A holistic approach to bring sustainability and resilience via Plant and Microbe populations in the Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan

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Figure 1 and the Quality of Device Contract Contrac *A thesis submitted to the Quaid-i-Azam University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy*

In

Botany/Plant Sciences

(Plant Ecology and Conservation)

By

ZEESHAN AHMAD

Department of Plant Sciences, Faculty of Biological Science

Quaid-i-Azam University

Islamabad, Pakistan

2022

Certificate of Approval

This is to certify that research work presented in this thesis, entitled "A holistic approach to bring sustainability and resilience via Plant and Microbe populations in the Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan" was conducted by Mr. Zeeshan Ahmad under the supervision of Dr. Shujaul Mulk Khan No part of this thesis has been submitted anywhere else for any other degree. This the is is submitted to the Department of Plant Sciences, Quaid-i-Azam University as a partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the field of Plant Sciences/ Botany (Plant Ecology and Conservation), Department of Plant Sciences of Quaid-i-Azam University Islamabad, Pakistan.

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iv

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Dr. Shujaul Mulk Khan Associate Professor Department of Plant Sciences, Quaid-i-Azam University Islamabad

vi

"In the name of ALLAH, most Gracious, most Compassionate"

AL QURAN

Assuredly the creation of the heavens ant the earth is a greater (matter) than the creation of men: yet most men understand not. Not equal are the blind and those who (clearly) see: not are (equal) those who believe and work deeds of righteousness, and those who de evil. Little do ye learn by admonition! The Hour will certainly come: therein is no doubt: yet most men believe not and your Lord says: Call on me; I will answer your (Prayer): but those who are too arrogant to serve me will surely find themselves in Hell in humiliation! It is Allah who has made the Night for you, that ye may rest therein, and the Day, as that which helps (you) to see. Verily Allah is full of Grace and Bounty to men: yet most men give not thanks. Such is Allah, your Lord, the Creator of all things. There is no God but He: then how ye are deluded away from the truth! Thus are deluded those who want to reject the Signs of Allah.

Al Mumin Verses 40:57 to 63.

hich helps (you) to see. Verily Allah is full of Grace
most men give not thanks. Such is Allah, your Lor
. There is no God but He: then how ye are deluded
us are deluded those who want to reject the Signs of
. Verses 40:57

DEDICATED TO

My loving **mother**, who is my inexhaustible source of comfort, love and optimism.

My upright and self-made **father** who taught me resilience, patience and from whom I have learnt to negotiate the challenges of life with dignity and courage.

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DRSML August My energetic and obedient brothers who seems the speaking state of the search supervisor Dr. Shujaul Mulk an My caring and selfless **sister** who toiled laboriously for my comfort and enabled me to remain focused upon my objectives.

My energetic and obedient **brothers**

My research supervisor **Dr. Shujaul Mulk Khan**, who not only supervised but also reshaped my academic career, taught me professionalism and inculcated me with a sense of purpose and vision.

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L MULK KHAN, Associate Professor of Plant Science
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Rehman, Sanam Asmat, Sabina Nazakat, Ateeqa Kh
their sincerity, sympathy and moral support. Thank ye
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t not the least by any means, I bow my head in front of
ss prayers, l At last, but not the least by any means, I bow my head in front of **My Parents** for their endless prayers, love and support that keeps me motivated and confident. I feel honored to have a wonderful parent who always struggles for our better future and never hesitated to provide best they have. Deepest thanks to my siblings **Uzma Khan**, **Bilal Ahmad**, **Hilal Ahmad**, **Ihtisham Ahmad**, **Inzamam Ahmad**, **Jalwa Khan** and **Hifsa Khan** who keep me grounded, remind me of what is important in life and always standing along with me strengthen my journey and making it more joyful.

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Mr. Zeeshan Ahmad

Table of Contents

RSM QAL

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Appendix

DRSML QA[U](#page-370-0)

Publications arising to date from this Dissertation

The following papers have been published based on some results presented in the

thesis:

- 1. **Ahmad, Z.,** S. M. Khan, and S. Page, 2021. Politics of the natural vegetation to balance the hazardous level of elements in marble polluted ecosystem through phytoremediation and physiological responses*, Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 414: 125451. **(Impact factor: 14.224)**
- 2. **Ahmad, Z.,** S. M. Khan, S. Page, S. Alamri and M. Hashem, 2021. Plants predict the mineral mines–A methodological approach to use indicator plant species for the discovery of mining sites. *Journal of Advanced Research*. 39: 119-133. **(Impact factor: 12.822)**
- 3. **Ahmad, Z.,** S. M. Khan, M. I Ali, N. Fatima and S. Ali, 2019. Pollution indicandum and Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem; Role of selected indicator plants in phytoremediation and determination of pollution zones, *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 236, 117709. **(Impact factor: 11.072)**
- 4. **Ahmad, Z.** and Khan, S.M., Microbial Flora of Marble Waste-Polluted Environment in the Phylogenetic Perspectives. In Climate Change and Ecosystems (pp. 1-30). CRC Press. *(Book Chapter)*
- **d, Z.,** S. M. Khan, M. I Ali, N. Fatima and S. Ali, 2019. I
arble Waste Polluted Ecosystem; Role of selected
emediation and determination of pollution zones,
tion, 236, 117709. (**Impact factor: 11.072**)
d, Z. and Khan 5. **Z. Ahmad,** S.M. Khan, S. Page, H. Balzter, Abdullah, S. Ali, S. Jehangir and U. Ejaz 2021. Environmental sustainability and resilience; Phytoremediation of heavy metals and plant physiological response in the Marble waste polluted ecosystem, *Journal of Cleaner Production* (Under Review / JCLEPRO-D-22-20848)
- 6. **Z. Ahmad** and S.M. Khan. 2022. Angiosperms Distribution in the Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem and Driving Microclimatic Factors, *Journal of Hazardous Materials Advances* (Under Review / HAZADV-D-22-00358)
- 7. **Ahmad, Z.,** S. M. Khan and S. Ali, 2018. *Zonation of the Marble waste polluted ecosystem and assessment of their respective indicator species in District Buner, Pakistan.* 2nd International Conference on ―*Conservation of Medicinal and Aromatic plants for improving the livelihood of Mountain Communities through Industrial linkage*" organized by Center for Plant Sciences & Biodiversity (CPS & B), University of Swat in collaboration with Higher Education Commission (HEC), (September 03-05, 2018). *(Abstract Published*)
- 8. **Ahmad, Z.,** S. M. Khan, M. I. Ali, N. Fatima and M. Iqbal, 2018. *Fungal diversity* of the Marble Waste Polluted ecosystem in the Phylogenetic perspectives. 7th International and 16th National Conference on *"Plant resources: Current Trends, Challenges and Solutions"* at Islamia College Peshawar and University of Peshawar, Pakistan, (March 23-26, 2018). *(Abstract Published*)

Abstract

Marble industry is one of the major waste generating industries. Marble mining and processing result in environmental deterioration in the form of water, soil and air pollution. This dissertation aims to find out the physio-chemical properties of sampled vegetation and soil of the marble waste polluted ecosystems with emphasis on the role of specific indicators (plants and Fungi) in remediation of potential toxic elements (heavy metals) and NDVI changes in the marble polluted region of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan.

halysis, Ordinary Least Square, Logistic and Probabilistics, Bivariate Analysis, Detrended Correspondence Ardence Analysis and Structural Equation Modeling. Indiation is aldence Analysis and Structural Equation Modeling. I Quadrat quantitative ecological techniques were adapted for sampling of vegetation. All the collected data of plant species and environmental variables were analyzed using different statistical techniques including Two-way Cluster Analysis, Indicator Species Analysis, Ordinary Least Square, Logistic and Probabilistic Models, Species Area Curves, Bivariate Analysis, Detrended Correspondence Analysis, Canonical Correspondence Analysis and Structural Equation Modeling. Indicator species were determined using Indicator Species Analysis that exhibit more fortitude and contest against marble waste polluted ecosystem for each polluted zone. The identified plant indicators, its prestigious dignity concerning various environmental variables was then examined through direct gradient analysis i.e., Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) for most suitable indicator species. Some of the selected indicators were further assessed for their phytoremediation ability and physiological response (i.e., proline osmolytes, chlorophyll-a, chlorophyll-b & total carotenoid contents) growing naturally in the subtropical Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem (MWPE). Micro fungi were isolated, characterized and identified from the MWPE. Malt extract agar media was used for fungus growth and isolation of pure colonies. All the fungal isolates were characterized via Lacto-phenol cotton blue stain for their anatomical examination. The hyphae length and width of fungi were measured in micrometer (μm) using Piximeter software. Nuclear ribosomal Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) was amplified using ITS1-F and ITS4-R universal primers. ITS sequences were compared via BLAST network service of National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) to affirm identification of micro fungus species. While, the spatial distribution of heavy metals (Potential toxic elements) was constructed using ArcGIS 10.8. Google Earth Engine (GEE) was used for the calculation/ extraction of NDVI from 1986 to 2021.

A total of 220 plant species belong to 164 genera and 65 different plant families were recorded from Subtropical vegetation zones of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. TWCA classified all the stations and plants into three primary vegetation zones i.e., Humid, Semi-humid and Dry subtropical, based on Sorenson distance and Ward's linkage methods. The topmost indicators recorded for these vegetation zones were *Ficus carica*, *Catharanthus roseus* and *Erigeron canadensis* (Humid), *Morus nigra, Datura innoxia* and *Persicaria glabra* (Semi humid), *Dalbergia sissoo*,

remetro fungal isolates. Their molecular identifications and *alternaria* derroliphilum, *Curvularia aeria* and *alternaria alternaria alternaria* alternaria *assetwater* polluted ecosystem. Morphologically moded aseptat *Withania somnifera* and *Saccharum bengalense* (Dry subtropical indicators) based on Indicator Values in the region. Out of 220 plant species, 19 indicator plants, i.e., *Adiantum capillus-veneris, Ailanthus altissima, Albizia lebbeck, Calotropis procera, Cynodon dactylon, Datura innoxia, Debregeasia salicifolia, Desmostachya bipinnata, Dodonaea viscosa, Erigeron bonariensis, Ficus carica, Morus alba, Morus nigra, Parthenium hysterophorus, Persicaria glabra, Ricinus communis, Setaria viridis, Tamarix aphylla* and *Withania somnifera* were the significant phytoextractor and phyto-stabilizer of potential toxic elements (Cr, Ni, Cu, Mn, Zn, Fe, Co, Cd, Ca and Mg) based on bioaccumulation coefficient, translocation and biological concentration factors. These indicators increase the accumulation of proline osmolyte and decrease chlorophyll-a, chlorophyll-b and total carotenoids as a defense or survival mechanism against marble waste polluted ecosystems. These results were reconfirmed through mixed effect modeling and bivariate regression. Preliminary results identified a total of six pure micro fungal isolates. Their molecular identification and phylogeny resulted *Aspergillus brasilensi*, *Aspergillus sydowii*, *Aureobasidium leucosper, Fusarium petroliphilum, Curvularia aeria* and *alternaria alternata* fungal species from marble wastewater polluted ecosystem. Morphologically most of these strains comprehended aseptate hyphae and black, brown, green, white to dark green colors. Whereas, anatomically these strains range from cylindrical to round, hyaline in lactophenol blue, thick to thin walled, smooth to ornamented surface with sharp scale and fusoid to ellipsoid in shape. Among the identified micro fungi *Aspergillus sydowii, Aspergillus brasilensi, Curvularia aeria* and *Alternaria alternata* showed a significant mycoremediation ability against marble pollution. Furthermore, a significant NDVI difference was found in the marble polluted and non-polluted regions. The nonpolluted areas have higher NDVI than the marble polluted regions. The overall average NDVI in the marble polluted and non-polluted regions were 0.263 and 0.382, respectively.

It is concluded that the studied plant indicators and micro fungi of marble waste have a significant role in the remediation of Marble Waste Polluted Systems (MWPS). Increasing proline accumulation and decreasing chlorophyll contents with an increase in pollution in the studied plant show resistance of the biome/biosphere in response to the external abiotic Lithospheric toxicities. It is recommended that these plant species could be grown to remediate the Marble Waste Polluted Systems (MWPS) in the marble processing industries and its catchments.

1.1 Introduction

by, black, bluish, yellow, pink or green in color. These m
ompounds MgO, CaO, SiO₂, Fe₂O₃, TiO₂, P₂O₅, Na₂O a
). Marbles usually occur in large deposits that are geogra
eds of meters thick. This property all Marble is a metamorphic rock that is usually composed of recrystallized carbonate minerals, generally dolomite or calcite [\(Török et al. 2011\)](#page-329-0). These rocks are formed during metamorphism when limestone is exposed to high heat and pressure. Most marbles are formed at boundaries of convergent plates where the maximum area of the Earth's crust is exposed to regional metamorphism. Some marbles are formed via contact metamorphism when hot magma heats neighboring limestone or dolomite. When formed from limestone, this marble will be white in color, with very rare impurities. Marbles that contain clay minerals, bituminous or iron oxide impurities can be gray, black, bluish, yellow, pink or green in color. These marbles contain the chemical compounds MgO, CaO, SiO₂, Fe₂O₃, TiO₂, P₂O₅, Na₂O and Al₂O₃ (Knoche [et al. 1995\)](#page-321-0). Marbles usually occur in large deposits that are geographically extensive and hundreds of meters thick. This property allows them to be mined on a broader scale, with some quarries and mines generating millions of tons of marble annually. Usually, marble is cut into various dimensions or made into crushed stone. The dimension stone is produced through sawing marble into different size pieces. These are used in buildings, paving, monuments, sculptures and other projects. While crushed stone is utilized as an aggregate in railroad beds, highways, building foundations and other constructions (Kore and Vyas 2016).

Marble rocks have many unique properties which are utilized for sculptures and as architectural building materials for beautification. The chemical properties of marble are also exploited in pharmaceuticals and in agriculture to decrease acidity of the soil. Marble products are also used in paint, papers and cosmetics due to their optical properties and low cost [\(André et al. 2014;](#page-312-0) [Karaşahin and Terzi 2007\)](#page-320-0). A high purity marble with a bright white color is very useful. It is mined, crushed, and processed to remove impurities. This powdered marble is used as a coloring agent, in whitewash, cosmetics, papers, plastics, putty, grout, filler in paint and other manufactured goods. Marble is also one of the most effective acid neutralization agents due to its high content of calcium carbonate. In a crushed form it is used for acid neutralization in lakes, streams, soils and in the chemical industry. Antacid medicines are helpful to people who suffer from acid indigestion and reflux. These medicines contain calcium carbonate which is sometimes made from powdered marble. The solubility and low hardness of marble allows it to be used as a calcium additive in animal feeds especially for egg producing chickens and dairy cows. The marble has three Mohs hardness scale. Hence, it is easy to carve and useful for making sculptures, floor tiles, facing stones, architectural panels, windowsills and other ornamental objects.

1.1.1 Pollution caused by the Marble Industry

mental pollution. The primary causes of pollution are du
oduced by or used at quarry sites (Aukour and Al-[Q](#page-317-0)inna
08; Miliša et al. 2010). The marble industry in
tely 70 % of precious mineral resources during polishir
ocesse Where marble outcrops are being exploited, the marble industry plays an important role in the socioeconomic conditions of people and provides employment to hundreds of people within local communities. Nevertheless, the marble industry is also a source of environmental pollution. The primary causes of pollution are dust, noise, vibration and oil produced by or used at quarry sites (Aukour and Al-Qinna 2008a; [Celik and](#page-314-0) [Sabah 2008;](#page-314-0) Miliša et al. 2010). The marble industry in Pakistan wastes approximately 70 % of precious mineral resources during polishing, processing and mining processes (Ahmad et al. 2019; Gazi et al. 2012). Worldwide, about 40 % of marble wastes are generated in quarrying operation processes in the form of rock fragments. Such wastes are dumped into empty pits and river beds, and on roads and agriculture fields or pasture lands, resulting in wide ranging environmental pollution (Akbulut and Gürer 2007; Aukour and Al-Qinna 2008b; [Mendoza et al. 2014\)](#page-324-1). Marble pollution decreases topsoil permeability or porosity and hence limits the infiltration of water. It enhances soil alkalinity and decreases soil fertility. Mining and the processing of marbles result in environmental deterioration in the form of soil, air and water pollution. The dry marble powder or slurry has a high pH value causing lung and eye infections [\(El Haggar 2010\)](#page-316-0).

When discarded into water reservoirs and bodies, marble waste affects surface water reserves [\(Vijayalakshmi et al. 2003\)](#page-330-0) by adding potential toxic elements or heavy metals to the ecosystem. These can be removed by primary treatments and detoxification procedures [\(El-Maghraby et al. 2013\)](#page-315-0). Marble waste dumped onto the land significantly impacts the local ecology and has a negative effect on the aesthetic of the natural environment. It directly or indirectly affects the composition of the flora and fauna of an ecosystem as well as causing other chemical and physical alterations of the environment [\(Yu et al. 2005\)](#page-331-0) [\(Fig. 1.1\)](#page-26-1).

Fig. 1.1 A view of a marble waste polluted ecosystem, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

1.1.2 Water used in the Marble Industry

Water is one of the most important natural resources consumed in the processing of marble stone. During marble processing i.e., cutting, cleaning, washing, cooling of saws and polishing, a large quantity of water is consumed, resulting in an equally large quantity of wastewater. The processing of one ton of marble stone results in one ton of slurry comprising 300 kg (30%) sawing dust and 700 kg (70%) water [\(Dhanapandian et al. 2009\)](#page-315-1). Between 50 and 150 $m³$ of water per day is required for an average size factory. The majority of marble industries are situated near to river sides, as a result of which waste from these units goes directly into the river where it causes pollution. Wastewater pollutants affect not only the aquatic flora and fauna but also downstream agricultural fields and crop production as well, because the river water is used for crop irrigation.

1.1.3 Impact of Marble pollution on biodiversity and the concept of indicator species

pecies tolerate a limited range of environmental pollution
the natural ecosystem health. In contrast, rare specie
tolerance are too sensitive to pollution and therefore
pollution response. Similarly, ubiquitous species pos Marble industries and associated pollution cause a rapid change in the structure and function of the surrounding natural ecosystems. Plant and animal species experience various environmental issues in such polluted ecosystems. Some of these problems are slow to manifest, whereas others have an immediate effect [\(Bryson 1974\)](#page-314-1). These changes may be serious for certain organisms which cannot adjust themselves to the changing conditions, especially for species relatively low genetic diversity and narrow ecological amplitude [\(Heath et al. 1993\)](#page-318-0). The identification of indicator species is gaining more and more importance in the evaluation of environmental health. As most indicator species tolerate a limited range of environmental pollution, they can be used to assess the natural ecosystem health. In contrast, rare species with a narrow ecological tolerance are too sensitive to pollution and therefore only infrequently reflect the pollution response. Similarly, ubiquitous species possess a very broad tolerance and hence are likely to be less sensitive to pollution. Examples of numerous indicator species can be found in different environments; for example, lichens and bryophytes are commonly used to assess the air pollution [\(Dymytrova 2009;](#page-315-2) [Larsen et](#page-321-2) [al. 2007;](#page-321-2) Nash III and Wirth 1988). Use of indicator species differs from the classic chemical and physical measurements of environmental quality. The indicators add a temporal component corresponding to life span / residence time of an organism in a specific habitat. In addition, pollutants can occur in very low concentrations. Tedious analyses with high associated costs are required to detect such low levels of pollution. In contrast, the tolerance levels of indicator species can often provide a clear, low cost picture of a polluted environment. Furthermore, the indicator species rely upon the complex intricacies of ecosystems and can be used to convey a representative overview of a dynamic environment. Within this framework, indicator species monitoring in the natural environment can provide information on physical and chemical changes, ecological processes and biodiversity.

1.1.4 Role of Biodiversity in Pollution Reduction/ Bioremediation and Sustainable Environment

The degradation or removal of contamination has been achieved through various methods including chemical extraction, electrolytic techniques, ion exchange methods, precipitation, polymer micro encapsulation excavation and land filling [\(Antunes et al. 1998;](#page-312-3) [Waltner-Toews 2001\)](#page-330-1). Solidification, stabilization, flushing, soil washing, incineration, thermal desorption and extraction approaches have also been used to degrade or remove various types of pollutants [\(Gomez 2014;](#page-317-1) [Oruru 2014\)](#page-325-0). However, such types of approaches are relatively expensive especially for developing countries to apply on a larger scale (Moscoso et al. 2012).

i, bioremediation or biological treatments are the best a
or cleaning of polluted sites which are relatively achievy and Ellis 1992; Cunningham et al. 1996; Vidali 200
ntal friendly approaches have significant potential an In contrast, bioremediation or biological treatments are the best alternatives for the restoration or cleaning of polluted sites which are relatively achievable and low in cost (Autry and Ellis 1992; Cunningham et al. 1996; Vidali 2001). Such types of environmental friendly approaches have significant potential and can be used to degrade or remove contaminants from the polluted environment [\(Elliot et al. 2010\)](#page-316-1). For example, the removal of petroleum from contaminated soil via the bioremediation procedure can save approximately 2.8 US\$ per square meter. The cost benefits can increase up to 48 million US\$ by applying enhanced bioremediation procedures for the removal of multiple types of pollutants (Romero et al. 2006; [Verta et al. 1989\)](#page-330-3).

Bioremediation is one of the most rapidly advancing fields of environmental science. It uses microorganisms in order to decrease and detoxify the harmful effects of various pollutants (Mani and Kumar 2014; Singh et al. 2011). It can also help to preserve the biodiversity of an ecological ecosystem and sustain life beyond the microbial flora [\(Srivastava and Vellend 2005\)](#page-329-1). The microbial flora helps in the removal of pollutants from the environment via breakdown of complex molecules into simpler substances. Metabolic products in all such processes are then used by higher plants [\(Ali 2010;](#page-311-2) [Shukla et al. 2010\)](#page-328-1). Ecofriendly management procedures to utilize these pollutants via microorganisms can be identified and implemented. Phytoremediation is one of the strategies to restore polluted ecosystems at a low cost using plant species [\(Nascimento and Xing 2006;](#page-324-4) [Wei et al. 2020;](#page-331-1) [Yan et al. 2020\)](#page-331-2). Certain plant species retain the inherent ability of bioaccumulation, translocation and degradation of different types of pollutants [\(Sepehri et al. 2020\)](#page-327-0). They play a role as a

sink for biologically hazardous materials [\(Schwitzguébel 2017\)](#page-327-1). Phytoremediation is a low cost technology driven by natural sunlight energy which takes place in situ, where the plants accumulate pollutants from the environment [\(Salt et al. 1998\)](#page-327-2). Plants accumulate these pollutants (both organic and inorganic contaminants) in their tissues and extract out nutrients for their rapid growth [\(Anderson and Coats 1995\)](#page-312-4).

