Anderson	1997
Groundwater composition near the nickel-copper smelting industry on the Kola Peninsula, central Barents Region (NW Russia and NE	E Patrice et al.	1998
Norway) Heavy metals in soils and plants of serpentine and industrial sites of Albania	Shallari et al.	1998
Trace elements and precious metals in snow samples from the immediate vicinity of nickel processing plants, Kola Peninsula, northwes	t Gregurek et al.	1998
Russia Urinary nickel as bioindicator of Ni exposure of workers in a galvanizing plant in Brazil	Siqueira et al.	1998
Influence of nickel contaminated soils on lettuce and tomatoes	Zdenek Poulik et al.	1999
Clinical toxicology of nickel	Barceloux	1999
Nitrogen transformation and microbial biomass content in soil contaminated with nickel and cadmium from industrial wastewater irrigation	Antil et al.	2001
Contemporary use of Ni and Bi in hot-dip galvanizing	Fratesi et al.	2002
Influence of nickel-contaminated soils on fenugreek (Trigonella corniculata L.) growth and mineral composition	Parida et al.	2003
Nnickel speciation in Sebertia acuminata, a plant growing on a lateritic soil of New Caledonia	Perrier et al.	2004
Sulphur dioxide adsorption in Scots pine canopies exposed to high ammonia emissions near a Cu-Ni smelter in SW Finland	Derome et al.	2004
Speciation studies of nickel and chromium in wastewater from an electroplating plant.	Jackson et al.	2004
Accumulation		
Accumulators from Western Australia.	Severne and Brooks	1972
Accumulators from New Caledonia	Kelly et al.	1975
Accumulation by Rinorea bengalensis (Wall.)	Brooks et al.	1977
Accumulation in three Australian plants growing on the mineralized sites	Farago et al.	1977
Accumulation by European species of the genus Alyssum	Brooks et al.	1978
Selective accumulation of nickel II ions in plants	Still et al.	1980
Accumulation by soybean from sludge-amended soil	Reddy and Dunn	1984
Accumulation by Psychotria species from the pacific Basin	Baker et al.	1985
Accumulation by species of Thlaspi L., Cochlearia L.,	Reeves	1988
Stackhousia tryonii Bailey: accumulator, serpentinite-endemic species of central Queensland	Batianoff et al.	1990
Accumulation mechanisms and tolerance	Gabbrielli and Vergnano	1991
Accumulation by tropical plants growing around an industrial area	Rao and Dubey	1992
Accumulation by serpentine plants.	Reeves	1992
Accumulation in the foliage of plants growing in the vicinity of an oil-fired power plant	William et al.	1993
Accumulation by western North American genera	Reeves et al.	1993
Accumulation in rice plants- effects on mineral nutrition and possible interactions of abscisic and gibberellic acids	Rubio et al.	1994
Accumulation by serpentine species of Streptanthus (Brassicaceae): field and greenhouse studies	Kruckeberg and. Reeves	1995
The danger of accumulation of nickel in cereals on contaminated soil	Poulik	1997