1.1.5 Spatial distribution or GIS mapping

Solution, especially Fe, Mg, Ca, Na, Cu, Cr, Pb and distribution mapping using GIS technology is a useful to f the status of heavy metal pollution. Spatial distributed ment of a phenomena on the Earth's surface. It is an i Mining and processing of marbles result in environmental deterioration in the form of soil, air and water pollution. Pollution adds certain types of heavy metals to the natural ecosystem, especially Fe, Mg, Ca, Na, Cu, Cr, Pb and Cd. Therefore, its spatial distribution mapping using GIS technology is a useful tool for accurate assessment of the status of heavy metal pollution. Spatial distribution or mapping is an arrangement of a phenomena on the Earth's surface. It is an important approach in geographical and environmental statistics. It can summarize the raw data directly or may reflect the outcome in more sophisticated forms. Different aspects of the data can be represented in a single graphical display using a suitable choice of various colors for differentiation. Such spatial data can help scientists in defining the regions or sites where pollution risk is high, thereby assisting decision makers in identifying the locations where efforts should be focused. The main benefit of a geostatistical approach is an unbiased estimation of the value of variables in unsampled regions through the application of interpolation (Goovaerts 1999; [Webster and Oliver 2007\)](#page-331-3). Complementary methods include the use of other measures of vegetation health. The normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) provides a quantitative estimation from the surface reflectance of vegetation cover and biomass [\(Arabameri and](#page-312-5) [Pourghasemi 2019\)](#page-312-5). It monitors vegetation of an area from space in the visible and infrared portion of the spectrum [\(Bannari et al. 1995;](#page-313-1) [Baret and Guyot 1991;](#page-313-2) [Justice et](#page-319-0) [al. 1986;](#page-319-0) [Tucker et al. 1991;](#page-329-2) [Tucker et al. 1985\)](#page-329-3). NDVI has been recognized as a good indicator of vegetation productivity and therefore can also be used to understand the impact of pollution on vegetation [\(Wang et al. 2001\)](#page-330-4). Hence, the combined use of a GIS, which provides resources to store, analyze and visualize spatial data, combined with the results from remote sensing and related innovations in computational specialist tools can provide a powerful method for land-based pollution assessment [\(Austin 2007;](#page-312-6) [García et al. 2007\)](#page-316-2).

1.1.6 Reclamation / Resilience in Marble waste polluted Ecosystem

Marble pollution has a destructive impact on the natural ecosystem. The absence of fertile topsoil is the main concern or issue in the marble waste polluted ecosystem. Therefore, the progress of natural vegetation process is very slow in the polluted regions. To prevent the consequences of marble pollution some remedial measures are essential for the reclamation or resilience of the degraded habitat in order to restore its natural condition and productivity. But the reclamation of marble polluted regions is often difficult due to their physical, chemical and biological characteristics. Selective planting of native, abundant and indicator species is desired in most cases along with the introduction of some local wild microorganisms. The restoration of these polluted sites by restoration plantings along with bioremediation and phytoremediation are essential for the natural environment resilience or restoration [\(Bini et al. 2017;](#page-313-3) Fiorentino et al. 2018).

1.1.7 Introduction to the Study area / Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province

estoration plantings along with bioremediation and phy

or the natural environment resilience or restoration (

et al. 2018).
 roduction to the Study area / Khyber Pakhtunkhwa P

as a custodian of the Hindu-Himalayan be Pakistan as a custodian of the Hindu-Himalayan belt is of great geological importance. It is the home of the world's purest and finest grade marbles and granites. Globally, Pakistan is the $6th$ largest extractor of marble minerals and granite. According to Pakistan Stone Development Company (PASDEC), reservoirs containing 297 billion tons of marble and granite are present in Pakistan. While, according to Pakistan Federal Boards of Revenue Directorate of Training and Research, there are 160.2 million tons of the marble reserves in the country. Out of these, 158 million tons (98%) are present in the province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa.

1.1.7.1 Location

The Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province is located in the northwestern part of the country at 31°49′–35°50′N latitude and 70°55′–71°47′E longitude. It covers a total area of 39,282 square miles $(101,741 \text{ km}^2)$ (Jan et al 2019) [\(Fig. 1.2\)](#page-31-1). It is further divided into 35 districts.

Fig. 1.2 Elevation and slope map of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan

1.1.7.2 Geographical boundaries

EXPRECENTION

REPRECENTION

THEN: 7382

Low: 148

Low: 148

Province Pakhtunkhwa province

Province has a west and north boundary with

represented areas of Kashmir (northern are

d northeast sides, while Punjab and Baluch Geographically this province has a west and north boundary with Afghanistan. Azad Kashmir and Pakistani administrated areas of Kashmir (northern areas) are situated to the east and northeast sides, while Punjab and Baluchistan provinces are located to the southeast and southwest of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province. The Hindu Kush mountains lie on the north side of the province.

1.1.7.3 Terrain

The topography of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province is a mixture of rugged mountainous ranges, submontane areas of an undulating nature and plain areas surrounded by hills. The province has four topographical regions; the north-western mountainous zone extending to the Malakand region (where the Himalayan and Hindukush ranges meet), the north-eastern region of Hazara (extending to the Himalayan and Karakorum ranges), the central zone, and the southern zone [\(Gouleta](#page-317-3) [2015\)](#page-317-3).

1.1.7.4 Geo-climate

Cold and snowy winters can be experienced in northern regions with heavy rainfall and short, pleasant summers. There is a very hot season during summer and moderate rainfall during winter. Extreme summer can be seen in the arid southern zone with relatively cold winters. The diverse landscapes of the province reflect varied amounts of precipitation. The average precipitation of the province is 406.4 mm [\(Rahman and](#page-326-1) [Dawood 2018\)](#page-326-1). Larger parts of the region experience a typically dry climate, but other parts (e.g. on the eastern periphery) receive monsoon rainfall from mid-June to mid-September, making these regions the wettest areas of Pakistan.

1.1.7.5 Brief history

Proper Pakhtunkhwa province is the product of a series of s, who have been subject to the invasions of greater war four thousand years ago, Aryans entered the region thrus region. The Darius I (Persian) captured the Gand The Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province is the product of a series of sacrifices of the inhabitants, who have been subject to the invasions of greater warriors over history. More than four thousand years ago, Aryans entered the region through the northern mountainous region. The Darius I (Persian) captured the Gandahara around 518 BC. The area then remained a hunting spot for various invaders including Greeks, Mauryans, the Bactrian Greeks, Scythians, the Kushanas, the White Huns, and the Guptas. By the tenth century the first Muslim king of Ghazni, Subuktagin, invaded Kabul which was then ruled by Hindu Shahiya kings. Subuktagin drove the Shahis down the country. Later this Frontier experienced a major transformation. Here, Turk descendants of earlier invaders and local Pashtun ethnic groups emerged as the dominant groups and replaced the former Hindu Shahi kings. During the Medieval period until 1818 the province remained part of the Muslim empire of India. The civil war started between various Pashtun tribes making them vulnerable to external attacks. The Sikh ruler of the Punjab, Ranjeet Singh, took full advantage of this opportunity and seized the areas of trans-Indus region, Dera Ismail Khan and Bannu, in 1818. Later, Sikhs conquered Peshawar in 1834, defeating the Pashtun at Nowshera. Fifteen years later, in 1849, the Sikhs were defeated, and the North-West Frontier districts became part of the British East India Company. The area remained part of Punjab until 1901. The viceroy of India, Lord Curzon, separated the five settled districts of, Bannu, Dera Ismail Khan, Hazara, Kohat, and Peshawar, and joined them to the five agencies of Kurram, Khyber, Malakand, North Waziristan, and South Waziristan, thus declared as a separate province: the Northwest Frontier Province of India [\(Shah and Amjad 2011\)](#page-328-2). After the division of the Indian subcontinent in 1947, NWFP became part of the newly made state of Pakistan. The name of the province, North West Frontier Province, remained until 15 April, 2010, when it was renamed as Khyber Pakhtunkhwa in $18th$ Amendment of the Constitution owing to the majority of Pashtuns in the region.

1.1.7.6 Education

The literacy rate of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa was 15.5% and 35.4% in 1972 and 1998 and it was 60%, 52%, 53% and 50% in the year 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015. According to the Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement level Survey 2019-20, the literacy rate of this province was 53%.

1.1.7.7 Population size

example 12
 example 12
 example 1998, the est combination of both dense (urban centers)

areas (mountains and countryside). During 1998, the est
 example 1998, the est
 example 14,740 million lived in tural and The province has a combination of both dense (urban centers) and less densely populated areas (mountains and countryside). During 1998, the estimated population of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province was about 17,740 million. Majority of these population (14,740 million) lived in rural and minimum (3 million) lived in urban areas (Government of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, 2015). The population was recorded as 24,700 million during 2011 (Gouleta 2015). The population of the province is 35 million with 52% males and 48% females, comprising of 11.9% of Pakistan's total population during 2021.

1.1.7.8 Economy

The Khyber Pakhtunkhwa has the $3rd$ largest economy of all provinces in Pakistan. It contributes 13% to gross domestic product (GDP) and 20% in mining output. Industries that support the economy of the province are mainly canning, preservation of fruits and vegetables, sugar refining, manufacturing, cotton textiles, furniture, cement, and tobacco processing. Other contributing industries include the mineral products including marble, limestone, gypsum and rock salt. Trade is another component helping the economy. The province dominates the economy in forestry and agriculture by generating heavy revenue. The economic growth of the province has been recorded with an annual growth rate of 4.5 %. Overseas remittances contribute 5% of GDP [\(Muhammad and Umar 2019\)](#page-324-5).

1.1.7.9 Agriculture

Agriculture is the main important cash crop of the province. Different crops grown include wheat, maize, tobacco, rice, sugar beets, vegetables and fruits. In Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, the agriculture sector provides livelihoods to 85 percent of the population. Agriculture accounts for 14 percent of the provincial GDP and employs 37 percent of the labor force. The total cultivated area in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa is 1.6 million ha (7 percent of the country's total), half of which is rainfed. It produces about 75 percent of the country's tobacco, 17 percent of maize, 16 percent of barley, and 8 percent of sugarcane. However, the province is a net importer of agricultural produce and depends heavily on production from other provinces – especially from Punjab – for important food commodities such as wheat (64 percent import share), rice (74 percent), citrus (75 percent) and vegetables (90 percent). Promoting agricultural development and creating a vibrant rural economy is thus crucial for Khyber Pakhtunkhwa economic and social progress.

1.1.7.10 Ethnic diversity

ant food commodities such as wheat (64 percent import interest (75 percent) and vegetables (90 percent). Prom
ant and creating a vibrant rural economy is thus cr
wa economic and social progress.
thnic diversity
ral and l Both cultural and linguistic diversity can be found in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province. Diverse ethnic cultures of the province include Pashtuns, Hazarewal, Chitrali, Kalash, and Gujjars. Pashtuns are the dominant tribe of the province (more than 75%). Major Pashtun tribes include Afridi, Bangesh, Bannuchi, Bhittani, Daavi, Gandapur, Ghargasht, Khattak, Mohmand, Mahsud, Marwat, Orakzai, Qazi Khel, Wazir, and Yusufzai. While the non-Pashtun tribes living in the province are Abbasi, Syeds, Mughal, Jhut, Turks, and Rajputs. People mostly follow the jirga system to settle any kind of disputes. The inhabitants of the province are well known for their courtesy, hospitability, loyalty and bravery.

1.1.7.11 Languages

A majority of the residents speak the Pashto language which belongs to the Irani branch of the Aryan family of language. Other languages are spoken in the province including Hindko, Gojri, Persian, Khowar, Kalasha and Seraiki. Urdu, a national language, is used for communication purposes in academic institutions, while the English language is usually used for official correspondence.

1.1.7.12 Flora of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

The diverse climate and unique landscape of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa regions has enriched the area with diverse flora. Even the desert plain of Dera Ismail Khan possesses a natural fertility which upon receiving heavy precipitation produces abundant crop and grasses [\(Shah and Amjad 2011\)](#page-328-2). A variety of herbs, shrubs and trees are present in the region. Major tree species include *Pinus gerardiana, Cedrus deodara, Betula utilis, Thuja orientalis, Picea smithiana, Quercus sp.* and *Juglan regia* etc. Fruit trees include *Prunus malus, Prunus persica, Morus alba, Citrus sp.* etc.

1.1.7.13 Fauna of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

auna of Knyber Pakhtunkhwa
forests and rugged mountains provide shelter to diverse
ack bear, Eurasian lynx, Marmot, Indian leopard, Snov
partridge, and weasels (Sethi et al. 2020; Ullah et al. 20
ational parks of the provi The dense forests and rugged mountains provide shelter to diverse fauna in the area. Asiatic black bear, Eurasian lynx, Marmot, Indian leopard, Snow Leopard, Snow cock, snow partridge, and weasels (Sethi et al. 2020; Ullah et al. 2019) are present in different national parks of the province. Also, Markhor (*Capra falconeri*), national animal of Pakistan can be found profoundly in Chitral Gol National Park. A variety of fishes have also been reported from Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, including *Barilius vagra, B. Pakistanicus, Cyprinus Carpio, Labeo rohita, catla catla, Puntius ticto, P.sarana, P.sophore, Channa puntata,* and *C.striata* (Hasan et al. 2016).

1.1.7.14 Economic mineral resources of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province hosts various metallogenic domains. The Hindu Kush Karakoram have vast mineral deposit including gold, arsenic, antimony, radioactive minerals, graphite, dolomite/limestone/ marble, polymetallic sulphides, coal, and gemstones. The Kohistan batholith which lies in the central part of arc consists of diorite, gabbro and granodiorite. The northern Indus suture represents obduction of the lower part of thick pile of thrust slice of ophiolitic rocks. The Kohistan terrain contains volcanic rocks throughout the Karakoram Suture along with traces of gold, antimony, zinc, copper and lead in its northern parts. Northern Indus Suture is characterizing the deposits of iron, serpentine, asbestos, peridot, chromite, magnesite, talc, soapstone, platinum and group of minerals associated with the gold. While Western Indus Suture contains deposits and showing of copper, lead-zinc, asbestos, chromite, fluorite, magnesite, iron, manganese, soapstone, talc, platinum, serpentine
and nickel. Khyber-Hazara that makes high metamorphic Zone contains beryl, fluorite, feldspar, galena, graphite, garnet, magnesite, magnetite, marble, quartz, scheelite, talc and gemstones. Gemstones present in this metamorphic zone include aquamarine, garnet, moonstone, peridot, pinktopaz, ruby, spessartine, and tourmaline. Whereas Khyber-Hazara low metamorphic Zone contains coal, phosphate, gypsum, iron, quartz, manganese, marble, and soapstone etc. Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Ex-FATA include the Sulaiman Basin, Kohat Sub-Basin and interfingering of Sulaiman Basin with Kohat Sub-Basin in its southern part. The deposits include bentonite, bauxite/laterite, coal, clays, fuller's earth, fire clay, gypsum, glass sand, iron ore, leadzinc ores, limestone/dolomite, potash salts, phosphate, manganese, radioactive minerals, rock salt sandstone, sulphur, oil shale, oil and gas [\(Malkani et al. 2017\)](#page-323-0).

ock salt sandstone, sulphur, oil shale, oil and gas (Malkar
been extensive mining of both marble and granite in the
d processing industries are responsible for a heavy pollut
vironment. There is, therefore, a need to under There has been extensive mining of both marble and granite in the province. Marble mining and processing industries are responsible for a heavy pollution loading on the natural environment. There is, therefore, a need to understand the impact of this pollution, particularly on the natural vegetation, and to identify plant and microbial indicators of pollution as a contribution to low-cost pollution assessment. With this in mind, the research hypotheses for this thesis are:

1.1.8 Research Rationale and Hypotheses

It is hypothesized that:

- 1. Marble waste polluted ecosystems host the Natural vegetation zones/associations with specific plant and micro fungus indicator species that can grow, survive and tolerate more successfully than others and can be utilized in managing such systems.
- 2. Indicator plants increase proline osmolyte and decrease chlorophyll contents as a defense response or survival mechanism against marble pollution.
- 3. An increase in marble waste pollution significantly decreases vegetation cover and plant health (green-ness) as measured by NDVI.
- 4. Proper land management and pollution reduction strategies may enhance the sustainability and remediation of the regions surrounding marble industries.

1.1.9 Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to find out the physio-chemical properties of sampled vegetation and soil of the marble waste polluted ecosystems with emphasis on the role of specific indicators (plants and Fungi) in remediation of potential toxic elements (heavy metals) and NDVI changes in the marble polluted region of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan.

1.1.10 Objectives of the study

- 1. To quantify phyto-sociological attributes through quantitative ecological techniques in the Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem (MWPE) Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.
- 2. To explore the impact of Marble wastewater on plant species composition, distribution pattern, abundance and their indicators in various vegetation zones using ecological modelling approaches.
- The Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem

Inkhwa, Pakistan.

plore the impact of Marble wastewater on plant spectrom

ution pattern, abundance and their indicators in various

cological modelling approaches.

late, characterize 3. To isolate, characterize and identify micro fungi of the marble waste polluted ecosystem via biochemical tests, DNA based sequencing techniques and their phylogenetic relationship for possible future use.
- 4. To evaluate role of the plant & fungi indicators species in degradation of heavy metals in the marble wastes.
- 5. To determine physiological responses of indicators in the plant in terms of proline accumulation and chlorophyll contents in the vicinities of the marble industries.
- 6. To map heavy metal (potential toxic elements) concentrations present in marble waste polluted ecosystem of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, using geoinformatics techniques.
- 7. To estimate temporal changes in the NDVI for the last forty years due to marble pollution in the studied area.
- 8. To recommend most fit indicator species for abatement of water pollution and bringing resilience in the ecosystem.

1.1.11 Thesis Structure

is indicator plants at the subtropical MWPE level in climate, elevation and edaphic factors using indicator spequation modelling. Chapter 4 determines the phytorem ally occurring indicator plant species *(identified in chc* Keeping thesis aims and objectives in mind, the thesis consists of six chapters. Brief particulars of each chapter are as follows. Chapter 1 comprises a general introduction that provides an overview of marble, marble pollution, indicator species concept, reclamation of polluted sites, research hypotheses, aims and objectives. Chapters 2-5 have been written in the style and format of journal articles, each having an introduction, methods, data analyses, results, discussion and conclusion. Chapter 2 covers vegetation structure, composition, distribution pattern, dynamics and identification of micro fungi associated with the marble wastewater polluted ecosystem. Chapter 3 describes the detailed statistical procedure/methods for identifying indicator plants at the subtropical MWPE level in terms of marble pollution, climate, elevation and edaphic factors using indicator species analysis and structural equation modelling. Chapter 4 determines the phytoremediation ability of the naturally occurring indicator plant species *(identified in chapter 3)* and their physiological responses in terms of proline accumulation and reduction in chlorophyll contents in the vicinities of the marble waste polluted ecosystem. It also assesses the bioremediation ability of identified micro fungi for potential toxic elements remediation. Chapter 5 evaluates spatial distribution of heavy metals concentration present in MWPE and assessment of temporal changes in the NDVI for the last forty years in the region. Chapter 6 provides a discussion and synthesis with special reference to the main findings of the study and their comparison, conclusion and recommendations.

2 Chapter 2

Assessment of Vegetation and Micro Fungi in the Subtropical Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan

2.1 Introduction

Assessment of Vegetation and Micro Fungi was carried out to establish a baseline data for identification and further evaluation of indicators and best remediators of the pollutants.

2.1.1 Plant Biodiversity

by is the term used for all forms of living organisms in a
versity refers to almost every aspect of the living world,
ee of spatial and temporal scales. It encompasses
s, communities, ecosystems and even at the trait and g Biodiversity is the term used for all forms of living organisms in an ecosystem. The term biodiversity refers to almost every aspect of the living world, applying across a wide range of spatial and temporal scales. It encompasses variability within individuals, communities, ecosystems and even at the trait and genetic levels [\(Mace et](#page-323-1) [al. 2012;](#page-323-1) Öztürk et al. 2021). It focuses on flora of any ecological area, across numerous biogeographic regions (Gaston 2000). So, it is the priceless gift of nature that should be utilized wisely in order to conserve it for future generations.

Biodiversity is not only defined as the species number in an ecological region, but it is also the study of species richness with their relative abundance in a specific region [\(Hussain et al. 2022;](#page-319-0) Pielou 1977). It is the property of an area which refers to the differences among living organisms and their assemblage, the biotic processes acting on ecological communities, and the amount and specific structure of each. It can be restrained by scale, ranging from a specific microclimate habitat to the entire biosphere. Various types of geographic regions can be separated on the basis of biodiversity. Most of the time, edaphic and climatic ingredients have the strongest influence on plant species diversity [\(Hussain et al. 2022\)](#page-319-0). Changes in biotic and abiotic factors can also result in changes in other associated components. Abiotic factors include elevation and soil texture [\(Laughlin and Abella 2007\)](#page-322-0) as well as anthropogenic factors, including industrialization and other forms of human disturbance such as loss of forest cover [\(Namgail et al. 2012\)](#page-324-0). Protecting biodiversity not only helps to conserve living species for future generations but may also lead to reductions in the rate of plant endangerment and extinction [\(Hoekstra et al. 2005\)](#page-318-0).

2.1.2 Flora and vegetation

All plant species collectively make up the flora of a region [\(Ali 2008\)](#page-311-0). The inventory of floras by plant researchers has been undertaken in many regions across the globe. Through such practices, sufficient data can be gathered and used as a reference for future studies. Vegetation differs from Flora. Vegetation is an assembly of plants growing together in a specific area. It is the name for the combined cover of plants of a particular locality [\(Jennings et al. 2004\)](#page-319-1). Flora is the study of many species, while vegetation is the species distribution and abundance [\(Ali 2008;](#page-311-0) [Badshah et al. 2013\)](#page-313-0). Vegetation is made up of discrete and distinct plant communities as defined by [Braun-](#page-313-1)[Blanquet 1932;](#page-313-1) Clements 1916; Khan et al. 2013a).

ersity defines all the plant species (including wild an region. Floristic inventories assist in understanding dil and climate. They are a basic necessity for descriptive re y and can be used for displaying patterns of spel Floral diversity defines all the plant species (including wild and cultivated) in a particular region. Floristic inventories assist in understanding different features of plants, soil and climate. They are a basic necessity for descriptive research in the field of ecology and can be used for displaying patterns of species diversity or understanding species distributions in relation to numerous factors [\(Khan et al.](#page-320-1) [2017a\)](#page-320-1). Such studies are imperative for the evaluation of vegetation classification relative to its environments. This discipline has provided various methods to grasp vegetation taxonomy, which is helpful for the natural ecosystem conservation, quantification of ecosystem services and vegetation mapping [\(Ewald 2003;](#page-316-0) [Khan](#page-320-2) [2012\)](#page-320-2). Floristic studies come with numerous inspection tools and methods which are helpful at all levels (species, community and habitat level) [\(Huai and Pei 2004\)](#page-318-1). Understanding the plant communities is a first necessity for the ecosystem ecology, natural resource management and conservation. Such information is mainly essential for studying rare or infrequent species and their management. These techniques make it easy for naturalists to determine species richness, abundance and diversity in an ecosystem. Such studies play their role in species conservation and also help in finding the indicators of a specific habitat/region. They can also give a clear picture of vegetation heterogeneity of a particular geographic area [\(Da Cunha and De](#page-315-0) [Albuquerque 2006;](#page-315-0) [Ullah et al. 2015\)](#page-330-0). Furthermore, constancy, fidelity and frequency analyses specify the most threatened species in need of habitat protection [\(Baillie et](#page-313-2) [al. 2004;](#page-313-2) [Hester and Brooker 2007\)](#page-318-2).

Research in the environmental sciences has increased in recent few decades, and has been important in describing the effects of rapid changes in the environment, e.g. as a result of human disturbances or climate change. Such variations can have serious consequences for those plants with low genetic assortment and limited ecological amplitude to cope with these varying conditions [\(Critchfield 1985;](#page-315-1) [Davis et al. 2000\)](#page-315-2). Some species adjust themselves against changing conditions through different strategies such as growth forms, their development, and changes in life cycle, which eventually can result in changes in structure and formation of plant communities. The ecologist must determine how environmental variation effects plant species, their composition and the structure of plant communities [\(Guisan and Zimmermann 2000;](#page-317-1) Økland and Eilertsen 1993).

2.1.3 Pollution

d Eilertsen 1993).
 Ilution

pollution directly and indirectly influences natural vegeta

can bring about a rapid change in the ecosystem, especia

nd composition (Vitousek et al. 1997). Hence, there

r the proper develo Industrial pollution directly and indirectly influences natural vegetation [\(Marini et al.](#page-323-2) [2007\)](#page-323-2) and can bring about a rapid change in the ecosystem, especially in its structure, function and composition (Vitousek et al. 1997). Hence, there is an increasing demand for the proper development of various environmental principles and pollution controls, especially at the international level. The effect and degree of pollution in a wide range of environments has increased since the 1960s [\(Likens and Bormann](#page-322-1) [1974\)](#page-322-1) and is now a main driver of environmental disturbance [\(Freedman and](#page-316-1) [Hutchinson 1980\)](#page-316-1). The effect of various pollutants on the environment is going to increase. It exerts pressure on the natural ecosystem that remains a serious problem (Cheevaporn and Menasveta 2003). The degradation of the forest community is a solid example of the adverse effects of pollution on the terrestrial ecosystems [\(Appannagari 2017\)](#page-312-0).

2.1.4 Vegetation sampling through the Quadrat method

The quadrat method is widely employed by ecologists for vegetation sampling [\(Cox](#page-314-2) [1990\)](#page-314-2). Usually, a Quadrat demarcates an area of a specific size, where one can count the number of plant species and their cover is estimated or recorded for each species. The establishment of a quadrat can be regular, random, or subjective in the study area. If the growth of plants is usually in clumps, the narrow and long sample plot is helpful. It can cover more plant species than round or square shaped quadrats of equal size [\(Barbour et al. 1987;](#page-313-3) [Khan et al. 2011\)](#page-320-3). Suitable quadrat size is one of the exigent things for a sample plot that depends on certain factors. For example, the size bears no value if the cover is targeted for measurement purposes. But if the number of plant species is targeted, then the sample plot or quadrat size does matter, which can be selected through the minimal area method. All the phytosociological attributes can be determined using quadrat methods. Sampling plots with their plants having roots outside the quadrat's boundary will be included during measurements of cover when they have their canopy inside the sampling plot [\(Barbour et al. 1987\)](#page-313-3). There are many more sampling techniques in the field of vegetation ecology. Based on unbiased sampling, there are three types of sampling mechanisms i.e., Simple, Stratified and Systematic.

2.1.5 Gradients analysis

adients analysis
two approaches to gradient analysis. The first approach
Whittaker 1967) or ecological ordination ([A](#page-312-1)ustin 19
data is investigated mathematically graphically
tral gradients. (Whittaker 1978; Whittaker and Ni There are two approaches to gradient analysis. The first approach is direct gradient analysis (Whittaker 1967) or ecological ordination (Austin 1968) whereby the vegetation data is investigated mathematically/ graphically in relation to environmental gradients. (Whittaker 1978; Whittaker and Niering 1965) were the first ecologists to use direct gradient analysis to analyze vegetation patterns along moisture and elevation gradients. This technique comprises various graphs for the proper interpretation of species distribution along ecological gradients.

The indirect gradient analysis is another approach used in vegetation ecology [\(Austin](#page-312-1) [1968;](#page-312-1) Whittaker 1978). Here, different mathematical methods are used to summarize the collected data. There are usually no a priori suppositions regarding the most essential ecological gradients that influence the vegetation. The results reveal which samples are at extremes and which are at the intermediate position in the environmental gradients. After this stage, different statistical tests are carried out, to highlight any significant correlations [\(Ahmad et al. 2019;](#page-311-1) [Rasheed et al. 2021\)](#page-326-1).

Ordination techniques are also of frequent use in vegetation science. The ordination approach is used to find out the pattern or tendencies in a multivariate data matrix. The main target is to reduce or turn the intricate data matrix into a few significant dimensions [\(Austin 1976;](#page-312-2) [Whittaker 1978\)](#page-331-1). The ordination method has been considered an essential tool or technique especially devised to analyze relationships between environmental gradients and vegetation. Local Nonmetric Multidimensional Scaling (LNMDS) and Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA) are the two ordination methods used most frequently in the literature. The primary function of the ordination is to summarize the data regarding distinct units such as abundance data of species by generating a low dimension space of ordination. Similar samples and species are plotted so that they come close together while the dissimilar samples and species are placed far apart from each other. In general terms, ordination techniques are frequently used for a description of relationships between the ecological gradients and pattern of species composition that affect these patterns. Ordination can determine the species that are frequently found in association with each other and can further clarify how the composition of species in a distinct unit change with environmental gradient. The interpretation of patterns in the data sets is complicated, but the ordination helps the researcher to pinpoint this intricate pattern that is otherwise difficult or impossible to understand.

2.1.6 Isolation and Characterization of Microbes

helps the researcher to pinpoint this intricate pattern
impossible to understand.

lation and Characterization of [M](#page-318-3)icrobes

fungi represents a diverse group of eukaryotic organis

s and microbes like mold and yeast (Blackw Kingdom fungi represents a diverse group of eukaryotic organisms comprised of mushrooms and microbes like mold and yeast (Blackwell 2011; [Taylor et al. 2006\)](#page-329-0). Fungi have worldwide distribution and grow in a wide range of ecological environments. Approximately, there are 2.2-3.8 million fungal species of which only 5% have been described/ classified (Hawksworth and Lücking 2017). According to an early taxonomical studies, fungi were broadly classified based on their morphological i.e. spores color/microscopic and physiological characteristics [\(Petersen et al. 2015;](#page-326-2) [Zhou et al. 2010\)](#page-332-0). Nowadays, advances in molecular genetics has opened the way for modern taxonomic classification that challenged the historical grouping based on morphology and various other characters [\(da Cruz et al. 2018;](#page-315-3) [Shimono et al. 2018;](#page-328-0) [Takamatsu et al. 2018;](#page-329-1) [Wheeler 2004\)](#page-331-3). The phylogenetic studies based on molecular studies placed fungi into a separate kingdom that was sub divided into one subkingdom, seven phyla and ten sub phyla [\(Hawksworth and Iturriaga 2006;](#page-318-4) [Okane](#page-325-2) [and Ono 2018;](#page-325-2) [Ruggiero et al. 2015;](#page-327-0) [Shimono et al. 2018\)](#page-328-0). It was kept apart from the reset of kingdoms due to chitin (a polymer of N-acetylglucosamine) in their cell wall, distinctive morphology, physiology, biochemical nature and solitarily molecular characteristics [\(Gilmore et al. 2013;](#page-317-2) [Moore 2002\)](#page-324-1). Fungi are crucial decomposers in any ecological ecosystem [\(Osono et al. 2011\)](#page-325-3). They accomplish their indispensable role in decomposition of organic matter and have a pivotal part of the nutrient recycling and exchange with the environment [\(Shoji et al. 2006\)](#page-328-1).

The isolation and identification of microbes is one of the most important steps in studying microbes. There are numerous practical applications for the identification of unknown microorganisms. The method used in diagnostic laboratories is mostly based on the phenotypic characteristics of microbes. Preliminary procedures include simple tests i.e., isolation in pure forms, staining reactions, morphological features, culture characteristics, metabolism, biochemical tests and growth on different type of culture media etc.

ue part of their RNA or DNA providing definite informat
Molecular techniques have many advantages as comparable which are not so appropriate for identification of microbi
ia are generally identified through 18S rRNA and 16 Molecular techniques are the major reliable tools for identification of microorganisms. They are one of the most effective and fastest technologies for the identification of microbes in various types of habitats. Organisms are identified from some unique part of their RNA or DNA providing definite information regarding their diversity. Molecular techniques have many advantages as compared to traditional methods which are not so appropriate for identification of microbial diversity. Fungi and bacteria are generally identified through 18S rRNA and 16S rRNA sequencing techniques. The rRNA (rDNA) is the most conserved region in all types of microbe cells due to hyper variable region. It is extensively used to determine phylogeny (evolutionary relationships), and taxonomy that estimates the rate of divergence in species. Primers are designed to bind with the conserved region to amplify the variable region. These types of sequences are extensively used for the identification of large numbers of species. The sequences from tens of thousands of isolates are available on the NCBI (National Center for Biotechnology Information) web link. The NCBI also provides the search algorithms to compare new sequences with those already available on the data base.

2.1.7 Justification

Rapid rates of industrialization and increasing human populations are increasing the demands for the protection of the natural environment from over exploitation and contamination. In some parts of northern Pakistan, a lack of adequate measures to treat marble pollutants has strongly affected the surrounding ecosystems in the form of physical and chemical changes that in turn harm the natural ecosystems as well as local human inhabitants who depend on those systems. Pollution affects people, animals and plants directly in the form of diseases and indirectly in the form of food safety and or habitat destruction. Marble industries have a deleterious effect on the environment. In such situations there is a strong incentive for researchers to study the environmental issues arising from marble pollution, their impact on local flora, and to identify the different microbes associated with pollution.

2.1.8 Aims and objective

This chapter aims to find out the whole vegetation structure, composition, distribution pattern, dynamics and identification of micro fungi associated with the marble wastewater polluted ecosystem (MWPE) in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. The detailed research objectives are as follows:

- 1. To quantify phyto-sociological attributes through quantitative ecological techniques in the Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem (MWPE) Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.
- ques in the Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem

nkhwa, Pakistan.

plore the impact of Marble wastewater on plant spectrum

ution pattern, abundance and their indicators in various

cological modelling approaches.

late, chara 2. To explore the impact of Marble wastewater on plant species composition, distribution pattern, abundance and their indicators in various vegetation zones using ecological modelling approaches.
- 3. To isolate, characterize and identify micro fungi of the marble waste polluted ecosystem via biochemical tests, DNA based sequencing techniques and their phylogenetic relationship for possible future use.

24

2.2 Materials and Methods

Quadrat quantitative ecological techniques were used for the sampling of vegetation of Marble waste polluted ecosystem in the subtropical geographic zone, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. The detailed description of materials and methods are as follows:

2.2.1 Vegetation sampling

The research work was carried out around the areas affected by pollution produced by the Marble industries located in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan [\(Fig.](#page-47-0) [2.1;](#page-47-0) [Fig. 2.2;](#page-48-0)

A total of 327 stations/marble factories were randoml.

Quadrat quantitative ecological techniques were import of vegetation. A total of 981 quadrats were taken for the ach marble factory different sizes of quadrats i.e., [Fig. 2.3\)](#page-48-1). A total of 327 stations/marble factories were randomly selected during 2019-2020. Quadrat quantitative ecological techniques were implemented for the sampling of vegetation. A total of 981 quadrats were taken for the sampling of vegetation. At each marble factory different sizes of quadrats i.e., 100 m, 25 m and 1 m were taken for trees, shrubs and herbs vegetation, respectively. Phytosociological attributes i.e., cover, frequency, density, relative cover, relative frequency, relative density and importance value index, were measured for every plant species at each station. The cover and its relative values for tree species were calculated at the basal area of a stem through Diameter at Breast Height techniques. Basal area was calculated using formula = πr^2 (where r=radius) (Khan et al. 2014; [Khan et al. 2013c;](#page-320-5) Khan et al. 2017b).

All the reported plant species were collected, appropriately tagged, placed in a newspaper and pressed in a plant presser [\(Ali and Nasir 1990;](#page-311-2) [Ali and Qaiser 1995;](#page-311-3) [Khan et al. 2013b;](#page-320-6) [Khan et al. 2016\)](#page-320-7). The Mercuric chloride and Ethyl alcohol solutions were utilized to poison specimens and, after that mounted on standard herbarium sheets. At last, all the plant specimens were identified with the help of Flora of Pakistan and other expert taxonomists [\(Nasir et al. 1972\)](#page-324-2).

The geographical coordinates (longitude, latitude and elevation) for each subtropical station were recorded using GPS (Garmin etrex). A Geographical Information System (GIS) generated map was prepared for the sampling points using ArcGIS 10.5 software [\(Fu et al. 2013;](#page-316-2) [Khan et al. 2016\)](#page-320-7).

Fig. 2.1 Map of the study area showing the sampling points in subtropical zone of MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

Fig. 2.2 A glimpse of marble waste polluted ecosystem, KPK, Pakistan.

Fig. 2.3 The impact of Marble pollution on vegetation.

2.2.2 Physiological attributes

Vegetation data i.e. frequency, relative frequency, density, relative density, cover, relative cover and importance value index of each plant species in each quadrat were measured by using the following formulas:

2.2.2.1 Density

Density is the total numbers of individuals of a plant species in a sampled region. It was calculated according to [\(Khan 2012;](#page-320-2) [Oosting 1956\)](#page-325-4).

Density (D) $=\frac{T}{T}$ $\frac{1}{\pi}$ $\frac{1}{\pi}$

2.2.2.2 Relative density

Relative density is the % age distribution of an individual species in a sampled area.

Relative Density (RD) = $\frac{D}{A}$ Total density of all plant species $\dots \dots \dots (ii)$

2.2.2.3 Frequency

Total sampled/quadrat area

elative density

ensity is the % age distribution of an individual species in

nsity (RD) = $\frac{Density of individuals plant species in a quadrant species
\nfrequency
\nstage of number of a quadrats/sampled stations in which a
\nermed as frequency. It was calculated using the formula c
\nveta 2003).
\nF) =
$$
\frac{No. of quadrats in which a plant species present \times 100}{Total no. of quadrats taken}
$$$ The percentage of number of a quadrats/sampled stations in which a plant species is present is termed as frequency. It was calculated using the formula of [\(Cheevaporn](#page-314-1) and Menasveta 2003).

Frequency $(F) = \frac{No. of\ quadrats\ in\ which\ a\ plant\ species\ present\ \times 100}{Total\ no. of\ quadrats\ taken}$ (iii)

2.2.2.4 Relative frequency

Relative frequency is the percentage frequency an individual species of the total frequencies.

Relative Frequency (RF) = $\frac{Frequency\ of\ individual\ plant\ species}\times 100}{Total\ frequency\ of\ all\ plant\ species}$ (iv)

2.2.2.5 Cover

It is the basal area occupied by herb, shrub or tree.

Relative Frequency (RF) $=\frac{Total\ basal\ area\ of\ all\ individuals\ of\ a\ species}{Total\ quadrant/sampled\ area\ size}$ (v)

2.2.2.6 Relative cover

The percentage value obtained through division of total cover of an individual's plant species divided by total cover of all plant species is termed as relative cover.

Relative Cover (RC) =
$$
\frac{Cover\ of\ individual\ plant\ species} \times 100}{Total\ cover\ of\ all\ plant\ species} \dots \dots \dots (vi)
$$

2.2.2.7 Basal area

The diameter of tree species was measured at Breast Height (in inches) using measuring tape at height of 4.5 feet above the ground.

$$
CBH(cm) = CBH (inch) \times 2.54
$$

According to the formula, values are required in meter to measure the basal area. The below conversion has been followed.

$$
CBH(m) = \frac{CBH(cm)}{100}
$$

to the formula, values are required in meter to measure the version has been followed.
 $CBH(m) = \frac{CBH(cm)}{100}$

e radius, the value of r^2 was obtained by using the formul

mee given below.
 $C = 2\pi r$

alla was rearranged To find the radius, the value of \mathbf{r}' was obtained by using the formula of circumference given below.

 \overline{r}

$$
C=2\pi r
$$

This formula was rearranged as:

$$
=\frac{CBH(m)}{2\pi}
$$

For the calculation of the basal area radius is required in square (r^2) . The derivation of the r^2 is given as.

$$
r^2 = r \times r
$$

All the above-mentioned derivations was requisite for the below given formula of the basal area.

$$
Basalarea (BA) = \pi r^2
$$

2.2.2.8 Cover classes for herb and shrub species

The percentages of cover for herbs and shrubs were estimated and noted down in the field [\(Braun-Blanquet 1932\)](#page-313-1). Percentage cover range and cover classes are given in below [Table 2.1](#page-51-0) along with their mid points.

Cover range $(\%)$	Mid-point	Class
$>1\%$	0.5	$Class \infty$
$1-5\%$	3.0	Class 1
$6-25\%$	15.5	Class 2
$26 - 50 \%$	38.0	Class 3
51-75 %	63.0	Class 4
75-100 %	88.0	Class 5

Table 2.1 Braun Blanquet cover classes with their mid points for herb and shrub species*.*

2.2.2.9 Importance value index (IVI)

The IVI of each plant species at each station were calculated according to [\(Khan](#page-320-2) [2012\)](#page-320-2). The relative values of density, frequency and cover were added and then divided by 3. Mathematically it is given as:

Importance Value Index (IVI) = \boldsymbol{R} ()

2.2.3 Soil Data collection and Analysis

mportance value index (IVI)

each plant species at each station were calculated accord

relative values of density, frequency and cover were add

3. Mathematically it is given as:

ce Value Index (IVI) = $\frac{RD + RF + RC}{3}$... Soil samples were collected from all stations (in replicates) at a depth of 0.3m with a soil sampling instrument, put in polythene bags, labelled and dried at room temperature. The collected soil samples were analyzed for different physicochemical properties, including Electrical Conductivity (EC), pH, Total Dissolved Solids (TDS), Organic matter, CaCO₃, Potassium (K), Phosphorus (P), Manganese (Mn), Nickle (Ni), Cadmium (Cd), Chromium (Cr), Copper (Cu), Zinc (Zn), Iron (Fe), Magnesium (Mg) and Calcium (Ca). Soil EC, pH and TDS were determined following McLean methods [\(McLean 1982\)](#page-324-3). Ten grams of well sieved and air-dried soil were homogenized in 50mL distilled water through a magnetic stirrer for sixty minutes (1h.). The solution was filtered using filter paper. The EC, pH and TDS were

e of 150 °C for 1 hour and a final 235 °C until the red ft
and white fumes appear. The solution was filtered afte
per (Whatman No. 42) and 40 mL distilled water was
The blank reagents were also prepared. The at
tometer VA determined using EC (Adwa AD3000), pH (Russel RL060P) and TDS meters. Organic matter concentration was analyzed using the method of [\(Tfaily et al. 2017\)](#page-329-2). Whereas, CaCO₃ was determined in soil through the protocol [\(Chaney et al. 1982\)](#page-314-3). The concentration of the elements K, P, Mn, Ni, Cu, Cd, Fe, Cr, Zn, Mg and Ca was analyzed using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometry [\(Ahmad et al. 2019\)](#page-311-1). One gram of sieved and dried sample was taken in a 250 mL conical flask. Ten mL of Perchloric (HCLO₄) and Nitric acid (HNO₃) solution in a 1:3 ratio was added and placed for 24 hours. Soil samples were digested by placing on a hot plate at an initial temperature of 150 °C for 1 hour and a final 235 °C until the red fumes of nitric acid disappear and white fumes appear. The solution was filtered after cooling through filtered paper (Whatman No. 42) and 40 mL distilled water was added to raise its volume. The blank reagents were also prepared. The atomic absorption spectrophotometer VARIAN, AA240FS, was used for the aforementioned elemental analyses. The final elements concentration was obtained using the formula below: Element concentration(mg/kg) = AA reading - Blank reagents/sample weight (kg) \times volume raised \times df Where, AA= atomic absorption reading, df= dilution factor.

2.2.4 Climatic Data

The climatic data i.e., precipitation and temperature were obtained from the Metrological Department Government of Pakistan.

2.2.5 Statistical data Analyses

All the collected plant species, stations and environmental data of the marble waste polluted ecosystem were analyzed using different multivariate statistic software i.e., PC-ORD v.5, Canoco v 4.5, SPSS v.20, STATA v.14, and R v.4.0.2. Plant data along with environmental variables were arranged in Microsoft EXCEL work sheet for

further analyses. The detailed description of the subsequent analyses is provided below:

2.2.5.1 Species-area curves

PC-ORD version 5 was used to draw species area curves. This was performed to establish whether the sample sizes were adequate or not. Species area curves are mostly utilized in science of vegetation ecology to realize species composition in relation to sample size. Plant abundance data with Sorensen distance values were used to create species area curves at each subtropical zone of the marble waste polluted ecosystem.

2.2.5.2 Two-way Cluster Analysis

Wo-way Cluster Analysis
way Cluster Analysis of PCORD V5 was used to identify vertical process and distribution of plant species at inta. This was based on pattern similarity index through ent and Wards Linkage Method (Ahm The Two-way Cluster Analysis of PCORD V5 was used to identify significant subtropical vegetation zones and distribution of plant species at individual level in each quadrat. This was based on pattern similarity index through Sorenson distance measurement and Wards Linkage Method (Ahmad et al. 2016b; [Greig-Smith 1983;](#page-317-3) [Khan et al. 2016\)](#page-320-7).

2.2.5.3 Dominant and rare identification

The dominant and rare plant species of each habitat i.e., herb, shrub and tree species were identified based on higher and lower importance values index in the studied region as a whole and at zone level as well. Dominant and rare graphs or figures were drawn using R software.