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Uptake Uptake kinetics of nickel using intact soybean seedlings	Cataldo et al.	1978
Nickel uptake by Alyssum species	Morrison et al.	1980
Nickel uptake by Californian Streptanthus and Caulanthus with particular reference to the hyperaccumulator, S. polygaloides Grav		1981
(Brassicaceae)		
Metal ion uptake by plants of genus Aalyssum	Fiuman et al.	1983
Uptake of nickel by species of Alyssum bornmuellera and other genera of Old World Tribus Alyssae	Reeves et al.	1983
Investigation of effects of cadmium, lead, nickel and vanadium contamination on the uptake and transport processes in cucumber plants by TXRF spectrometry  Chelator (EDTA and HEDTA) effects on Ni uptake by Helianthus annuus	Varga et al.  Hong and Cutright	1999 2001
Assessment of plant uptake of radioactive nickel from soils	Denys et al.	2002
Transport	•	
Transport  The role of metal transport and tolerance in nickel hyperaccumulation by Thlaspi goesingense halacsy	Kramer et al.	1977
Comparative phloem mobility of nickel in nonsenescent plants	Neumann Chamel	1986
Long-distance transport of cobalt and nickel in maturing wheat	Zeller and Feller	1999
Nickel transport systems in microorganisms	Eitinger et al.	2000
	Elitinger et ui.	2000
Phytotoxicity  A methodology for establishing phytotoxicity criteria for chromium, copper, nickel and zinc in agricultural and application of municipal	Chang et al.	1992
sewage sludge	Chang et al.	1))2
A comparative analysis of element composition of roots and leaves of barley seedlings grown in the presence of toxic cadmium, nolybdenum, nickel and zinc concentrations	Brune and Dietz	1995
Folerance		
Copper and nickel tolerance in Typha latifolia clones from contaminated and uncontaminated environments	Taylor and Crowder	1984
Differential tolerance of three cultivars of Agrostis capillaris L. to cadmium, copper, lead, nickel and zinc	Symenoides et al.	1985
Comparison of two serpentine species with different nickel tolerance strategies	Gabbrielli et al.	1990
The tolerance of Empetrum nigrum to copper and nickel	Monni et al.	2000
Biochemical characterization		
Charcterization of of nickel compounds in Alyssum bertolonii	Pelosi et al.	1976
Charcterization of of nickel compounds in Alyssum bertolonii  Isolation and identification of a citrate complex of nickel from plants	Pelosi et al. Lee et al.	1976 1977
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Isolation and identification of a citrate complex of nickel from plants  The relation between nickel and citric acid in some nickel-accumulating plants  Nature of nickel complexes in <i>Psychotria douarrei</i> and other nickel-accumulating plants  The amino acid content of <i>Hybanthus floribundus</i> , a nickel accumulating plant and the difficulty of detecting nickel amino acid complexes	Lee et al.	1977 1978
Isolation and identification of a citrate complex of nickel from plants  The relation between nickel and citric acid in some nickel-accumulating plants  Nature of nickel complexes in <i>Psychotria douarrei</i> and other nickel-accumulating plants	Lee et al. Lee et al. Kersten et al.	1977 1978 1980
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Isolation and identification of a citrate complex of nickel from plants  The relation between nickel and citric acid in some nickel-accumulating plants  Nature of nickel complexes in <i>Psychotria douarrei</i> and other nickel-accumulating plants  The amino acid content of <i>Hybanthus floribundus</i> , a nickel accumulating plant and the difficulty of detecting nickel amino acid complexes by chromatographic methods  Biochemical form of nickel in alfalfa  (solation and partial characterization of nickel complexes in higher plants.  Organic constituents and complexation of nickel (II) in soybean xylem exudates	Lee et al. Lee et al. Kersten et al. Farago et al. Theisen and Blincoe Theisen and Blincoe Cataldo et al.	1977 1978 1980 1980 1984 1988
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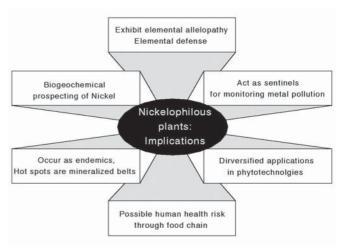
Nickel contamination affects growth and secondary metabolite composition of St. John's wort (Hypericum perforatum L.)	Susan et al.	2003
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Hyperaccumulation		
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Nickel hyperaccumulation defends Streptanthus polygaloides (Brassicaceae) against pathogens	Boyd et al.	1994
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Elemental distribution in Senecio anomalochrous, a Ni hyperaccumulator from South Africa	Mesjasz-Przybylo-wicz et al.	2001
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Indicator		
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Deterrence of herbivory by zinc hyperaccumulation in <i>Thlaspi caerulescens</i> (Brassicaceae)	Pollard and Baker	1997
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Phytoenrichment of soil Ni content by Sebertia acuminata in New Caledonia and the concept of elemental allelopathy	Boyd and Jaffré	2001
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Interaction with other elements		
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The effects of nickel on the nutrient fluxes and on the growth of <i>Elodea Canadensis</i>	Khknen and Kairesalo.	1998
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Response of ectomycorrhizal <i>Quercus rubra</i> to soil cadmium, nickel and lead	Dixon	1988
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Arbuscular mycorrhiza of Berkheya coddii and other Ni-hyperaccumulating members of Asteraceae from ultramafic soils in South Africa	Turnau and Mesjasz- Przybylowicz	2003
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In vivo response of photosynthetic apparatus of Phaseolus vulgaris to nickel toxicity	Krupa et al.	1993
Influence of cadmium and nickel on photosynthesis and water relations in wheat leaves of differential insertion level	Bishnoi et al.	1993
Influence of cadmium and nickel on growth, net photosynthesis and carbohydrate distribution in rice plants	Moya et al.	1993
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Effect of heavy metals on the growth and mineral composition of nickel hyperaccumulation	Verennes A.de et al.	1996
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Phytofiltration of hazardous cadmium, chromium, lead and zinc ions by biomass of Medicago sativa (Alfalfa)	Gardea-Torresdey et al.	1998
Phytoremediation	Salt et al.	1998
Influence of nickel on organic acid transport in xylem sap of cucumber	Tat et al.	1999
Influence of Ni supply on growth and nitrogen metabolism of Brassica napus L. grown with NH4NO3 or urea as N source	Gerend et al.	1999
Effects of chromium and nickel on germination and growth in tolerant and non-tolerant populations of <i>Echinochloa colona</i> (L.)	Grout et al.	2000
Effects of nickel concentration in the nutrient solution on the nitrogen assimilation and growth of tomato seedlings in hydroponic culture	Tan et al.	2000
supplied with urea or nitrate as the sole nitrogen source Effects of chromium and nickel on germination and growth in tolerant and non-tolerant populations of <i>Echinochloa colona</i> (L.)	Rout et al.	2000
Effects of nickel concentration in the nutrient solution on the nitrogen assimilation and growth of tomato seedlings in hydroponic culture	Tan et al.	2000
supplied with urea or nitrate as the sole nitrogen source Effect of mixed cadmium, copper, nickel and zinc at different pHs upon alfalfa growth and heavy metal uptake	Peralta-Videa et al.	2002
Phytoremediation of metals using transgenic plants	Pilon-Smits and Pilon	2002
Lead and nickel removal using Microspora and Lemna minor	Nicholas et al.	2003
Relationship between the chemical form of nickel applied to the soil and its uptake and toxicity to barley plants ( <i>Hordeum vulgare</i> L.)	Molas and Baran	2004
	Words and Baran	2004
Phytomining and Phytomanagement Nickel phytomining	Nicks and Chambers	1998
Method for phytomining of nickel from soil. US Patent, 5944872	Chaney et al.	1999
Phytomining	Brooks, et al.	1998
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Phytomining for nickel  The nickel beauty and the control of the c	Anderson et al.	
The nickel hyperaccumulator plant <i>Alyssum bertolonii</i> as a potential agent for phytoremediation and phytomining of nickel	Robinson et al.	1997
The nickel phytoextraction potential of some ultramafic soils as determined by sequential extraction	Robinson et al.	1999
The potential of the high biomass nickel hyperaccumulator <i>Berkheya coddii</i> for phytoremediation and phytomining	Robinson et al.	1997
Soil amendments affecting nickel t uptake by <i>Berkheya coddii</i> : Potential use for phytomining and phytoremediation	Robinson et al.	1999
The effect of EDTA and citric acid on phytoremediation of Ni from soil using Helianthus annuu	Turgut et al.	2004