2.2.5.4 Logit and Probit Model

The logit and probit model is also called the logistic and probabilistic model. It is used for the analysis of binary outcome variables. In this model we used non normal distribution of the probability in order to check why some of the plant species are abundant and some of them are rare in the MWEP. Hence, the binary outcome variables are abundant or rare. The explanatory variables included soil Electrical Conductivity (EC), pH, Total Dissolved Solids (TDS), Organic matter, $CaCO₃$, Potassium (K), Phosphorus (P), Manganese (Mn), Nickle (Ni), Cadmium (Cd), Chromium (Cr), Copper (Cu), Zinc (Zn), Iron (Fe), Magnesium (Mg), Calcium (Ca), temperature, precipitation and elevation. First, we hypothesized that there are overall factors influencing plant abundance of MWPE, KPK, Pakistan. The whole of the region was classified into three zones and each examined for the effect of explanatory variables on plant species abundance and rarity. Binary dependent variable i.e., abundant/dominant and rare was taken as 1,0. The simple linear regression in our case did not give an appropriate result. Therefore, we adopted a specification that was designed to handle the specific requirement of the binary dependent variable. The probability of the observed model is:

Probability (DR =
$$
1 | xi, \beta
$$
) = 1 - Y (-xi β)

Where, Y is a continuous variable and β is the coefficient of the explanatory variables. The DR = 1 represent the abundance of plants, while $DR = 0$ showed rarity of plants. For rare plants we used the following probability function:

Probability (DR= 0|x_i,
$$
\beta
$$
) = Y (-xi β)

To estimate the parameters of the model using the method of the probit and logit model we used the equation below:

$$
l(\beta) = DR \log (1 - Y (-xi \beta) + (1 - DR) \log (Y (-xi \beta))
$$

The following generalized model was used to establish the impact of soil (micro and macro elements), elevation and climate on plant abundance.

$$
DR_i^* = xi \beta + \mu i
$$

Probability (DR= 0|xi, β) = Y (-xi β)
te the parameters of the model using the method of th
used the equation below:
 $I(\beta) = DR \log (1 - Y (\text{-xi }\beta) + (1 - DR) \log (Y (\text{-xi }\beta))$
ving generalized model was used to establish the impact
nen Where DR dependent variable (dominant and rare plant) xi indicate the explanatory variables of the model β showed the coefficient of the explanatory variables and μ i is the unobserved error term of the model.

$$
DRi = \{1 \text{ if } DR > 0 \text{ and } 0 \text{ if } DR < 0
$$

2.2.5.5 Detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) and Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA)

The indirect and direct gradient analysis i.e., DCA CCA was performed using CANOCO software to examine the significant relationships among plant species, stations/quadrats and environmental variables at each sort of subtropical MWPE. CCA analyzes plant relationships by multiple linear regression with environmental gradients and gives us an interpretable graphical presentation of species responses to environmental variables [\(Dufrêne and Legendre 1997;](#page-315-4) [Ter Braak and Prentice 1988\)](#page-329-3).

2.2.6 Isolation of Micro Fungi

Fungal populations in soil and wastewater of marble was isolated following the Harley and Prescott methods [\(Prescott et al. 1993\)](#page-326-3). One hundred microliters sample solution was taken directly for fungal growth rather than making serial dilutions. Malt Extract Agar Media was prepared, autoclaved at 121˚C and cooled to around 50 ˚C [\(Table 2.2\)](#page-55-0) [\(Ottow and Glathe 1968\)](#page-325-5). In a Laminar Flow Hood, 20 ml of the agar media was poured into labelled petri dishes to prepare agar plates for fungal growth. 100 µl solutions were taken from each sample through a pipette and smeared on the surface of the agar plates. The petri plates were wrapped in clingfilm [\(Wiegand et al.](#page-331-4) [2008\)](#page-331-4) and were kept at 28 ˚C for 48 -72 hours. Fungal colonies were formed after the incubation process. Isolation of pure fungal strains was done using hyphal tip isolation techniques.

incubation process. Isolation of pure fungal strains was done using hyphal tip					
isolation techniques.					
Table 2.2 Composition of Malt extract agar media (mass/volume) for fungal growth.					
S.NO.	Ingredients of Malt extract agar (for Fungi)				
	Peptone 6gm				
$\overline{2}$	Malt extract				
		20gm			
3	Agar	15gm			
$\overline{4}$	Dextrose	20gm			
5	pH	5.5			
227	Morphological identification of fungus culture				

Table 2.2 Composition of Malt extract agar media (mass/volume) for fungal growth.

2.2.7 Morphological identification of fungus culture

Shape, structure and type of each colony in terms of colony appearance and spore color were analyzed through observation. Lactophenol Cotton Blue staining procedure was carried out for further morphological identification. In the center of a clean microscopic glass slide a drop of Lactophenol Cotton Blue was stained and subsequently 2- 3 mm of fungal colony was taken via an inoculating loop, placed in the center of a slide and covered with a clean cover slip. All the 15 prepared slides were observed under 10X, 40X and 100X microscope lenses. Immersion oil was used for clear observation of microscopic characteristics under 100X lens. Color reactions of fungi tissues were noted with the help of Melzer's reagents, lactic acid and 5- 10 % (w/v) KOH. The hyphae length and width of fungi were measured in micrometers (µm) using Piximeter software.

2.2.8 Molecular analyses of fungi

2.2.8.1 DNA Extraction

DNA extraction is an essential requirement of all molecular analyses and recombinant DNA manipulation. Fungal fresh cultures were grown for DNA extraction. DNA of selected fungal samples was extracted using the following standard protocol.

- 1. Three to 5 mg sample of each fungal strain was taken in Eppendorf tube, vortexed and centrifuged at 10000 rpm for 2 min at 4 ˚C.
- samples were ground in chilled condition in the solution
B buffer.
to six beads of glass were added in Eppendorf tube and th
300 μ l 10% (w/v) SDS was added into each Eppendorf t
5 minutes at 65 °C in a water bath.
ne s 2. The samples were ground in chilled condition in the solution of 2 to 3 ml of CTAB buffer.
- 3. Five to six beads of glass were added in Eppendorf tube and then vortexed.
- 4. Then 300 µl 10% (w/v) SDS was added into each Eppendorf tube and incubated for 45 minutes at 65 ˚C in a water bath.
- 5. All the samples were centrifuged for 15 to 20 min at 10000 rpm at 4 ˚C.
- 6. The supernatant was taken out and 500 µl (3ml) of sodium acetate was added to it and incubated at -20 ˚C for 20 min.
- 7. All the samples were again centrifuged for 5-6 min at 10000 rpm at 4˚C.
- 8. The supernatant was taken again into a fresh eppendorf tube, added to 500 µl of Isopropanol and incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes.
- 9. Moreover, samples were centrifuged for 10 minutes at 10000 rpm and supernatants were transferred into a new fresh Eppendorf tube.
- 10. The pellets obtained were washed with 70 % (v/v) ethanol for 2 minutes at 10000 rpm at 4 ˚C.
- 11. Ethanol layer was removed and 50 µl T.E. buffer was added and the sample was stored at -20 ˚C in the freezer.
- 12. DNA was run on one percent (w/v) agarose gel for confirmation through Gel electrophoresis.

2.2.8.2 DNA Sequencing

Determination of precise nucleotides sequences in a sample of DNA is termed as DNA sequencing. Nuclear ribosomal Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) was amplified using ITS1-F and ITS4-R universal primers [\(Dentinger et al. 2010;](#page-315-5) [White et al. 1990\)](#page-331-5). ExoSAP-IT® was used to purify PCR products. BigDye® Terminator V 3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit combined with primers in 10 μ L reactions to performed dyeterminated unidirectional sequencing. Ethanol precipitation was used to clean sequencing reaction following the manufacturer's instructions, again suspended in 30 µL distilled water and run on ABI 3730 DNA sequencer in the Bejing Genomics Institute (BGI) Shenzen, China [\(Dentinger et al. 2010\)](#page-315-5).

2.2.8.3 Computational editing of sequences & BLAST Analysis of ITS sequences

match sequences. ITS sequences were matched/eom
rvice of National Center for Biotechnology Information
on. BioEdit software was used to edit and prepare th
nd this was aligned through other sequences present in Ge
Tool. Al Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) is a web-based program. It aligns the search of thousands of different types of sequences in the database to show homology with top match sequences. ITS sequences were matched/ compared via BLAST network service of National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) to confirm identification. BioEdit software was used to edit and prepare the sequence where required and this was aligned through other sequences present in GenBnak via Muscle Alignment Tool. All the characters were simiarly weighted and gap positions were treated as missing data in aligned sequences.

2.2.8.4 Phylogenetic Analysis

Phylogenetic trees of each fungal species sequences were made separately. The Maximum Likelihood (ML) analysis was carried out via Molecular Evolutionary Genetic Analysis (MEGA 7) through default setting program like Jukes-Cantor Model and for ML Hauristic Nearest Neighbor Interchange (NNI) method [\(Tamura et al.](#page-329-4) [2011\)](#page-329-4). One hundred bootstrapping replicates were performed for the analysis. The phylogenetic position of some selected fungi species were confirmed by making Maximum Parsimony Trees with bootstrapping.

A total of 220 plant species belonging to 164 genera and 65 different plant families were recorded around marble factories of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. The detailed description and zone wise composition and distribution pattern are discussed step wise below:

2.3.1 Plant species composition

Habitat wise, the recorded plant species comprised of 145 herbs (65.9% of the total vegetation), 24 shrubs (10.9%) and 51 trees (23.18%) [\(](#page-58-0)

able 2.3). Family Poaceae was the leading family cover
ation followed by Asteraceae (7.27 %), Fabaceae (5 %
eae and Rosaceae (each with 4.55 % share), Solar
(3.64 %) and Brassicaceae (3.18 %) share. Euphorbia
companied by [Fig. 2.4;](#page-58-0) Table 2.3). Family Poaceae was the leading family covering 12.7 % of the total vegetation followed by Asteraceae (7.27 %), Fabaceae (5 %), Amaranthaceae, Polygonaceae and Rosaceae (each with 4.55 % share), Solanaceae (4.09 %), Moraceae (3.64 %) and Brassicaceae (3.18 %) share. Euphorbiaceae has 2.73 % share, accompanied by Cucurbitaceae, Myrtaceae, Nyctaginaceae, Pteridaceae, Rutaceae and Verbenaceae each with 2.27 % share. The remaining plant families shared less than 2 % each of the total vegetation around Marble factories (Appendix Table 1).

Fig. 2.4 Percentage distribution of herbs, shrubs and trees around marble factories of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

Table 2.3 Detail of plant species along with their habit, family, life and leaf forms reported from the Subtropical zones around marble factories of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

2.3.2 Abundant and rare plants of the MWPE

The abundant and rare plant species were identified based on the importance value index. Their detailed descriptions are as follows:

2.3.2.1 Abundant and rare trees layer

The dominant or abundant tree species based on higher importance value index (IVI) were *Ficus carica*, *Morus alba* (2441 IVI), *Morus nigra* (1699 IVI), *Ailanthus altissima* (1655 IVI)*, Populus alba* (1647 IVI)*, Broussonetia papyrifera* (1624 IVI)*, Eucalyptus globulus* (1308 IVI)*, Dalbergia sissoo* (970 IVI)*, Azadirachta indica* (898 IVI) and *Salix tetrasperma* (724 IVI) [\(Fig. 2.5;](#page-65-0) Appendix table 2). Whereas, the top ten rarest tree species were *Pyrus communis* (6.78 IVI) followed by *Cupressus sempervirens* and *Araucaria heterophylla* (8.46 IVI each), *Litchi chinensis* (12.22 IVI), *Juglans regia* (13.09 IVI), *Citrus limon* (16.67 IVI), *Sapium sebiferum* (17.42 IVI), *Ficus macrophylla* (17.56 IVI), *Ficus benjamina* (27.5 IVI) and *Citrus reticulata* (56 IVI) in the subtropical marble waste polluted ecosystem of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan (Fig. 2.6; Appendix table 2).

Fig. 2.5 The topmost abundant tree species in the subtropical Marble waste polluted ecosystem, KPK, Pakistan.

Fig. 2.6 Rare plant species of the MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

2.3.2.2 Abundant and rare shrubs layer

The plant species of the MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.
 bundant and rare shrubs layer

ost abundant shrub species was *Calotropis procera* (1799

oxia (1050 IVI), *Ricinus communis* (797 IVI), *Withar*

ana camara (444 IVI), Zizi The foremost abundant shrub species was *Calotropis procera* (1799 IVI), followed by *Datura innoxia* (1050 IVI), *Ricinus communis* (797 IVI), *Withania somnifera* (781 IVI), *Lantana camara* (444 IVI), *Ziziphus nummularia* (392 IVI), *Rosa indica* (382 IVI), *Senna occidentalis* (332 IVI), *Dodonaea viscosa* (320 IVI) and *Vitis vinifera* (317 IVI) in the subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan (Fig. 2.7; Appendix table 2). At the same time, *Rumex hastatus*, *Combretum indicum* (13.88 IVI), *Bougainvillea spectabilis* (17.78 IVI), *Duranta stenostachya* (22.72 IVI), *Datura metel* (33.34), *Nannorrhops ritchieana*, *Indigofera heterantha*, *Duranta erecta*, *Debregeasia saeneb* (each with 66.67 IVI) and *Parthenocissus inserta* (120.74 IVI) were recorded as the rarist shrub species of the MWPE [\(Fig. 2.8;](#page-67-1) Appendix table 2).

Fig. 2.7 The foremost abundant shrub species of the MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

Fig. 2.8 The rare shrub species with minimum IVI in the subtropical MWPE.

2.3.2.3 Abundant and rare herbs layer

The top ten most abundant herb species were *Cynodon dactylon* (2982 IVI), *Parthenium hysterophorus* (1122 IVI), *Erigeron canadensis* (993 IVI), *Arundo donax* (795 IVI), *Adiantum capillus-veneris* (739 IVI), *Cannabis sativa* (664 IVI), *Xanthium strumarium* (633 IVI), *Taraxacum officinale* (627 IVI), *Amaranthus viridis* (621 IVI) and *Eleusine indica* (619 IVI) [\(Fig. 2.9;](#page-68-0) Appendix table 2). Though, *Bidens bipinnata* and *Pteris cretica* (3.67 IVI each) were the rare herb species accompanied by *Aloe vera* (4.18 IVI), *Dichanthium annulatum* (4.53 IVI), *Capsella* *bursa-pastoris* (5.04), *Malva sylvestris* (5.09 IVI), *Aerva javanica* (5.27 IVI), *Brassica campestris* (5.45 IVI), *Artemisia scoparia* (5.78 IVI) and *Sisymbrium irio* (6 IVI) in the MWPE of the region [\(Fig. 2.10;](#page-68-1) Appendix table 2).

Fig. 2.9 The top ten most abundant herb species reported from subtropical MWPE

Fig. 2.10 Rare herb species with minimum IVI in the studied MWPE.

2.3.3 Impact of environmental variables on abundant and rare plants through Ordinary Least Square, Logistic and Probabilistic Models

The Ordinary Least Square (OLS), logistic and probabilistic models were used to determine the impact of environmental variables on binary/dependent variables. The coefficient of IVI has a positive and significant impact on plant abundance and rarity. The TDS (>0.002), Ni (>0.07), Cr (>0.02), P (>0.02) and precipitation (>0.001) had a positive and significant impact on the abundant and rare plant species of the MWPE. Whereas, the major composition of MWPE possesses $CaCO₃$, which has a negative significant effect (-20.042) on plant abundance and rarity in the region. The detailed description of OLS, logistic and probabilistic models for each measured variables are given in table 2.3.4. Our model is best fit based on R^2 (0.67), Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) (510), Chi-square (20.29) and Probability values (0.0001) [\(Table 2.4\)](#page-69-0).

	given in table 2.3.4. Our model is best fit based on R^2 (0.67), Akaike Information							
Criteria (AIC) (510), Chi-square (20.29) and Probability values (0.0001) (Table 2.4).								
				Table 2.4 Summary of Ordinary Least Square, logistic and probabilistic models of the				
				abundant and rare plant species of the MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.				
Variables	OLS	Logit	Probit	Variables	OLS	Logit	Probit	
	0.0001	0.022	0.011		0.001	0.005	0.001	
IVI	(-0.00001)	(-0.002)	(-0.001)	Cd	(-0.001)	(-0.014)	(-0.008)	
	-0.014	-0.218	-0.209		-0.00003	0.002	0.001	
pH	(-0.017)	(-0.37)	(-0.199)	Zn	(-0.0002)	(-0.004)	(-0.002)	
	-0.00002	-0.001	-0.0003		0.00001	-0.001	-0.001	
EC	(-0.00002)	(-0.001)	(-0.0004)	Fe	(-0.0001)	(-0.002)	(-0.001)	
	0.0001	0.002	0.001		0.00001	-0.002	-0.001	
TDS	(-0.00002)	(-0.001)	(-0.0004)	K	(-0.0001)	(-0.001)	(-0.001)	
	0.035	0.472	-0.007		0.012	0.020	0.029	
OM	(-0.071)	(-1.377)	(-0.751)	${\bf P}$	(-0.006)	(-0.121)	(-0.065)	
	-0.002	-0.072	-0.042		0.00005	0.0001	0.0002	
CaCO ₃	(-0.002)	(-0.039)	(-0.021)	Ca	(-0.00004)	(-0.001)	(-0.001)	
	0.005	0.071	0.041		0.00001	-0.001	-0.001	
Ni	(-0.001)	(-0.025)	(-0.013)	Mg	(-0.00005)	(-0.001)	(-0.001)	

Table 2.4 Summary of Ordinary Least Square, logistic and probabilistic models of the abundant and rare plant species of the MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

	0.0002	0.022	0.012		0.002	0.027	0.02
Cr	(-0.001)	(-0.011)	(-0.006)	Temp	(-0.001)	(-0.028)	(-0.015)
	-0.001	-0.004	-0.001		0.001	0.003	0.002
Cu	(-0.001)	(-0.011)	(-0.006)	Precipitation	(-0.0003)	(-0.005)	(-0.003)
	0.0001	0.003	0.001		0.598	-3.563	-1.17
Mn	(-0.0003)	(-0.006)	(-0.003)	Constant	(-0.172)	(-3.679)	(-1.97)

 R^2 = 0.678, F-statistics/Chi-square = 20.429, AIC (510.569; 528.386)

2.3.4 Vegetation classification of Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem

chical Two-way Cluster Analysis (TWCA) using Ward
g increases in the squares' error sum) and Sorenson dis
lassified all the stations and plants into three major subt
Humid, Semi Humid and Dry subtropical in the Mark
It fur The hierarchical Two-way Cluster Analysis (TWCA) using Ward Method (based on minimizing increases in the squares' error sum) and Sorenson distance of PC-ORD software classified all the stations and plants into three major subtropical vegetation zones i.e., Humid, Semi Humid and Dry subtropical in the Marble waste polluted ecosystem. It further comprehended each plant species' distribution at a particular station and even quadrat level in different subtropical regions (Fig. 2.11).

Fig. 2.11 The TWCA dendrogram comprehended the distribution of 220 plant species in the studied subtropical MWPE using Sorenson Distance Measurements with the Ward Linkage method (with narrow single-spaced width).

The detailed description of each subtropical vegetation zone of MWPE, their distinctive abundant/dominant and rare plant species are as follows:
2.3.4.1 Humid Subtropical Vegetation Zone of MWPE

This humid zone of MWPE is comprised of 66 stations encompassing 124 different plant species belonging to 47 families with an altitude range from 497.73-1213 m. Of which herb species were 80 (64.51% of the total humid vegetation), 13 shrubs (10.48%) and 31 tree species (25%). Family Poaceae was the leading family covering 11.47 % (14 species) of the total vegetation in the Humid subtropical marble waste polluted ecosystem. It was followed by Asteraceae (9 species; 7.37 %), Solanaceae (7 species; 5.73 %), Polygonaceae (6 species; 4.91 %), Amaranthaceae, Brassicaceae, Fabaceae and Rosaceae (each with 4 species & 4.09 % share). The Cucurbitaceae, Lamiaceae, Malvaceae, Moraceae and Myrtaceae each have 4 plant species (3.27 % each) followed by Euphorbiaceae and Pteridaceae each with 3 plant species (2.45 %). The remaining plant families shared less than 2 % each of the total vegetation, at this humid subtropical region around Marble factories (Appendix table 3). TWCA of humid subtropical MWPE were carried out using PC-ORD software. It further comprehends distribution of each plant species in the studied stations or quadrats [\(Fig. 2.12\)](#page-72-0).

Fig. 2.12 TWCA dendrogram of 124 plant species and 66 stations/quadrats in the humid subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

2.3.4.1.1 Abundant and rare plant species of the Humid subtropical MWPE Tree layer:

The dominant or abundant tree species based on higher importance value index (IVI) in the humid subtropical MWPE was *Ficus carica* (840 IVI) followed by *Ailanthus altissima* (529 IVI), *Morus alba* (349 IVI), *Morus nigra* (305 IVI), *Salix tetrasperma* (280 IVI), *Populus alba* (263 IVI), *Diospyros lotus* (262 IVI), *Azadirachta indica* (202 IVI), *Dalbergia sissoo* (152 IVI) and *Broussonetia papyrifera* (238 IVI) [\(Fig. 2.13\)](#page-73-0). Whereas, the top ten rare tree species were *Callistemon lanceolatus* (8.9 IVI) followed by *Psidium guajava* (11.42 IVI), *Juglans regia* (13.09 IVI), *Citrus medica* (13.33 IVI), *Sapium sebiferum* (17.42 IVI), *Acacia modesta* (17.85 IVI), *Pinus wallichiana* (17.97 IVI), *Syzygium cumini* (20.95 IVI), *Prunus persica* (22.23 IVI) and *Citrus aurantium* (22.61 IVI) in the humid MWPE (Fig. 2.14).

Fig. 2.13 The topmost abundant tree species in the Humid subtropical Marble waste polluted ecosystem, KPK, Pakistan.

Shrub layer:

Rare tree species based on minimum IVI in the Humid sub

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In the same time, Parthenocissus inserta (33.34 IVI), Vitis vie

The same t The foremost abundant shrub species were *Catharanthus roseus* (176 IVI), followed by *Rosa indica* and *Ziziphus nummularia* with 133 and 132 IVI in the region [\(Fig.](#page-74-1) [2.15\)](#page-74-1). At the same time, *Parthenocissus inserta* (33.34 IVI), *Vitis vinifera* (56.67 IVI), *Withania somnifera, Senna occidentalis* and *Ricinus communis* (each with 66.67 IVI) were the rare shrub species of Humid MWPE (Fig. 2.16).