process involves the use of plants to facilitate the removal of metal contaminants from a soil matrix. In practice, metalaccumulating plants are seeded or transplanted into metalpolluted soil and are cultivated using established agricultural practices. If metal availability in the soil is not adequate for sufficient plant uptake, chelates or acidifying agents would be applied to liberate them into the soil solution. Use of soil amendments such as synthetics (ammonium thiocyanate) and natural zeolites have yielded promising results. Synthetic cross-linked polyacrylates (hydrogels) have protected plant roots from heavy metals toxicity and prevented the entry of toxic metals into roots. After sufficient plant growth and metal accumulation, the above-ground portions of the plant are harvested and removed, resulting the permanent removal of metals from the site. Soil metals should also be bioavailable, or subject to absorption by plant roots. Chemicals that are suggested for this purpose include various acidifying agents, fertilizer salts and chelating materials. The retention of metals to by soil organic matter is also weaker at low pH, resulting in more available metal in the soil solution for root absorption. It is suggested that the phytoextraction process is enhanced when metal availability to plant roots is facilitated through the addition of acidifying agents to the soil. Chelates are used to enhance the phytoextraction of a number of metal contaminants including Cd, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn.

Ni tolerant plants/Ni accumulators either accumulate or exclude metals. Hence, plants with a reduced capacity to accumulate toxic metals if edible, should be a concern for human health. In contrast, plants with an enhanced capacity to accumulate toxic metals can help in phytoremediation technologies. Thus, knowledge of how plants can specifically accumulate or exclude essential elements and toxic metals, particularly in case of Ni tolerant plants or accumulators can be exploited for the selection of species that are appropriate for use in phytoremediation. This includes knowledge on bioavailability of metals, rhizospheric processes and root uptake, as well as on translocation to and processing/storage in the above-ground parts of the plant. Use of plants that hyperaccumulate specific metals and control and/or transform organic pollutants is gaining considerable significance in contemporary phytotechnology (table 2).

Ni tolerant plants and Ni accumulators have been found to be useful in phytotechnologies all over the word for transformation and containment of inorganic and organic pollutants including radionuclides (table 2). However, ecosystem design and management, investigations related to rhizosphere biotechnology, processes involved in the evolution of ecosystems and engineering of plant metabolism for enhancing the adaptive ecophysiology still remain a challenging task particularly with regard to the management of the phytomass and recycling (figures 2 and 3).



**Figure 1.** Environmental implications of nickelophilous plants - scope and limitations

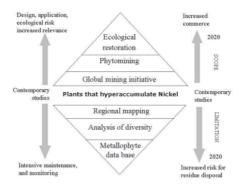
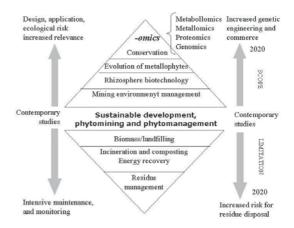


Figure 2. Advantages and limitations of using invasive and non-invasive plants (indigenous and alien) in phytotechnologies. (Based on McCutcheon and Schnoor, 2003).



**Figure 3.** In order to move ahead in phytotechnologies: existing gaps in our knowledge must be thoroughly investigated with the available modern tools (Based on McCutcheon and Schnoor, 2003).

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