Fig. 2.15 The most abundant shrub species with higher IVI in the Humid subtropical MWPE.

Fig. 2.16 The rare shrub species with minimum IVI in the studied region.

Herb layer:

The rare shrub species with minimum IVI in the studied re

The rare shrub species were Cynodon dactylon (500 I

The randensis (271 IVI), *Taraxacum officinale* (240

237 IVI), *Eleusine indica* (223 IVI), *Cannabis s*

203 The topmost abundant herb species were *Cynodon dactylon* (500 IVI), accompanied by *Erigeron canadensis* (271 IVI), *Taraxacum officinale* (240 IVI), *Amaranthus viridis* (237 IVI), *Eleusine indica* (223 IVI), *Cannabis sativa* (207 IVI), *Cyperus rotundus* (203 IVI), *Parthenium hysterophorus* (156 IVI), *Arundo donax* (144 IVI) and *Brachiaria ramosa* (142 IVI) in the humid subtropical MWPE (Fig. 2.17). While *Euphorbia hirta* (3.81 IVI), *Cucurbita maxima* (3.95)*, Cynoglossum lanceolatum* (3.98 IVI), *Verbena officinalis & Capsicum annuum* (each with 4.14 IVI), *Solanum surattense* (4.24 IVI), *Zea mays* (4.52 IVI), *Physalis divaricata* (4.60 IVI), *Malva sylvestris* (5.09 IVI) and *Rumex dentatus* (5.31 IVI) were recorded as rare herb species of Humid subtropical MWPE [\(Fig.](#page-76-1) [2.18\)](#page-76-1).

Fig. 2.17 The topmost abundant herb species of Humid MWPE.

Fig. 2.18 The rare herb species of Humid MWPE.

2.3.4.1.2 Impact of measured variables on abundant and rare plants through OLS, Logistic and Probabilistic Models in Humid subtropical vegetation zone

The explanatory variables that showed significant positive effect on abundance and rare plant species of Humid subtropical MWPE were IVI $($ <0.039 $)$, EC (0.008) , Cr (0.003), Zn (0.001), K (0.002) and precipitation (<0.24). While CaCO₃ (-0.240) and Ca (<-0.006) have negative and significant effect on plant species abundance and rarity in the humid subtropical MWPE. Our models are perfect fits based on AIC (122), R^2 (0.59), Chi- square (5.84) and probability (0.001) values [\(Table 2.5\)](#page-77-0).

Variables	OLS	Logit	Probit	Variables	OLS	Logit	Probit
	0.0001	0.039	0.018		0.001	-0.254	-0.076
IVI	(-0.00002)	(-0.008)	(-0.003)	Cd	(-0.013)	(-0.417)	(-0.197)
	-0.058	-0.41	-0.419		0.001	0.022	0.009
pH	(-0.045)	(-1.505)	(-0.793)	Zn	(-0.001)	(-0.016)	(-0.008)
	0.0001	0.008	0.004		0.0003	-0.017	-0.007
EC	(-0.00003)	(-0.005)	(-0.002)	Fe	(-0.0005)	(-0.017)	(-0.008)
	0.0002	0.004	0.002		0.0002	0.006	0.003
TDS	(-0.0001)	(-0.005)	(-0.003)	K	(-0.0001)	(-0.005)	(-0.002)
	-0.23	-0.209	0.5		0.01	-0.296	-0.139
OM	(-0.177)	(-3.509)	(-1.932)	$\mathbf P$	(-0.015)	(-0.381)	(-0.198)
	0.001	-0.240	-0.104		0.0002	-0.011	-0.006
CaCO ₃	(-0.004)	(-0.139)	(-0.065)	Ca	(-0.0002)	(-0.006)	(-0.003)
	0.013	$0.311 -$	0.134		0.0001	0.007	0.003
Ni	(-0.005)	(-0.198)	(-0.093)	Mg	(-0.0002)	(-0.006)	(-0.003)
	0.003	$0.032 -$	0.008		-0.004	0.002	0.0002
Cr	(-0.002)	(-0.054)	(-0.028)	Temp	(-0.005)	(-0.122)	(-0.064)
	-0.0003	0.023	0.015		0.039	0.008	0.240
Cu	(-0.001)	(-0.036)	(-0.017)	Precipitation	(-0.008)	(-0.001)	(-0.002)
	-0.0001	-0.026	-0.011		0.792	5.938	2.465
Mn	(-0.001)	(-0.022)	(-0.01)	Constant	(-0.918)	(-26.94)	(-13.414)

Table 2.5 Summary of Ordinary Least Square, logistic and probabilistic models of the abundant and rare plant species of the Humid zone of MWPE.

 $R^2 = 0.590$, F-statistics/Chi-square = 5.854, AIC= 122.303; 128.437

2.3.4.1.3 Ecological gradient through Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA) of Humid subtropical MWPE

Detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) was performed to examine the distribution pattern of 124 plants and 66 stations along the axes of Detrended gradient analysis [\(Fig. 2.19;](#page-79-0) [Fig. 2.20\)](#page-80-0). The maximum gradient length was recorded for axis 1 i.e., 8.43 with eigenvalue 0.787, followed by axes 2, 4 and 3 with eigenvalues 0.631, 0.490 and 0.438, respectively. The cumulative percentage variance of species data was observed maximum by axis 4 i.e., 15.5 accompanied by axes 3, 2 and 1 with 12.6, 9.3 and 5.2, correspondingly. While the sum of all eigenvalues or total inertia was recorded as 15.173 [\(Table 2.6\)](#page-78-0).

Fig. 2.19 DCA showing the distribution of 124 plant species in the humid zone of MWPE.

Fig. 2.20 DCA showing the distribution of 66 stations/quadrats in the humid zone of MWPE.

2.3.4.1.4 Ecological gradient through Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) of Humid subtropical MWPE

The ordination of plant species through CCA biplot shows differential and similarity indexes in plant species and the distance between them. The results indicate that all the measured environmental variables i.e., elevation, soil pH, electrical conductivity (EC), total dissolved solids (TDS), organic matter (OM), calcium carbonate (CaCO₃), nickel (Ni), chromium (Cr), copper (CU), manganese (Mn), cadmium (Cd), zinc (Zn), iron (Fe), potassium (K), phosphorus (P), magnesium (Mg), calcium (Ca), temperature (Temp) and precipitation have a significant effect (probability=0.0015) on plant species composition and distribution in humid subtropical MWPE [\(Table](#page-81-0) [2.7\)](#page-81-0). The 1st quadrant of CCA bi-plot clustered *Achyranthes aspera*, *Withania somnifera*, *Malva sylvestris*, *Punica granatum*, *Euphorbia hirta*, *Datura innoxia*, *Dalbergia sissoo, Acacia modesta, Calotropis procera,*

Solanum surattense etc. under the influence of higher temperature, CaCO₃ and lower precipitation, TDS, nickel, iron, magnesium, electrical conductivity, chromium, manganese, copper and potassium.

The 2nd quadrant comprehended the distribution of *Pinus wallichiana, Juncus maritimus*, *Taraxacum officinale*, *Medicago polymorpha*, *Rumex nepalensis*, *Adiantum capillus-veneris*, *Adiantum venustum*, *Parthenocissus inserta* and *Diospyros lotus* etc. under the consequence of higher elevation, cadmium, soil pH and less concentration of phosphorus, organic matter and zinc.

The 3rd quadrant indicated *Arundo donax*, *Equisetum arvense*, *Setaria viridis*, *Persicaria barbata*, *Morus alba*, *Epipremnum aureum, Brassica nigra*, *Artemisia vulgaris*, *Jasminum sambac* and *Rumex dentatus* under effect of higher precipitation, nickel, TDS, iron, magnesium, chromium, electrical conductivity, potassium, copper and lower amount of CaCO3.

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nudrant of CCA bi-plot distributed *Populus alba*, A
nudrant The 4th quadrant of CCA bi-plot distributed *Populus alba*, *Ailanthus altissima*, *Digitaria ciliaris*, *Parthenium hysterophorus*, *Amaranthus viridis*, *Malvastrum coromandelianum*, *Eleusine indica*, *Polygonum plebeium*, *Helianthus annuus* and *Senna occidentalis* under the influence of higher phosphorus, organic matter, zinc and lower soil pH and cadmium concentration (Fig. 2.21; Fig. 2.22 [Table 2.7\)](#page-81-0).

Table 2.7 Summary of ecological gradient through CCA along with Monte Carlo test in the Humid subtropical MWPE.

Fig. 2.21 CCA biplot representing the distribution of plant species in relation of measure environmental factors.

Fig. 2.22 CCA biplot of all the station in conjunction with explanatory variables in the humid subtropical MWPE.

2.3.4.2 Semi-Humid Subtropical Vegetation Zone (SHSVZ)

This semi-humid subtropical zone of MWPE encompassed 138 stations along with 159 different types of plant species belonging to 51 families. This zone lies between 275-920 m altitude. Herbs were the topmost habit with 107 species (67.29% of the total semi-humid subtropical vegetation) followed by 37 trees (23.27%) and 15 shrubs (9.43%). The family Poaceae was the leading with 24 plant species (15.09 %) followed by Asteraceae (11 species; 6.91 %), Fabaceae & Rosaceae (each with 9 species; 5.66 %), Amaranthaceae & Polygonaceae (each 8 species; 5.03 %), Solanaceae (7 species; 4.40%), Moraceae (6 species; 3.77 %), Euphorbiaceae,

Myrtaceae & Pteridaceae (each with 5 species; 3.14 %), Brassicaceae, Cucurbitaceae, Lamiaceae, Salicaceae, Verbenaceae and Vitaceae (3 species; 1.88 % each). Whilst the remaining plant families have less than 3 plant species and percentage (Appendix Table 3). The Two-way Cluster Analysis semi-humid subtropical MWPE further showed the distribution of 159 plant species in the 138 studied stations or quadrats [\(Fig. 2.23\)](#page-84-0).

Fig. 2.23 TWCA dendrogram of 159 plant species and 138 stations/quadrats in the semi-humid subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

2.3.4.2.1 Abundant and rare plant species of the Semi-humid subtropical MWPE Tree Layer:

Among the tree layer *Ficus carica* (1057 IVI) was the topmost dominant tree species based on IVI followed by *Ailanthus altissima* (831 IVI), *Eucalyptus globulus* (793 IVI), *Populus alba* (792 IVI), *Broussonetia papyrifera* (768 IVI), *Morus nigra* (768 IVI), *Morus alba* (545 IVI), *Azadirachta indica* (388 IVI), *Dalbergia sissoo* (261 IVI) and *Albizia lebbeck* (256 IVI) [\(Fig. 2.24\)](#page-85-0). At the same time, *Pyrus communis* (6 IVI) was illustrated as rare tree species followed by *Pinus wallichiana* (8.33 IVI), *Diospyros lotus* (8.88 IVI), *Robinia pseudoacacia* (10.89 IVI), *Prunus domestica* (13.33), *Citrus medica* (13.33 IVI), *Ficus macrophylla* (17.56 IVI), *Punica granatum* (17.78 IVI), *Prunus armeniaca* (17.89 IVI) and *Syzygium cumini* (26 IVI) in the region (Fig. 2.25).

Fig. 2.24 The most abundant tree species with higher IVI in the Semi-humid subtropical MWPE.

Fig. 2.25 Rare tree species with minimum IVI in the Semi-humid MWPE

Shrub Layer:

Xare tree species with minimum IVI in the Semi-humid M

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procera (1005 IVI) was the foremost shrub species

loxia (750 IVI), Senna occidentalis (266 IVI), Vitis vinij

viana (193 IVI) (Fig. 2.26). However, Rosa indica *Calotropis procera* (1005 IVI) was the foremost shrub species accompanied by *Datura innoxia* (750 IVI), *Senna occidentalis* (266 IVI), *Vitis vinifera* (261 IVI) and *Rosa webbiana* (193 IVI) (Fig. 2.26). However, *Rosa indica* (16.67 IVI), *Duranta stenostachya* (22.72 IVI), *Ziziphus nummularia* (33.33 IVI), *Withania somnifera* (38.89 IVI) and *Catharanthus roseus* (61.48 IVI) were the rare shrub species in semi humid subtropical MWPE (Fig. 2.27).

Fig. 2.26 The foremost abundant shrub species of the Semi-humid MWPE.

Fig. 2.27 Topmost rare shrubs of the semi-humid MWPE

Herb Layer:

Copmost rare shrubs of the semi-humid MWPE

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ceous layer was dominated by Cynodon daetylon (1129

anadensis (546 IVI), Persicaria glabra (417 IVI), A

407 IVI), Cannabis sativa (357 IVI), Eleusine inc

n hysterophorus (The herbaceous layer was dominated by *Cynodon dactylon* (1129 IVI) followed by *Erigeron canadensis* (546 IVI), *Persicaria glabra* (417 IVI), *Adiantum capillusveneris* (407 IVI), *Cannabis sativa* (357 IVI), *Eleusine indica* (341 IVI), *Parthenium hysterophorus* (336 IVI), *Amaranthus viridis* (283 IVI), *Taraxacum officinale* (279 IVI) and *Chenopodium album* (258 IVI) [\(Fig. 2.28\)](#page-88-0). While *Commelina benghalensis* (3.22 IVI), *Bidens bipinnata* (3.67 IVI), *Pteris cretica* (3.67 IVI), *Aerva javanica* (4.18 IVI), *Capsella bursa-pastoris* (5.04 IVI), *Verbascum Thapsus* (5.44 IVI), *Brassica campestris* (5.45 IVI), *Sorghum bicolor* (6.09 IVI), *Aristida adscensionis* (6.09 IVI) and *Chenopodium murale* (6.53 IVI) were the top ten rare species in this region (Fig. [2.29\)](#page-88-1).

Fig. 2.28 The top ten abundant herb species based on IVI in the region.

Fig. 2.29 The top ten rare herb species in the semi humid MWPE.

2.3.4.2.2 Results of Ordinary Least Square, Logistic and Probabilistic Models of Semi-Humid subtropical vegetation zone

Based on OLS, logistic and probabilistic models, the IVI (<0.023), EC (<0.0004), CaCO₃ (<0.045), Ni (<0.002), Cr (<0.41), Cu (<0.017), Mn (<0.004), Cd (<-0.012), Zn (<0.006), Fe (<0.0001), K (<0.0001), Ca (<0.00001), Mg (<-0.00001), temperature (≤ 0.041) and precipitation (0.009) have significant effect on the occurrence of abundant and rare plants of semi humid subtropical vegetation. The AIC, R^2 , Chisquare and probability values were recorded as 253, 0.720, 9.261 and 0.001, respectively [\(Table 2.8\)](#page-89-0).

Variables	OLS	Logit	Probit	Variables	OLS	Logit	Probit
	0.0001	0.023	0.012		-0.001	-0.012	-0.002
IVI	(-0.00001)	(-0.003)	(-0.001)	Cd	(-0.001)	(-0.029)	(-0.015)
	0.049	-0.552	-0.386		-0.0002	0.006	0.002
pH	(-0.03)	(-0.629)	(-0.333)	Zn	(-0.0005)	(-0.009)	(-0.005)
	-0.0001	0.0004	0.0001		0.0001	-0.008	-0.005
EC	(-0.0001)	(-0.001)	(-0.001)	Fe	(-0.0003)	(-0.005)	(-0.003)
	0.0001	0.0004	0.0004		0.0001	-0.005	-0.002
TDS	(-0.00004)	(-0.001)	(-0.0005)	K	(-0.0001)	(-0.003)	(-0.002)
	-0.138	-0.205	-0.358		0.007	0.116	0.088
OM	(-0.115)	(-2.274)	(-1.223)	\overline{P}	(-0.01)	(-0.193)	(-0.105)
	-0.0004	0.045	0.025		0.00001	-0.0005	-0.0002
CaCO ₃	(-0.003)	(-0.062)	(-0.033)	Ca	(-0.0001)	(-0.002)	(-0.001)
	0.002	0.004	0.017		-0.00001	-0.001	-0.001
Ni	(-0.003)	(-0.052)	(-0.027)	Mg	(-0.0001)	(-0.002)	(-0.001)
	0.0003	0.041	0.029		-0.004	0.037	0.041
Cr	(-0.001)	(-0.026)	(-0.014)	Temp	(-0.005)	(-0.091)	(-0.05)
	-0.001	0.017	0.006		0.002	0.009	0.002
Cu	(-0.002)	(-0.029)	(-0.016)	Precipitation	(-0.001)	(-0.015)	(-0.008)
	-0.0001	0.0003	0.004		0.391	1.093	0.505
Mn	(-0.001)	(-0.014)	(-0.007)	Constant	(-0.298)	(-5.819)	(-3.054)
$R^2 = 0.720$, F-statistics/Chi-square = 9.261, AIC=253.018							

Table 2.8 The summary of OLS, logit and probit models of abundant and rare plant species in the Semi humid MWPE.

2.3.4.2.3 Ecological gradient through Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA) of Semi-Humid subtropical MWPE

Detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) was performed to examine the distribution pattern of 159 plants and 138 stations along the axes of Detrended gradient analysis [\(Fig. 2.30;](#page-90-0) [Fig. 2.31\)](#page-91-0). The maximum gradient length was recorded high for axis 2 i.e., 4.93 with eigenvalue 0.54, followed by axes 1, 3 and 4 with eigenvalues 0.60, 0.47 and 0.39, respectively. The cumulative percentage variance of species data was observed maximum by axis 4 i.e., 10.5 accompanied by axes 3, 2 and 1 with 8.4, 5.9 and 3.1 cumulative percentage variance. The sum of all eigenvalues or total inertia was recorded as 19.269 [Table 2.9\)](#page-90-1).

Table 2.9 Summary of DCA of all plant species and stations in semi humid MWPE representing eigenvalues along with different gradient length and cumulative percentage variance.

Fig. 2.30 Ecological gradient through DCA biplot representing the distribution of plant species in the semi humid subtropical MWPE.

Fig. 2.31 Ecological gradient through DCA biplot representing the distribution of stations studied in the semi humid subtropical MWPE.

2.3.4.2.4 Ecological gradient through Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) of Semi-Humid subtropical MWPE

The ordination of plant species through CCA biplot of Semi humid subtropical MWPE shows that the 1st quadrant of CCA bi-plot clustered *Acacia nilotica*, *Acacia modesta*, *Ziziphus jujuba*, *Cynoglossum lanceolatum*, *Calotropis procera*, *Lantana camara*, *Datura innoxia*, *Dalbergia sissoo*, *Euphorbia hirta* and *Solanum surattense* ., under the influence of higher values for electrical conductivity, manganese, total dissolved solids, iron, temperature and low elevation, soil pH and zinc concentration [\(Fig. 2.32\)](#page-94-0).

The 2nd quadrant comprehended the distribution of *Poa annua*, *Sonchus asper*, *Trifolium repens*, *Erigeron canadensis*, *Adiantum incisum*, *Adiantum venustum*, *Cynodon dactylon*, *Ficus carica*, *Bombax ceiba* and *Paspalum distichum* ., under the consequence of higher precipitation, copper, nickel, chromium and less concentration of phosphorus, potassium, calcium carbonate, organic matter, magnesium, calcium and cadmium.

repens, Erigeron canadensis, Adiantum incisum, Adiactylon, Ficus carica, Bombax ceiba and Paspalum dist
ce of higher precipitation, copper, nickel, chromium and
orus, potassium, calcium carbonate, organic matter, ma
um.
ua The 3rd quadrant indicated *Rosa webbiana*, *Prunus persica*, *Sagittaria sagittifolia, Campsis radicans*, *Diospyros lotus*, *Apluda mutica*, *Persicaria hydropiper*, *Oenothera rosea*, *Bidens bipinnata* and *Salix tetrasperma* , under effect of higher soil pH, zinc, elevation in conjunction with lower amount of electrical conductivity, manganese, total dissolved solids, iron, temperature.

The 4th quadrant of CCA biplot distributed *Dactyloctenium aegyptium*, *Morus alba*, *M. nigra*, *Euphorbia prostrata*, *Azadirachta indica*, *Chenopodium murale*, *Broussonetia papyrifera*, *Acrachne racemosa*, *Chenopodium album* and *Achyranthes aspera* , that were assembled under the influence of higher phosphorus, potassium, calcium carbonate, organic matter, magnesium, calcium, cadmium and lower precipitation, copper, nickel and chromium concentration [\(Fig. 2.33;](#page-95-0) [Table 2.10\)](#page-93-0).

Table 2.10 The summary of CCA of all the plants and stations in relation to measured environmental variables in the semi-humid subtropical MWPE.

Fratio 2.922 significance of

F-value 0.0002 all canonical

P-value 0.0002 all canonical

axes

Fig. 2.32 Canonical correspondence Analysis biplot showing the distribution pattern of plant species under the influence of different variables.

Fig. 2.33 Canonical correspondence Analysis biplot showing the distribution pattern of stations under the influence of measured environmental factors in semi-humid MWPE.

2.3.4.3 Dry Subtropical Vegetation Zone (DSVZ) of MWPE

This dry subtropical zone of MWPE comprises 123 stations and 146 various types of plant species after TWCA of the Sorenson similarity index. This zone is situated at an altitude range of 297-1437m. It comprised of 91 herb species (62.32%), 38 trees (26.02%) and 17 shrub species (11.64%). Family Poaceae with 18 number of plant species (12.33 %) was the most leading followed by Asteraceae 11 species (7.53 %), Amaranthaceae 9 species (6.16 %), Solanaceae 8 species (5.48 %), Fabaceae, Moraceae & Polygonaceae each wih 6 plants (4.11 %), Rodaceae 5 species (3.42 %), Cucurbitaceae, Lamiaceae, Myrtaceae, Nyctaginaceae & Rutaceae each with 4 plants (2.74 %), Euphorbiaceae, Pteridaceae and Verbenaceae with 3 plant species each (2.05 %) in this MWPE (Appendix table 3). The TWCA of dry subtropical MWPE further comprehends distribution of 146 plant species in the 123 studied stations or quadrats (Fig. 2.34).

Fig. 2.34 TWCA dendrogram of 146 plant species and 123 stations/quadrats in the dry subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

2.3.4.3.1 Abundant and rare plants of the Dry subtropical MWPE Tree layer:

This layer was dominated by *Morus alba* (804 IVI), *Dalbergia sissoo* (590 IVI), *Morus nigra* (581 IVI), *Ficus carica* (576 IVI), *Populus alba* (567 IVI), *Eucalyptus globulus* (477 IVI), *Broussonetia papyrifera* (432 IVI), *Prosopis juliflora* (418 IVI), *Tamarix aphylla* (353 IVI) and *Azadirachta indica* (307 IVI) [\(Fig. 2.35\)](#page-97-0). While, *Pinus wallichiana* (8.33 IVI), *Eriobotrya japonica* (8.47 IVI), *Cupressus sempervirens*, *Araucaria heterophylla* (8.47 IVI), *Prunus armeniaca* (8.93 IVI), *Citrus medica* (8.93 IVI), *Litchi chinensis* (12.22 IVI), *Citrus limon* (16.67 IVI), *Mangifera indica* (17.68 IVI), *Celtis australis* (22.22 IVI) and *Ficus benjamina* (27.50 IVI) were the rare tree species (Fig. 2.36).

Fig. 2.35 The topmost abundant tree species in the Dry subtropical MWPE, KPK

Fig. 2.36 The rare tree species in the Dry subtropical MWPE with minimum IVI.

Shrub Layer:

The rare tree species in the Dry subtropical MWPE with m

er:

ropis procera (727 IVI) was the topmost dominant shrul

inia somnifera (675 IVI), Ricinus communis (550), Lan

ra innoxia (233 IVI) (Fig. 2.37). The rare shrub The *Calotropis procera* (727 IVI) was the topmost dominant shrub species followed by *Withania somnifera* (675 IVI), *Ricinus communis* (550), *Lantana camara* (344) and *Datura innoxia* (233 IVI) (Fig. 2.37). The rare shrub species recorded *Combretum indicum* (13.89 IVI), *Rosa webbiana* (16.67 IVI), *Bougainvillea spectabilis* (17.78 IVI), *Catharanthus roseus* (19.44 IVI) and *Datura metel* (33.33 IVI) from dry subtropical MWPE (Fig. 2.38).

Fig. 2.37 The topmost abundant shrubs with higher IVI in the subtropical MWPE

Fig. 2.38 Rare shrubs of the Dry subtropical MWPE, KPK.

Herb Layer:

Example 12 The United States Stat This herbaceous layer was dominated by *Cynodon dactylon* (1362 IVI), *Parthenium hysterophorus* (630 IVI), *Arundo donax* (548 IVI), *Saccharum bengalense* (421 IVI), *Xanthium strumarium* (347), *Oxalis corniculata* (291 IVI), *Adiantum capillus-veneris* (261 IVI), *Desmostachya bipinnata* (254 IVI), *Chenopodium album* (204 IVI) and *Erigeron canadensis* (175 IVI) [\(Fig. 2.39\)](#page-100-0). At the same time, *Dichanthium annulatum* (4.54 IVI), *Aerva javanica* (5.28 IVI), *Lepidium didymum* (5.71 IVI), *Capsicum annuum* (5.79 IVI), *Artemisia scoparia* (5.79 IVI), *Adiantum venustum* (6.98 IVI), *Parthenocissus quinquefolia* (7.52 IVI), *Momordica charantia* (7.87 IVI), *Asparagus racemosus* (9.26 IVI) and *Jasminum sambac* (9.48 IVI) were the rare plant species with minimum IVI in the region [\(Fig. 2.40\)](#page-100-1).

Fig. 2.39 The top ten abundant herb species recorded in the Dry subtropical MWPE.

Fig. 2.40 Topmost rare herb species in the Dry subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan

2.3.4.3.2 Results of Ordinary Least Square, Logistic and Probabilistic Models of Dry subtropical Zone

The Ordinary Least Square, Logistic and Probabilistic Models of Dry subtropical comprehended that the IVI (<0.024), TDS (<0.004), OM (0.370), Ni (<0.113), Cr (0.002), Cd (0.003), Zn (0.09), P (<0.696) and Precipitation (<231) have positive significant effect on the occurrence of abundant and rare plants. At the same, pH (- 0.065), EC (-0.0001), CaCO3 (< - 0.361) and K (- 0.002) have negative significant

effect on the abundant and rare plant species of the Dry subtropical MWPE [\(Table](#page-101-0) [2.11\)](#page-101-0). The AIC, \mathbb{R}^2 , Chi-square and probability values were recorded as 153, 0.550, 9.477 and 0.0001, respectively. Hence, it shows that our model is a perfect fit.

Table 2.11 Ordinary Least Square, Logistic and Probabilistic Models of abundant and rare plant species in the Dry subtropical MWPE, KPK , Pakistan.

Variables	OLS	Logit	Probit	Variables	OLS	Logit	Probit
	0.0001	0.024	0.012		0.003	0.017	0.008
IVI	(-0.00001)	(-0.004)	(-0.002)	Cd	(-0.001)	(-0.04)	(-0.021)
	-0.065	1.382	0.568		0.0002	0.015	0.009
pH	(-0.032)	(-1.089)	(-0.57)	Zn	(-0.0003)	(-0.009)	(-0.005)
	-0.0001	-0.001	-0.001		-0.0001	(-0.005)	-0.002
EC	(-0.0001)	(-0.002)	(-0.001)	Fe	(-0.0002)	(-0.006)	(-0.003)
	0.0001	0.004	0.002		-0.0001	-0.004	-0.002
TDS	(-0.00004)	(-0.002)	(-0.001)	$\rm K$	(-0.0001)	(-0.003)	(-0.001)
	0.370	2.863	0.93		0.026	0.696	0.396
OM	(-0.125)	(-3.612)	(-1.869)	$\, {\bf p}$	(-0.009)	(-0.295)	(-0.15)
	-0.009	-0.361	-0.201		0.00003	0.001	0.001
CaCO3	(-0.003)	(-0.13)	(-0.067)	Ca	(-0.0001)	(-0.002)	(-0.001)
	0.011	0.113	0.068		-0.0001	-0.002	-0.001
Ni	(-0.002)	(-0.065)	(-0.034)	Mg	(-0.0001)	(-0.002)	(-0.001)
	0.002	0.011	0.009		0.003	0.084	0.04
Cr	(-0.001)	(-0.03)	(-0.016)	Temp	(-0.004)	(-0.134)	(-0.071)
	0.001	-0.011	-0.005		0.004	0.231	0.123
Cu	(-0.001)	(-0.03)	(-0.016)	Precipitation	(-0.003)	(-0.083)	(-0.043)
	-0.001	0.004	-0.0001		0.469	-30.580	-14.475
Mn	(-0.001)	(-0.015)	(-0.008)	Constant	(-0.353)	(-12.191)	(-6.215)

 R^2 = 0.550, F-statistics/Chi-square = 9.477, AIC=153.058; 156.678

2.3.4.3.3 Ecological gradient through Detrended correspondence Analysis of Drysubtropical MWPE

DCA was carried out to illustrate the distribution pattern of dry subtropical vegetation via Detrended gradient analysis [\(Fig. 2.41;](#page-103-0) [Fig. 2.42\)](#page-104-0). The maximum gradient length was recorded high for axis 1 i.e., 8.36 with eigenvalue 0.72, followed by axes 2, 3 and 4 with eigenvalues 0.56, 0.52 and 0.44, respectively. The cumulative percentage variance of species data was observed maximum by axis 4 i.e., 11.7 accompanied by axes 3, 2 and 1 with 9.3, 6.7 and 3.8, correspondingly. While the sum of all eigenvalues or total inertia was recorded as 19.267 [\(Table 2.12\)](#page-102-0).

Table 2.12 Showing eigenvalues, gradient length and cumulative percentage variance in the dry subtropical MWPE.

Table 2.12 Showing eigenvalues, gradient length and cumulative percentage variance in the dry subtropical MWPE.								
Axes	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	Total inertia			
Eigenvalues	0.72	0.56	0.51	0.44	19.267			
Lengths of gradient	8.36	6.59	4.19	4.36				
Cumulative percentage variance of species data	3.8	6.7	9.3	11.7				

Fig. 2.41 DCA demonstrating the distribution of plants in the dry subtropical MWPE.

Fig. 2.42 DCA indicating the distribution of stations in the dry subtropical MWPE.

2.3.4.3.4 Ecological gradient through Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) of Dry subtropical MWPE

CCA analysis resulted that all the measured environmental variables have significant effect (probability=0.0002) on plant species composition and distribution pattern in Dry subtropical MWPE [\(Table 2.13\)](#page-106-0).

The 1st quadrant of CCA bi-plot distributed *Digera muricata*, *Sorghum halepense*, *Mentha longifolia*, *Ailanthus altissima*, *Cannabis sativa*, *Tribulus pentandrus*, *Heliotropium europaeum*, *Artemisia persica* and *Colocasia esculenta*, under the impact of higher concentration of cadmium, chromium and lower soil pH, manganese, iron, potassium and temperature [\(Fig. 2.43\)](#page-107-0).

quadrant comprehended the distribution of *Poa annus*

repens, *Erigeron canadensis*, *Adiantum incisum*, *Adiactylon, Ficus carica, Bombax ceiba* and *Paspalum dis*

ce of higher precipitation, copper, nickel, chromium an The 2nd quadrant comprehended the distribution of *Poa annua*, *Sonchus asper*, *Trifolium repens*, *Erigeron canadensis*, *Adiantum incisum*, *Adiantum venustum*, *Cynodon dactylon*, *Ficus carica*, *Bombax ceiba* and *Paspalum distichum*, under the consequence of higher precipitation, copper, nickel, chromium and less concentration of phosphorus, potassium, calcium carbonate, organic matter, magnesium, calcium and cadmium.

The 3rd quadrant clustered *Withania somnifera*, *Datura metel*, *Dalbergia sissoo*, *Xanthium strumarium*, *Acacia nilotica*, *Cynodon dactylon*, *Dactyloctenium aegyptium*, *Chrozophora tinctoria*, *Tamarix aphylla* and *Phyla nodiflora*, under the effect of higher soil pH, manganese, iron, potassium, temperature and lower cadmium and chromium concentration in the region.

The 4th quadrant of CCA bi-plot distributed *Setaria viridis*, *Saccharum spontaneum*, *Amaranthus spinosus*, *Verbesina encelioides*, *Saccharum bengalense* and *Broussonetia papyrifera*, under the influence of higher nickel, copper, zinc, elevation and low organic matter, calcium carbonate, total dissolved solids, phosphorous, magnesium, electrical conductivity and precipitation [\(Fig. 2.44;](#page-108-0) [Table 2.13\)](#page-106-0).

Table 2.13 CCA summary of all the plants and stations in relation to measured environmental variables in the dry subtropical MWPE.

Fratio 3.176 Significance of

F-value 0.0002 all canonical

P-value 0.0002 all canonical

axes

Fig. 2.43 Ecological gradient through CCA biplot showing the distribution of plant species under the impact of various environmental factors in dry subtropical MWPE

Fig. 2.44 Ecological gradient through CCA biplot showing the distribution of stations under the impact of various environmental factors in dry subtropical MWPE.

2.3.5 Characterization and Phylogenetic studies of Fungal Flora

A total of 15 fungal strains were isolated from Marble Waste polluted ecosystem of the studied region. Morphologically most of these strains comprised aseptate hyphae and black, brown, green, white to dark green colors [\(Fig. 2.45\)](#page-109-0). Whereas, anatomically these strains range from cylindrical to round, hyaline in Lactophenol Blue, thick to thin walled, smooth to ornamented surface with sharp scale and fusoid to ellipsoid in shape [\(Fig. 2.46;](#page-113-0) [Table 2.14\)](#page-110-0). It showed a wide variety of variations among the fungi.

Fig. 2.45 Pure fungal isolates from marble waste polluted ecosystem

Table 2.14 Morphological and anatomical characteristics of fungal colonies grown on Malt extract agar plates and stained after 48 -72 hr. of incubation.

S. NO	Fungal	Spore color	Appearance of	Anatomical characters/	Shape of
	strains		colonies	Microscopic characters	hyphae
1	S ₁	White	Feather like	Cylindrical, hyaline in	Septate
				lactophenol and blue in	
				staining, thick walled,	
				$16 - 60 \mu m$ in length and	
				$8 - 10 \mu m$ in width,	
				smooth surface.	
$\overline{2}$	S ₂	Green	Foam like	Spherical, black in color,	Aseptate
				ornamented, thick	
				walled, 6.4 - 7.6 µm in	
				length and $6.1 - 7.3 \mu m$	
				in width.	
3	S ₃	Brown	Point like	Clavate, hyaline in	Septate
				lactophenol and blue in	
				staining, gattulated, thin	
				walled, $16-20 \mu m$ in	
				length and $6-8 \mu m$ in	
				width, smooth surface.	
$\overline{4}$	S ₄	White	Foam like	Cylindrical, hyaline in	Septate
			/spread	lactophenol, thick	
				walled, $54 - 79 \mu m$ in	
				length and $5.8 - 6 \mu m$ in	
				width, smooth surface.	
5	S ₅	Black	Foam like	Rounded, black in color,	Aseptate
			/spread	surface ornamented,	
				surface with sharp scales,	
				$8 - 9 \mu m$ in length and $7 -$	
				9 um in width.	
6	S ₆	Black	Foam like	Spherical, hyaline,	Aseptate
				smooth surface, thick	
				walled, $4.9 - 6.1 \mu m$ in	
				length and $4.4 - 5.4 \mu m$	
				in width.	
7	S7	Dark green	Conjugated	Hyaline in lactophenol	Aseptate
			hyphae	and blue in staining, thin	
				walled, retienlate in	
				shape, $5.8 - 6.7 \mu m$ in	
				length and $5.3 - 6.2 \mu m$	
				in width, smooth surface.	
8	S8	Black & white	Foam & spread	Hyaline in lactophenol,	Aseptate
		Spores black		thick walled, spherical	
				and retienlate in shape,	
				$6.5 - 8.3 \mu m$ in length	
				and $6.3 - 6.9 \,\mu m$ in	
				width, smooth surface.	

Fig. 2.46 Morphological and microscopic characterization of fungal isolates. A) fungal strain with black spore color and aseptate hyphae B) hyaline in lacto-phenol with aseptate hyphae C) pure black in color with septate hyphae, D) fungal colony with foam like appearance and aseptate hyphae E) spore black in color with aseptate hyphae F) white in color and aseptate hyphae.

2.3.6 Molecular and Phylogenetic analysis of the selected micro fungi

On the basis of aforementioned results i.e., isolation, morphological, anatomical/ microscopic characterization, some of the micro fungi were selected for further molecular analyses. The detailed descriptions are as follows:

wed 100% resemblance with *Aureobasidium leucosper*
ry coverage. ZAF 06 resemble 99% with *Fusar*
5), acquiring 93% Query coverage. ZAF 08 resembled 9
Query coverage to *Alternaria alternata* (KY609180). ZA
arity with *Cur* Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) was used to find out the most similar sequence. All the consensus of ITS1F and ITS4 were analysed using a gene bank search. ZAF 04 and ZAF 05 strains showed 99% similarity with *Aspergillis brasiliensi* (KX011592), having 95% Query coverage. ZAF 02 and ZAF 03 resemble 99% to *Aspergillus sydowii* (KU687806) along with 97% Query Coverage. ZAF 07 strain showed 100% resemblance with *Aureobasidium leucosper* JN712487 having 99% Query coverage. ZAF 06 resemble 99% with *Fusarium petrophilium* (KP132225), acquiring 93% Query coverage. ZAF 08 resembled 99% in conjunction with 99% Query coverage to *Alternaria alternata* (KY609180). ZAF 09 comprehends 99% similarity with *Curvularia aeria* (KT933642.1) along 98% Query coverage. The final complete data set of 54 sequences resulted 1150 character including gaps, of these 486 characters was removed both on 5' and 5' end. The final data set consist of 664 characters, out of which 227 were conserved sequences, 395 variable, 297 parsimony informative sites and 98 singleton sites. The final phylogram is representing by 3 clades with *Lyomyces organensis* as root of the tree (out group). The clade one is further divided into three sub clades. The sub clade A with 100% ML bootstrap value contained ZAF 04 and ZAF 05 strains having close affinities with accessions KX011592, JQ316521, FJ195349, KC796389, KT378129, KM491891, FJ629321, FJ195348, KX098315, AM295181 and FJ717684 of *Aspergillis brasiliensi*. Where in sub clade B our strains ZAF 02 and ZAF 03 have close leaning with *Aspergillus sydowii* having accession number KU687806, LN898728, KJ413376 and KU687806 etc. at 93% ML bootstrap value. The consensus of these sequences comprehends polymorphism on one position which indicated minimum divergence. The sub clade C with 100% bootstrap value contained ZAF 07 along with *Aureobasidium leucosper* JN712487 and JN712488. The clade 2 representing ZAF 06 in conjunction with *Fusarium petroliphilum* having accession KP132225, KC254043, LC184213, LC184243 and LC184196 at 100% ML bootstrap value. Clade 3 was further divided into two sub clade i.e., sub clade A & B. Our strain ZAF 09 has close affinities with accession KT933642, KP131919, KT933641, KT933639, and

KU856631 etc. of *Curvularia aeria* at 100% ML bootstrap value. The sub clade B contained ZAF 08 strain with 74% bootstrap value with accession KY609180, KU182490, KX377683, KP739874, KP739875, KY075667, KX926578, KJ002064, AY154682 and KU179665 of *Alternaria alternata.* It shared 100 % genetic character with *Alternaria alternata* (KY609180) and presented minimum divergence (Fig. [2.47\)](#page-115-0).

Fig. 2.47 Molecular phylogenetic relationship of micro fungus species with their allies inferred by using the Maximum Likelihood method based on the Kimura 2-parameter model using nr ITS-rDNA data. The analysis involved 54 nucleotide sequences. There were a total of 298 positions in the final dataset. Species collected from the marble waste polluted ecosystem were labelled with (■) box.

2.4 Discussion

cories of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan
145 herbs, 24 shrubs and 51 trees. Family Poaceae was
by Asteraceae, Fabaceae, Amaranthaceae, Polygon
2, Moraceae and Brassicaceae. Our findings are in close
nwar et al. Every type of ecosystem has diverse flora and fauna which mark them as unique due to the particular niches that they occupy. A reasonable relationship exists between organisms within the environment, which are the main determinants of species abundance and diversity of fauna and flora of a particular region [\(Zhou et al. 2008\)](#page-332-0). The current study acknowledges the flora of marble waste polluted ecosystem and their influence along with different environmental plus climatic factors on species composition and distribution pattern in the subtropical geographic region, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. This study acknowledges a total of 220 plant species belonging to 164 genera and 65 plant families from the subtropical zones around marble factories of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan. Habit wise they comprise 145 herbs, 24 shrubs and 51 trees. Family Poaceae was the leading family followed by Asteraceae, Fabaceae, Amaranthaceae, Polygonaceae, Rosaceae, Solanaceae, Moraceae and Brassicaceae. Our findings are in close harmony with the work of (Anwar et al. 2022; Hussain 2009; Ilyas et al. 2013) who also reported family Poaceae were dominant in their respective studied regions. The reason beyond dominancy of Poaceae is its broad ecological amplitude, human disturbance and their perennating capabilities (Anwar et al. 2022).

The climatic condition of an area is described by the life form [\(Raunkiaer 1934\)](#page-326-0). It is an important physiognomic attribute that has been widely used in vegetation studies. It indicates micro and macroclimate as well as human disturbance of a particular area. Different regions having similar biological spectrum indicate similar climatic condition and human disturbance. The life form of plant species reflects the adaptation of plants to the climate conditions. The current study indicated that the Therophytes were the leading life form class followed by Hemicryptophytes and Nanophanerophytes in the MWPE of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. These dominances reveal the response to harsh environmental conditions and immense human disturbance i.e., marble pollution. The dominancy of therophytes followed by hemicryptophytes has also been observed [\(Badshah et al. 2013\)](#page-313-0) in different types of polluted regions. Maximum numbers of therophytes are easily adapted to human disturbance [\(Shah 2013\)](#page-328-0). In the current study microphylls was the dominant leaf form followed by Mesophyll, Nanophyll, Leptophylls, Megaphylls and Aphyllous in the region. The dominance of microphylls has also been reported [\(Haq et al. 2015\)](#page-318-0) from the adjacent areas. The abundance of microphylls leaf form are the result of arid climates and habitat disturbance/degradation [\(Samad et al. 2018;](#page-327-0) [Zeb et al. 2020\)](#page-332-1). The current study assessed dominant plant species including *Ficus carica*, *Morus alba*, *Morus nigra, Calotropis procera*, *Datura innoxia*, *Ricinus communis, Cynodon dactylon*, *Parthenium hysterophorus* and *Erigeron canadensis* from the MWPE. Similar to the current findings [\(Nazir et al. 2011\)](#page-324-0) reported some of these plant species from the industrial polluted regions of adjacent cities i.e., Rawalpindi and Islamabad, Pakistan. While the [\(Noreen et al. 2019a\)](#page-325-0) worked on the vegetation of Nashpa Oil and Gas pollution and reported *Calotropis procera*, *Datura innoxia*, *Ricinus communis, Cynodon dactylon*, *Parthenium hysterophorus* and *Justicia adhatoda* as dominant plant species of the polluted region.

es of the polluted region.

pter we have used the Species Area Curves and Two-way

impled size adequacy and distribution of each plant

sample size adequacy and plant species distribution ir

al. 2016a; Bano et al. 2018; I In this chapter we have used the Species Area Curves and Two-way Cluster Analyses for the sampled size adequacy and distribution of each plant species at each quadrat/station. Similar techniques have also been used by a number of researchers to assess the sample size adequacy and plant species distribution in different regions [\(Ahmad et al. 2016a;](#page-311-0) Bano et al. 2018; Iqbal et al. 2018; [Kamran et al. 2020;](#page-320-0) [Khan et](#page-320-1) [al. 2017a;](#page-320-1) Khan et al. 2016). The impact of measured variables in the marble waste polluted ecosystem were analyzed through Ordinary Least Square, Logistic and Probabilistic Models to determine why some of the plant species are abundant and some of them are rare in the MWPE. It showed that the higher calcium, magnesium, nickel, chromium, zinc, soil pH, TDS, $CaCO₃$ concentration influence plant species abundance and rarity. Like the current findings [\(Adewole and Adesina 2011\)](#page-311-1) also reported that the particulate matter released from marble factories contained calcium and magnesium in maximum concentration. A major amount of these particulate matter accumulates on the water, soil and surrounding vegetation [\(Adewole and](#page-311-1) [Adesina 2011;](#page-311-1) [Ahmad et al. 2019\)](#page-311-2). In such cases, plant growing in the vicinity of pollution absorb or assimilate the pollutants during nutrient uptake and cause significant physiological changes. Such changes may be serious for those plant species especially the ones which have relatively less genetic diversity and narrow ecological amplitude. As a result, some of the plant species cope or survive the environmental pollution stress while other may not [\(Brandt and Rhoades 1973;](#page-313-2) [Joshi](#page-319-3) [and Swami 2007;](#page-319-3) [Prajapati and Tripathi 2008\)](#page-326-1). In the current study Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) and Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA) were used to evaluate plant species distribution pattern and composition along

measured environmental variables in the MWPE. Both the CCA and DCA are widely used ordination and classification techniques that are frequently used for the proper determination of significant relationships between environmental data and floristic composition [\(Dufrêne and Legendre 1997;](#page-315-0) [Hill and Gauch 1980;](#page-318-1) [Ter Braak and](#page-329-0) [Prentice 1988\)](#page-329-0). It showed that the $CaCO₃$, electrical conductivity, soil pH, calcium, magnesium, temperature, precipitation, elevation and organic matter have a significant role in the distribution pattern of all plant species in the region. An extensive review of the literature showed that there is no data on vegetation of marble waste polluted habitats for comparison as well as foundation purposes. However, [\(Kabir et al. 2010\)](#page-320-3) reported eighty plants in a Cement polluted ecosystem from Karachi, Pakistan with higher concentration of Calcium carbonate, EC, pH, TDS, exchangeable Potassium, Sodium and low quantity of Organic Matter concentration. In addition, they documented the industrial soil was mostly of a porous type with considerable amount of water holding capacity. Further studies would be of great importance for better management of such regions and systems.

Pakistan with higher concentration of Calcium carbona
ble Potassium, Sodium and low quantity of Organic Ma
n, they documented the industrial soil was mostly of a
le amount of water holding capacity. Further studies
of the Furthermore, in the current study a molecular approach was carried out using consensuses of ITS1F and ITS4 primers for each species. The comparison of micro fungi 18S rRNA gene sequence has an emergent preferred genetic technique. Such techniques have been widely used as a molecular clock to estimate relationship among fungi (phylogeny). Recently, it has become important as a means to identify unknown fungi up to genus or species level (Shahid et al. 2014a). The use of 18S rRNA gene sequences to study fungi phylogeny is well documented (Smit et al. 1999). Taxonomy has been by far the most common housekeeping genetic marker used for several reasons. It includes i) presence in almost all fungi often existing as a multigene operon or family. ii) Function of 18S rRNA gene has not changed over time, indicating random sequence changes were more accurate measure of time (evolution). The rRNA molecular analysis is a key method in microbiology not only to explore diversity of microbes but also to identify new strains/ cultures. In the current study, molecular identification and phylogeny of isolated micro fungi revealed most of the species belong to genus *Aspergillus* i.e. *Aspergillus sydowii*, *Aspergillus brasilensi* and *Aspergillus phoenicis*. Other species included *Fusarium petrolilum*, *Auerobasidium leucosper*, *Alternaria alternata* and *Curvularia aeria*. The results are in close harmony with work of [\(Roussos et al. 1995\)](#page-327-1), where they reported a total of 272 strains of filamentous fungi from soil, leaves of coffee plant and coffee cherries growing in a polluted region of Mexico. It included most of the isolated microorganisms belonging to *Aspergillus, Fusarium, Trichoderma, Pennicillium* and *Humicola* genera having the ability to degrade 100 % of the caffeine in liquid media. Whereas, [\(Maiti et al. 2013\)](#page-323-0) also sequenced the ITS region of two fungi isolated from aerobic compost environment.

uencing Kit in 10 µ[L](#page-315-1) reactions with ITS4-R and ITS
perform dye-terminated unidirectional sequencing. Where
ded the molecular identification of endophytic fungi
DNA (nrDNA) sequence analysis. The 5.8S gene and
spacer (ITS1 DNA extraction were carried out following enzymatic digestion and glass fiber filtration protocol [\(Dentinger et al. 2010\)](#page-315-1). Nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer (ITS) was amplified using universal primers ITS1-F and ITS4-R were used for fungi. ExoSAP-IT® was used to purify PCR products. BigDye® Terminator V 3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit in 10 µL reactions with ITS4-R and ITS1-F primers were applied to perform dye-terminated unidirectional sequencing. Whereas, [\(Guo et al.](#page-317-0) [2003\)](#page-317-0) conceded the molecular identification of endophytic fungi using the nuclear ribosomal DNA (nrDNA) sequence analysis. The 5.8S gene and flanking internal transcribed spacer (ITS1 & ITS2) regions of nrDNA were amplified and sequenced. Further identification were done by means of sequences similarity comparison and phylogenetic analysis of the ITS regions (Dentinger et al. 2010; [White et al. 1990\)](#page-331-0). Similarly (Manter and Vivanco 2007) used the ITS primers (ITS1F and ITS4) for the characterization of fungal abundance and diversity in mixed template samples through qPCR and length heterogeneity analysis. In addition, (Ranjard et al. 2001) analyzed GenBank database for length heterogeneity in fungi species through a various set of conserved rRNA primers (2234C and 3126T). The ITS1F and ITS4 primers showed a significant overlap between fungal taxonomic groups having size range of 390 to 1065 base pairs in 251 samples from 104 genera. Though, unlike ITS4 and ITS1F primers members of Oomycota, Chytridiomycota and Plasmodiophoromycota comprised conserved primer sequences and must be amplified through 2234C and 3126T primers [\(Ranjard et al. 2001\)](#page-326-2). The [\(De Carolis et al. 2012\)](#page-315-2) identified species of *Aspergillus, Mucorales* and *Fusarium* using direct surface analysis through matrix assisted laser desorption ionization time of flight mass spectrometry.

The DNA sequencing resulted in the identification of *Aspergillus sydowii* (ZAF 02), *Aspergillus brasilensi* (ZAF 03 & ZAF 05), *Fusarium petrolilum* (ZAF 06), *Auerobasidium leucosper* (ZAF 07), *Alternaria alternata* (ZAF 08) and *Curvularia aeria* (ZAF 09) respectively. The predominant *Aspergillus sydowii* was a saprophytic

Example 1. 2008). Whereas Chiu et al., (2005) reported
pergillus sydowii in a patient undergoing continuous amd
urrent study also revealed the isolation, characterization
that aria from marble wastewater. Curvularia spp. fungus mostly found in soil occasionally pathogenic to human (causing aspergillosis, keratomycosis and onychomycosis) and also causes the contamination of food. It has been found in the sea water and shown to be the cause of aspergillosis in sea fans during 1990 [\(Rypien 2008\)](#page-327-2). While, [\(Matkar et al. 2013\)](#page-323-2) worked on the production of cellulose from *Aspergillus sydowii* a new isolated strain obtained from terrestrial region also being reported from marine habitats. They identified isolate using 18S rDNA sequencing. Sea fan crude extracts inhibited the growth of *A. sydowii* but were less effective at higher temperature [\(Alker et al. 2001\)](#page-311-3). The *Aspergillus sydowii* was a causative agent of epidemics that effect gorgonian corals (sea fans) and has significantly affect their pollution in the Caribbean sea [\(Ein-Gil et al. 2009;](#page-315-3) [Toledo-](#page-329-1)[Hernández et al. 2008\)](#page-329-1). Whereas Chiu et al., (2005) reported peritonitis caused through *Aspergillus sydowii* in a patient undergoing continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis. Current study also revealed the isolation, characterization and phylogeny of *Curvularia aeria* from marble wastewater*. Curvularia* spp. was the most common pathogenic fungi on Gramineae plants and was frequently found in other cellulosic substrates (Nakada et al. 1994). Furthermore, *Aureobasidium leucosper* was reported from marble waste water, mostly ubiquitous black in color found in different types of environments (water, soil, air and limestone) (Andrews et al. 2002). While, [\(Smithson](#page-328-3) [et al. 2013\)](#page-328-3) worked on halophilic fungi (*Aureobasidium leucosper*) that has a significant effect to clear-out slats formed on the surface of sand stone in Medamoud, Egypt. *Aureobasidium leucosper* has a vital importance in biotechnology in terms of production of various types of enzymes as well as used in biological control of plant disease (Ferreira-Pinto et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2012). The [\(Di Francesco et al. 2015\)](#page-315-4) worked on the production of volatile organic compounds from *Aureobasidium leucosper* and demonstrated that the *A. leucosper* has a significant role against five fruit postharvest pathogens (*Penicillium italicum, penicillium digitatum, penicillium expansum, Botrytis cinerea* and *Colletotrichum acutatum*). *Aureobasidium pullulans* decreased the incidence of blue and gray mold of apple by 67 and 89 % respectively [\(Ippolito et al. 2000\)](#page-319-4).

Aspergillus brasilensis is one of the most common species of *Aspergillus* genus causing a black mold disease of certain vegetables and fruits. It was ubiquitous in nature [\(Varga et al. 2007\)](#page-330-0). The *Aspergillus brasilensis* was extensively exploited by fermentation industries for the production of organic acids like citric acid and certain types of enzymes [\(Pel et al. 2007\)](#page-325-1). It has the ability to degraded xenobiotics through different oxidative, demethylation and hydroxylation reactions providing a potential role in bioremediations [\(Tudzynski et al. 2002\)](#page-330-1). [\(Kapoor et al. 1999\)](#page-320-4) worked on the removal of cadmium, copper, nickel and lead heavy metals using *Aspergillus brasilensis* and concluded a significant role of *Aspergillus* spp. in heavy metal removal. The [\(Wen et al. 2005\)](#page-331-1) co-cultured *Aspergilus phoenicis* with *Trichoderma reesei* by means of dairy manure as a substrate produced a high level β-glucosidase.

2.5 Conclusion

uded that the MWPE of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province
20 different plant species. Family Poaceae was the
the polluted region. *Ficus carica*, *Calotropis prosera*,
ominant and *Pyrus communis, combretum indicum and B*
lant spe It is concluded that the MWPE of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan mostly contains 220 different plant species. Family Poaceae was the topmost dominant family of the polluted region. *Ficus carica, Calotropis prosera, Cynodon dactylon* were the dominant and *Pyrus communis, combretum indicum and Biden bippinta* were the rare plant species of MWPE. Based on OLS, logistic and probabilistic all the measured variables have significant role in the occurrence of dominant and rare plant species in the region. While CCA concluded that the $CaCO₃$, electrical conductivity, calcium, soil pH, magnesium, temperature, precipitation, elevation and organic matter have a significant role in the distribution pattern of plant species in the region. It is also concluded that marble wastewater mostly revealed six different types of micro fungal strains in Buner, Pakistan. Their molecular identification and phylogeny resulted in the identification of *Aspergillus sydowii* (ZAF 02 and ZAF 03), *Aspergillus brasilensi* (ZAF 04 and ZAF 05), *Fusarium petrophilium* (ZAF 06), *Aureobasidium leucosper* (ZAF 07), *Alternaria alternata* (ZAF 08) and *Curvularia aeria* (ZAF 09) species. Morphologically many of these strains exhibited aseptate hyphae and varying colors i.e., black, brown, green and white. Anatomically, these strains range from cylindrical to round, hyaline in lacto-phenol blue, thick to thin walled, smooth to ornamented surface with sharp scale and fusoid to ellipsoid in shape.

Vegetation Indicators of the Marble Polluted Region

3.1 Introduction

is characterized by mild winter and hot summer seasons
ger et al. 2013). The subtropical geographic region is fit
ry summer/ Mediterranean climate (where seasonal rain
ths) and humid subtropical (where rainfall often occu
 As we have discussed in the previous chapter, the global distribution of plants is based on climatic patterns. On this basis, the world's natural regions are comprised of Equatorial and tropical (0-23.5°), Subtropical (23.6-34°), Warm temperate (34.1-45°), Cool temperate (45.1-58°), Subarctic (58.1-66.5°), Arctic (66.6-72°) and Polar (72.1- 90°) regions on north and south latitudes. These natural regions are further divided into forests, grasslands and deserts based on physiognomic features [\(Loidi 2018\)](#page-323-3). The subtropical geographic/climatic region is situated north and south of the tropical region. It is characterized by mild winter and hot summer seasons [\(Erlat and Türkeş](#page-316-1) [2013;](#page-316-1) Krüger et al. 2013). The subtropical geographic region is further divided into two i.e., dry summer/ Mediterranean climate (where seasonal rainfall occurs in the cooler months) and humid subtropical (where rainfall often occurs in the warmest months of the year). A significant portion of the world's deserts is located within the subtropics due to subtropical ridge development. The region bordering warm oceans is susceptible to locally heavy rainfall from tropical cyclones, contributing significantly to the annual rainfall. In comparison, the regions bordering cool oceans are prone to fog, aridity, and dry summers.

The natural vegetation of these geographic regions is, however, not only influenced by climate and other regional environmental factors such as geology and soil type, but also by anthropogenic factors. The latter include various forms of environmental pollution, notably from dumped waste, emissions, and industrial effluents. Pollution can bring about a rapid change in the natural ecosystem, especially in its structure, function and composition and is one of the main agents disturbing the environment. Improper disposal of industrial waste materials, such as those associated with mineral extraction, are known to cause a range of environmental impacts. For example, waste materials arising from the marble extraction industry may be dumped in empty pits, but also on river beds, roads, agriculture fields, or pasture lands, leading to wide ranging environmental pollution [\(Aukour and Al-Qinna 2008b;](#page-312-2) [Mendoza et al. 2014\)](#page-324-2). Without primary treatments and detoxification procedures, effluents from the marble industry can add potential toxic elements (heavy metals) to the ecosystem [\(El-](#page-315-5)[Maghraby et al. 2013\)](#page-315-5). Over time, levels of contamination in water and soil can increase, with adverse effect on the local natural environment and for local inhabitants. The pollution also affects the composition of flora and fauna through chemical and physical alterations of the environment [\(Yu et al. 2005\)](#page-331-2).

However, such types of pollution can give rise to diverse and unique vegetation types in the subtropical geographic region [\(Ganjurjav et al. 2020;](#page-316-2) [Liu et al. 2020;](#page-322-0) [Zhao et al.](#page-332-3) [2019\)](#page-332-3). Various plant species absorb such toxic pollutants or potential toxic elements from the marble waste polluted ecosystem [\(Paz-Alberto and Sigua 2013;](#page-325-2) [Treesubsuntorn and Thiravetyan 2018\)](#page-329-2). They can act as sinks that absorb noxious waste concentrations [\(Prajapati and Tripathi 2008\)](#page-326-1). This type of pollution abatement function is best performed by some pollutant indicators [\(Dyer et al. 2017;](#page-315-6) [Haller et al.](#page-317-1) [2018\)](#page-317-1). These organisms' presence in toxic substances/ heavy metals is termed an indicator, tolerant or hyperaccumulator of such habitat (Freeman et al. 2006).

esse organisms' presence in toxic substances/ heavy me-
olerant or hyperaccumulator of such habitat (Freeman et
ators can be defined as those species that consistently a
inct environmental factors and which do not occur el Plant indicators can be defined as those species that consistently are found growing under distinct environmental factors and which do not occur elsewhere [\(Khan et al.](#page-320-2) [2016\)](#page-320-2). Plant indicators are also known as biological, environmental or phytoindicators. Based on their distribution, two types of plant environmental distributions can be described, i.e., eurytopic (that indicates a wide range of tolerance) and stenotopic (which indicates narrow limits of tolerance). Ideal indicators are those that are indicative of unique geographic conditions (Burgass et al. 2017; [Wu et al. 2017\)](#page-331-3). They can signal a change in an environment's biological condition and may be used as a proxy to analyze an ecological unit's health. The relationships between plant species and environmental variables can be utilized to indicate the ecosystem/environment. Therefore, indicators can be utilized as a priceless gift of nature and need preservation for future generations and research purposes compared to many other such species [\(Kwatra et al. 2016\)](#page-321-1).

Several plant species are used as indicators of a particular habitat. These are used to define land resources' optimal use, e.g. for forest, agriculture and mining, etc. [\(Worrall et al. 2009\)](#page-331-4). Edaphic indicators tell us which type of soil is suitable for a particular type of agricultural purpose. Certain climatic factors affect the growth rate of specific plants in addition to other parameters [\(Firn et al. 2019\)](#page-316-4). If the growth is significant under a particular set of conditions, such an ecosystem or environment is considered suitable for agriculture and plantation [\(Ivanov et al. 2008\)](#page-319-5). Usually, the growth of tall grasses indicates fertile soil conditions [\(Kelley 1922\)](#page-320-5). Plant species and plant communities are also indicators of groundwater depth [\(Cannon 1971\)](#page-314-1). In

or higher concentrations of Magnesium and Calcium i
 Periploca aphylla and *Cousinia prolifera* have been report

trical conductivity in soil (Noreen et al. 2019a). Besides

dicators of different mining types and mineral addition, some plant species are the indicators of different forest types, where they grow abundantly. For instance, *[Abies pindrow,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abies_pindrow) [Picea smithiana,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Picea_smithiana) [Cedrus deodara,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cedrus_deodara) [Pinus wallichiana,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pinus_wallichiana) [Pinus roxburghii,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pinus_roxburghii) [Pinus gerardiana](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pinus_gerardiana)* and *[Juniperus macropoda](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Juniperous_macropoda)* are the indicators of Coniferous forests of the temperate ecosystem. *[Acacia modesta](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Acacia)*, *[Olea](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Olea_cuspidata) [cuspidata](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Olea_cuspidata)* and *[Dodonaea viscosa](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dodonaea_viscosa)* are the indicators of subtropical dry forests zones. *[Salvadora oleoides](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Salvadora_oleoides)*, *[Prosopis cineraria](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prosopis_cineraria)* and *[Capparis aphylla](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Capparis_aphylla)* are the indicators of thorny tropical forests. Likewise, *[Avicennia marina](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Avicennia_marina)*, *[Bamboo](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bamboo)* spp., *[Apluda](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Apluda)* spp. and *[Cenchrus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cenchrus)* spp. are the mangrove wetland ecosystem indicators [\(Champion et](#page-314-2) [al. 1965\)](#page-314-2). Fungi, *Neottia*, *Strobilanthes* are indicators of humus that can prevent the regeneration of trees. *Ziziphus nummularia, Rhazya stricta* and *Datura metel* are the indicators of higher concentrations of Magnesium and Calcium in the soil. *Acacia modesta, Periploca aphylla* and *Cousinia prolifera* have been reported as indicators of higher electrical conductivity in soil (Noreen et al. 2019a). Besides these, many plants are the indicators of different mining types and minerals e.g., *Equisetum arvense*, *Papaver libonoticum* (Gold indicators), *Vallozia candida* (Diamond indicator), *Stellaria setacea* (Mercury indicator), *Astragalus* spp. (Uranium indicator), *Viscaria alpine*, *Gypsophila patrini* (Copper indicators), *Silene cobalticola* (Cobalt indicator), *Lycium juncus* (Lithium indicator), *Dacrydium caledonicum* (Iron indicator) and *Ulex aquifolium* are considered as Aluminum indicators. *Pteris aquilina* and *Pyronema confluens* grow well on burnt ground and hence are considered to be fire indicators. Some of the plant species are pollutant indicators that can grow in a region where particular kind of pollutants exist (Ahmad et al. 2019). Different plant species are also utilized to recognize climatic features of a particular area. For example, the presence of sclerophyllous vegetation indicates a long dry summer season compared to the luxuriant growth of bryophytes which indicates humid and cooler climatic conditions [\(Sampson 1939\)](#page-327-3).

Researchers often utilize the approach of plant indicators without any conceptual background. There has been some occasional use of a recognized approach for the identification/selection of plant indicators using indicator analyses. Conventionally authors have mentioned the concept of dominant or characteristics species. Indicator Species Analysis (ISA) can be used to construct the performance of individual indicators across two or more groups of sampled units [\(Dufrêne and Legendre 1997\)](#page-315-0) based on concepts of abundance and frequency (concentration of abundance in a

even though it was introduced to the ecological community of its rapidly increased application in ecological research
main rare. In fact, well-established models can serve as
een extensively used in psychometrics, behavior particular group and relative frequency within a group). It allows a natural companion to the multi-response permutation procedure of the data and provides a proficient means to minimize the complications inherent in natural vegetation. It detects significant environmental factors that elucidate these complications and give proper indicators [\(Iqbal et al. 2018;](#page-319-2) [Khan et al. 2016\)](#page-320-2). ISA distinguishes the main pattern in the relationships among species, environmental factors and assists in generating a hypothesis concerning the structure and peculiarity of indicator species in a specific ecosystem [\(Anderson et al. 2006;](#page-312-3) [Beals 1984;](#page-313-3) [Greig-Smith 1983\)](#page-317-2). The structural equation modeling is a powerful multivariate analysis tool that has great potential in ecological research, as data accessibility continues to increase. However, it remains a challenge even though it was introduced to the ecological community decades ago. Regardless of its rapidly increased application in ecological research, well-established models remain rare. In fact, well-established models can serve as a prior model, as this has been extensively used in psychometrics, behavioral science, business, and marketing research. There is an overlooked yet valuable opportunity for ecologists to establish an structural equation modeling representing the complex network of any ecosystem.

3.1.1 Conceptual / Hypothesized Model

The Russian-German scientist Wladimir Koppen in 1900 proposed the most popular system of climatic classification (Köppen 1900). He suggested the different vegetation types based on diverse climatic regions while studying vegetation, precipitation and temperature [\(Köppen et al. 2011\)](#page-321-3). These climatic regions are further divided into various climatic types i.e., tropical [wet (rainfall), monsoon, wet and dry (savanna)], dry (arid & semiarid), mild (Mediterranean, humid subtropical, marine), continental [warm summer, cool summer & subarctic(boreal)] and Polar (tundra & ice cap) climate. Whereas [\(Thornthwaite 1948\)](#page-329-3) realized that precipitation alone is not a good indicator of moisture conditions in an environment. He explained the role of potential evapotranspiration derived from temperature and day length to estimate plants' water needs in a given environment.

The has previously been on plant species as indicators of climatic conditions with very little work done on the impact of pollution on vegetation and their respective

khtunkhwa, Pakistan (Fig. 3.1). For this purpose, the sub
was selected for further study. In this chapter, the main for
occedure/methods for identifying indicator plant species
wel in terms of marble pollution, climate, el indicators. Therefore, keeping this research gap in mind, it was hypothesized that each type of subtropical vegetation zone of marble waste polluted ecosystem, such as Humid, Semi-humid and Dry subtropical, has definite vegetation structure and indicators that can survive, grow and manifest more tolerance to the polluted conditions as compared to other plants in the subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan. The prediction is that (i) marble pollution has a direct positive significant effect on the indicators of each subtropical vegetation zone, (ii) Elevation and soil have a direct negative effect and climate may have a positive/negative significant effect, (iii) marble pollution harms climate and soil, (iv) while elevation and soil both have a positive relation with climate in the subtropical marble waste polluted ecosystem, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan (Fig. 3.1). For this purpose, the subtropical vegetation of MWPE was selected for further study. In this chapter, the main focus is the detailed statistical procedure/methods for identifying indicator plant species at the subtropical MWPE level in terms of marble pollution, climate, elevation and edaphic factors. Indicator species analysis (ISA) was used for the identification of indicator plants in the MWPE. At the same time, both structural equation modeling and canonical correspondence analysis were used to confirm identified indicators via statistical evaluation of the hypothesized multivariate models. The procedure adopted in this chapter could be followed to classify and identify indicator plants of any microhabitat type/ecosystem in any part of the world.

Fig. 3.1 A theoretical model for testing the proposed hypotheses of the current study for the subtropical vegetation of MWPE indicators. Blue and red arrows represent a positive and negative relationship, respectively.

3.2 Materials and Methods

of subtropical MWPE (i.e., Humid, Semi humid and D
showledge about species fidelity with the particular H
vegetation zone of MWPE. The Monte Carlo Test w
significance after determining Indicator Values (%age of
l on combi All the collected data of plants and environmental factors from three subtropical vegetation zones of MWPE were analyzed for understanding the complex relation of indicator plants and MWPE through multivariate statistical packages [\(Lepš and](#page-322-1) [Šmilauer 2003\)](#page-322-1). According to the software's requirements, the absence and presence (0,1) data of all 327 stations and 220 plant species were arranged in the MS Excel sheet. The Two-way Cluster Analysis of PCORD v.5 was used to identify significant subtropical marble waste polluted zones based on pattern similarity index through Sorenson distance measurement and Ward's linkage method [\(Ahmad et al. 2016b;](#page-311-4) [Greig-Smith 1983;](#page-317-2) [Khan et al. 2016\)](#page-320-2). The ISA was carried to find out indicators of each sort of subtropical MWPE (i.e., Humid, Semi humid and Dry subtropical). It provides knowledge about species fidelity with the particular habitat of specific subtropical vegetation zone of MWPE. The Monte Carlo Test was carried out for statistical significance after determining Indicator Values (%age of perfect indication established on combing values of relative abundance and frequency) of respective indicators using method initially adopted in a study at [\(Dufrêne and Legendre 1997\)](#page-315-0). During ISA, a proportional abundance of a specific plant in a particular group, its relative abundance was calculated using the formula given below.

$$
RA_{jk} = \frac{x_{kj}}{\sum_{k=1}^{g} x_{kj}} \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad (i)
$$

Where, RA*jk*=relative abundance, Xk*j*= means an abundance of species *j* in group *k*, *g*=total number of groups.

Then, relative frequency of plants in each group was also calculated i.e., the proportion of sample units in each group that contains that plant species using the below formula. Percent/ faithfulness/ constancy of presence in a particular group is also expressed using these procedures.

 ∑ ……………………. (ii)

Where, RF*kj* is the relative frequency of plant j in group *k*, b*ijk* is presence or absence of plant *j* in sample *i* of group *k, i* is sample unit.

At last, equations i $\&$ ii were gathered multiplication and the results were expressed as percentage yielding indicator value (IV*kj*) for each plant *j* in group *k.*

() ………………. (iii)

A threshold level of 25% indication and 95% significance ($p \le 0.05$) was deliberated as a cut off value for determining the indicators. Once the significant indicators were identified, the direct gradient analysis i.e., CCA, was performed using CANOCO software to examine, reconfirm and draw the substantial and distinct indicators of each sort of subtropical vegetation zone of MWPE. CCA analyzes the indicator plants relation by multiple linear regression with environmental gradients and gives us an interpretable graphical presentation of species response environmental variables [\(Dufrêne and Legendre 1997;](#page-315-0) [Ter Braak and Prentice 1988\)](#page-329-0).

3.2.1 Diversity Indices, Species richness and evenness

versity Indices, Species richness and evenness
indices provide a mathematical estimation of plant spectrum
matrices i.e., Shannon Index (H'), Simpson Index (D), 3
1-D) and Pielou's Evenness (J) were calculated (Pielon
hann Diversity indices provide a mathematical estimation of plant species diversity in a community. This gives us more information concerning community composition. The diversity indices i.e., Shannon Index (H'), Simpson Index (D), Simpson Index of diversity (1-D) and Pielou's Evenness (J) were calculated [\(Pielou 1966;](#page-326-3) [Simpson](#page-328-4) [1949\)](#page-328-4).

3.2.1.1 Shannon Index (H')

The Shannon index is usually used to know about plant species diversity in a particular community. It determines both the evenness and abundance of plant species present in a community. The Shannon index of diversity was calculated using below formula:

 ∑ ̇ ………………….. (iv)

Where, H^{'=} Shannon Index, S= Total number of species in sample/community/zone (species richness), pi= Relative abundance of each species.

3.2.1.2 Simpson Index (D)

The Simpson index is also the measurement of plant species diversity. It was calculated using the below equation:

 () () …………………….. (v)

Where, D=Simpson index, $n=$ total number of any particular plant species, $N=$ Total number of all species.

3.2.1.3 Simpson Index of diversity (1-D)

The Simpson index of diversity was determined using 1-D (D is Simpson index). Its value range between 0-1.

3.2.1.4 Pielou's Evenness (J) / Species Evenness

The Pielou's evenness index was used to determine the evenness of plant species using the below equation.

………………….. (vi)

Where, J= Pielou evenness, H'= Calculated Shannon Index, Hmax= $ln(s)$ [species diversity under maximum equitability].

3.2.1.5 Species richness

The species richness was calculated using the below equation (Menhinick, 1964).

$$
d=\frac{s}{\sqrt{N}}, \ldots, \ldots, \ldots, \ldots, \ldots, \mathrm{(vii)}
$$

Where, s=total number of species, N=total number of individuals and d=species richness

3.2.2 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

DRSML QAU The SEM was designed to examine the research hypothesis via the structural relation among observed variables and different plant indicators in subtropical (Humid, Semihumid and Dry) MWPE using R software. First, we have normalized and standardized the observed variables data as per the requirements of the structural equation model. The relationship among the explanatory variables was checked through the calculation of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). The SEM with random effect was assessed for all three subtropical MWPE in order to avoid circulatory analyses in the model. First, we addressed the impact of marble pollution, climate, elevation and soil at three (Humid, Semi-humid and Dry) subtropical MWPE, separately and then combinedly through SEM using the hypothesized model (Fig. 3.1.1). We assessed Chi-square Statistics (X^2) , Goodness of Model Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Model Fit Index (AGFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standard Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) for the goodness of model fit for SEM.

Mathematical representations of the general and specific SEM are as follow:

Y= **β0+ β1Z+ Ԑi**………………………………………. (viii)

Y= β_0 + $\sum_{i=1}^{19} \beta_i$ (Xpollution + Xclimate + Xsoil + Xelevation) + Ei (ix)

on, β_1 disclose the coefficient of variable z, ϵ_i represe in the model or error term in the equation, β_i represents the set of variables. Equation (viii) shows the general structural equation model and equation (ix) specific model of our study. Where, **Y** represent indicator species, **β0** denote the intercept of the equation, β_1 disclose the coefficient of variable z, ϵ_i represent the unobserved variations in the model or error term in the equation, **βi** represents the coefficient of latent variables.

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Species area curves

PC-ORD version 5 was used to classify plant species into potential plant zones. The first test performed was a species-area curve. This was drawn to examine whether the sample size was adequate or not. It has mostly been utilized in the science of vegetation ecology to realize species composition with sample size. Plant abundance data with Sorensen distance values were used to create species-area curves for 327 quadrats/stations and 220 species. The first-order jack-knife estimate was observed at station number 274, followed by the second-order jack-knife at station number 303. A total of 54 plant species were recorded, with only one occurrence in the studied region. It showed that the maximum number of plant species appearing up to station number 274 (i.e., 210 within an average distance of 0.039). The average number of plant species occurring at station number 303 was 216 with an average distance of 0.024 and then the species curves become parallel with only four more species at the end. This proved that there had been adequate sampling in the targeted region (Appendix table 4; Fig. 3.2).

Fig. 3.2 The species-area curves of 220 plant species distributed among 327 stations in the MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

3.3.2 Indicator of MWPE/ Vegetation classification of MWPE

The detailed description of each subtropical vegetation zone of MWPE and their distinctive indicator plants are as follows:

3.3.2.1 Humid subtropical vegetation zone of MWPE

The Cosman matural, expertise that

ion and neutral soil pH in the humid subtropical zone

cosystem (Table 3.1). Other indicators of this humid subtralitissima, Salix tetrasperma, Diospyros lotus,

special area, Pinus wal The indicator species were identified using indicator species analysis. The topmost indicators of this Humid subtropical MWPE were *Ficus carica* L., *Catharanthus roseus* (L.) G.Don and *Erigeron canadensis* L. along with indicator value $> 20\%$ and Probability value < 0.05 after the Indicator Species Analysis (ISA) [\(Fig. 3.3;](#page-135-0) [Fig. 3.4;](#page-136-0) [Fig. 3.5;](#page-137-0) Appendix table 5). These were the indicators of higher precipitation (138mm/ annum), copper, cadmium, lower calcium, phosphorous concentration and neutral soil pH in the humid subtropical zone of marble waste polluted ecosystem (Table 3.1). Other indicators of this humid subtropical zone were *Ailanthus altissima*, *Salix tetrasperma*, *Diospyros lotus*, *Punica granatum*, *Prunus persica*, *Pinus wallichiana*, *Amaranthus viridis*, *Eleusine indica*, *Brachiaria ramosa*, *Persicaria barbata*, *Solanum americanum*, *Echinochloa colona*, *Paspalum distichum*, *Tagetes erecta*, *Setaria viridis*, *Sorghum halepense*, *Oenothera rosea*, *Setaria pumila*, *Plantago major*, *Digera muricata*, *Rumex nepalensis, Arundo donax* and *Artemisia vulgaris* having IV≥20% and probability ≤ 0.05 (Table 3.4).

In more depth, all the Humid vegetation zone of MWPE indicators were influenced by different climatic, topographic and soil physicochemical conditions. It can be one of the foremost factors of distinct indicator species of this subtropical zone. Soil pH ranges from 7.38-9.3, EC deviated from 31-233.3 ppm, TDS varied from 33-356 ppm, OM ambit from 0.47-0.83%, CaCO₃ 0.48-17%, Ni 1.25-25.98 ppm, Cr 10.87-71.66 ppm, Cu 10.1-91.68 ppm, Mn 3.23-131.65 ppm, Cd orbit from 48.19-54.15 ppm, Zn 32.88-146.48 ppm, Fe ambit from 54.05-258.38 ppm, K 134.28-659.04 ppm, P 3.02- 7.74 ppm, Mg array from 1.54-333.42 ppm, Ca 2.76-370.91 ppm, Mean Annual Temperature 20.88-29.46 °C and Precipitation 138.033 mm in the Humid subtropical region (Appendix table 6; Fig. S1).

Table 3.1 The topmost indicator species in relation to significant measured variables along with respective indicator value (IV), probability (p-value) and total importance value index in the humid MWPE.

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Fig. 3.3 The data attribute plots of *Ficus carica* (1st indicator) of the humid MWPE in relation to measured environmental factors after CCA of CANOCO software's reconfirming the identification of ISA graphically.

Fig. 3.4 The data attribute plots of *Catharanthus roseus* (2nd indicator) of humid MWPE in relation to different environmental variables after CCA of CANOCO software's.

Fig. 3.5 The data attribute plots of *Erigeron canadensis* (3rd indicator) of humid MWPE with respect to various environmental factors.

3.3.2.2 Semi-Humid subtropical vegetation zone of MWPE

The topmost three indicator species of this semi-humid subtropical were *Morus nigra* L., *Datura innoxia* and *Persicaria glabra* (Willd.) M.Gómez one each from trees, shrubs and herbs, respectively [\(Fig. 3.6;](#page-140-0) [Fig. 3.7;](#page-141-0) [Fig. 3.8;](#page-142-0) Appendix table 5 & Fig. 3.3.6-8). These were the indicators of a moderate amount of precipitation $(31mm)$, temperature, CaCO₃ and phosphorous, lower potassium, cadmium, manganese and neutral soil pH compared to other subtropical MWPE [\(Table 3.2\)](#page-139-0). The other characteristic species of this vegetation zone were *Populus alba*, *Albizia lebbeck*, *Mangifera indica*, *Ziziphus jujuba*, *Celtis australis*, *Ficus palmata, Senna occidentalis, Adiantum capillus-veneris, Chenopodium album, Dactyloctenium aegyptium, Achyranthes aspera, Persicaria maculosa, Adiantum incisum, Euphorbia hirta, Juncus maritimus, Cortaderia selloana, Cheilanthes acrostica, Rumex dentatus, Poa annua, Typha angustifolia, Verbena officinalis, Saccharum spontaneum* and *Colocasia esculenta* [\(Table 3.4\)](#page-148-0).

nium aegyptium, Achyranthes aspera, Persicaria mac

Euphorbia hirta, Juncus maritimus, Constantinalis, Saccharum spontaneum and Colocasia esculen

re, soil pH of this semi humid subtropical zone of MWP

luctuates from 21.2 Furthermore, soil pH of this semi humid subtropical zone of MWPE varies from 7.8- 9.64, EC fluctuates from 21.2-268 ppm, TDS ranges from 24-372 ppm, OM deviates from 0.47-0.83%, CaCO₃ stretch from 0.30-17.62 %, Ni ambit from 5.01-50.55 ppm, Cr 0.11-46.78 ppm, Cu extent from 3.51-51.48 ppm, Mn 0.67-120.67 ppm, Cd 0.59- 56.93 ppm, Zn 0.7-147.19 ppm, Fe 14.02-225.28 ppm, K 3.44-346.69 ppm, P 3.18- 7.96 ppm, Mg 23.114-702.47 ppm, Ca 2.4-643.85 ppm, temperature 19.75-37.46 ᵒC and precipitation 31.66-64.13mm (Appendix table 6; Fig. S1).

Table 3.2 The topmost indicator species with respect to significant environmental factors, total importance value index, indicator and probability values of semi humid subtropical MWPE.

Fig. 3.6 Data attribute plot of *Morus nigra* (1st indicator) of Semi humid subtropical MWPE in conjunction with measured environmental factors.

Fig. 3.7 Data attribute plot of *Datura innoxia* (2nd indicator) in relation with measured edaphic, climatic and topographic factors in Semi humid subtropical MWPE.

Fig. 3.8 Data attribute plot of *Persicaria glabra* (3rd indicator) in relation to measured environmental variables in the Semi humid MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

3.3.2.3 Dry subtropical vegetation zone of MWPE

The topmost plant indicators of this dry subtropical MWPE were *Dalbergia sissoo* DC., *Withania somnifera* (L.) Dunal and *Saccharum bengalense* Retz. after the ISA [\(Fig. 3.9;](#page-145-0) [Fig. 3.10;](#page-146-0) [Fig. 3.11;](#page-147-0) Appendix table 5). These were the indicator species of higher temperature $(38^{\circ}C)$, electrical conductivity, moderate $CaCO₃$, low precipitation, pH, iron, copper, nickel and zinc concentration in the dry subtropical region [\(Table 3.3\)](#page-144-0). Other characteristics species included *Prosopis juliflora* (Sw.) DC., *Tamarix aphylla*, *Tribulus pentandrus*, *Ricinus communis*, *Dodonaea viscosa*, *Rumex hastatus*, *Cynodon dactylon*, *Desmostachya bipinnata*, *Artemisia persica*, *Dysphania nepalensis*, *Euphorbia prostrata*, *Sonchus oleraceus*, *Chenopodium murale*, *Heliotropium europaeum*, *Boerhavia diffusa*, *Solanum surattense*, *Cucumis melo var agrestis* and *Dysphania ambrosioides* (Table 3.4).

prostrata, Sonchus oleraceus, Che

um europaeum, Boerhavia diffusa, Solanum surattense,

d Dysphania ambrosioides (Table 3.4).

ironmental factors change it sustains growth of various

H of this Dry subtropical zone deviat When environmental factors change it sustains growth of various indicator species. The soil pH of this Dry subtropical zone deviate from 7.82-9.77, EC 1.84-371 ppm, TDS turn from 18-387 ppm, OM 0.48-0.83 %, CaCO₃ 0.35-17.49%, Ni ridge from 6.11-50.24 ppm, Cr 0.34-54.91 ppm, Cu 4.03-45.58 ppm, Mn varies from 0.35-93 ppm, Cd 0.86-55.27 ppm, Zn fluctuates from 2.61-148.55 ppm, Fe 0.38-276.05 ppm, K 6.75-557.94 ppm, P differ from 3.17-7.98 ppm, Mg 13.49-701.14 ppm, Ca range from 17.54-629.97 ppm, mean annual temperature 19.44-39.15 °C and 6.35-55.66 mm precipitation (Appendix table 6; Fig. S1).
Table 3.3 The foremost three indicators species along with significant environmental variables and their respective indicator & probability values and total importance value index in the Dry MWPE.

RSM.

Fig. 3.9 Data attribute plot of *Dalbergia sissoo* (1st indicator) in relation to measured environmental variables in the Dry subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

Fig. 3.10 Data attribute plot of *Withania somnifera* (2nd indicator) in relation with measured edaphic, climatic and topographic factors in Dry subtropical MWPE.

Fig. 3.11 Data attribute plot of *Saccharum bengalense* (3rd indicator) of Dry subtropical MWPE in conjunction with measured environmental factors.

Botanical Names	Variables	IV	P	T-IVI
	Humid Subtropical MWPE			
Ailanthus altissima	Elevation	28.8	0.0444	1058.76
	pH	57.2	0.0006	
	Mn	41	0.023	
Platanus orientalis	CaCO ₃	40	0.0052	119.94
Senna occidentalis	Zn	15.4	0.0396	252.52
Taraxacum officinale	Ca	37.1	0.026	542.54
Amaranthus viridis	TDS	$87.\overline{8}$	0.0016	521.98
Cannabis sativa	Elevation	31.7	0.0058	490.23
Echinochloa colona	Zn	18.5	0.0588	201.22
Persicaria barbata	Zn	24.1	0.0242	182.61
Paspalum distichum	Temperature	14.9	0.0392	134.89
Tagetes erecta	Mg	86.5	0.0032	130.46
	Ca ²	23.8	0.0526	
Polygonum plebeium	$\overline{Z}n$	19.8	0.029	113.78
Oenothera rosea	pH	32.9	0.0116	98.98
	TDS	46.5	0.0092	
	EC	46.4	0.0212	
Setaria pumila	Mn	19	0.0542	96.64
Plantago major	CaCO ₃	41.7	0.015	95.77
Ipomoea purpurea	Temperature	21.5	0.0358	85.74
Digera muricata	Mn	19.6	0.0504	66.40
Luffa cylindrica	Cr	13.6	0.0306	57.98
	Ni	95.3	0.0014	
Rumex nepalensis	EC	31.8	0.0164	48.05
Nasturtium officinale	Mn	19	0.0542	35.13
Digitaria ciliaris	Mg	46.1	0.0428	23.76
	pH	25	0.0172	
	OM	16.7	0.0316	

Table 3.4 Other indicator species of the three identified subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

3.3.3 Species richness and Diversity Indices

International Species Scheme Species Scheme Species Scheme Scheme Species in

1 for Semi humid (H'=4.112) followed by Humid

1 for Semi humid (H'=4.112) followed by Humid

1 vegetation zone (3.852). The Simpson Index value The species richness values ambit from 124 to 159 plant species in these three major subtropical vegetation zones of MWPE. The highest Shannon Diversity Index was determined for Semi humid $(H²=4.112)$ followed by Humid (3.896) and Dry subtropical vegetation zone (3.852). The Simpson Index values, i.e., 0.964, 0.963 and 0.948, were determined for Humid, Semi humid, and Dry subtropical zones. At the same time, the Simpson Index of diversity was recorded between 0.036-0.052. The Semi humid subtropical vegetation zone has maximum Pielou's Evenness Index (0.811) followed by Humid (0.808) and Dry subtropical zones (0.773) [\(Table 3.5\)](#page-152-0).

S.	Subtropical	Species	Shannon		Simpson	Pielou's
No.	Vegetation	Richness	Index	Simpson	Index of	Evenness
	Zones		(H')	Index(D)	diversity	H'/Hmax
					$(1-D)$	
	Humid	124	3.896	0.964	0.036	0.808
2	Semi Humid	159	4.112	0.963	0.037	0.811
3	Dry	146	3.852	0.948	0.052	0.773

Table 3.5 Diversity indices of all the three subtropical vegetation zones.

3.3.4 Direct ecological gradient through Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA)

The plant indicators of different subtropical vegetation zone of MWPE were again confirmed by CCA. The direct ecological gradient analysis resulted that the precipitation, temperature, elevation, and soil (pH, EC, TDS, P, K, OM, CaCO₃, Ni, Cd, Cr, Mg, Ca, Mn, Cu, Zn) have a significant impact ($p=0.0002$) on indicator plants diversity of subtropical MWPE [\(Table 3.6\)](#page-153-0). Like, indicator species of the Humid subtropical MWPE were clustered under the influence of higher precipitation, elevation, Cd, low temperature and alkaline soil pH. Whereas indicator species of Semi humid subtropical MWPE were under the impact of moderate amount of precipitation, temperature, nearly neutral soil pH, higher Mg and organic matter concentration compared to other subtropical zones. The indicators of Dry subtropical vegetation zones were under the consequence of low precipitation, elevation, higher temperature, EC and soil pH compared to other zones (Fig. 3.12).

Table 3.6 Summary of direct ecological gradient through Canonical Correspondence Analysis.

Fig. 3.12 CCA biplot presenting the distribution of indicator species in relation to measured environmental variables.

3.3.5 Structural Equation Modelling and reconfirmation of indicator species

SEM is mainly used for research that is designed to confirm a research study design. Therefore, we have used linear SEM to ensure indicator species that were identified through ISA, DCA and CCA. A detailed description of it is as follows:

3.3.5.1 SEM of Humid Subtropical MWPE

 $= 0.32$), while the climate has a significant and positive
of the region (Table 3.7 & Fig. 3.13). Regarding the G
odel is considered as a good fit because all the value
value (0.757), Goodness of Fit Statistic (GFI) (0.9 SEM again confirmed the identified indicators of humid subtropical MWPE. It revealed that marble pollution has a positive significant (β = 0.26) impact on the occurrence of identified indicator species. Whereas, elevation (β = -0.19), soil (β = -0.20) and climate (β = -0.07) have an insignificant negative impact on indicators. The impact amongst mediators such as elevation has a significant positive effect on climate (β = 0.32), while the climate has a significant and positive impact upon soil $(\beta = 0.35)$ of the region (Table 3.7 & Fig. 3.13). Regarding the Goodness of Model Fit, our model is considered as a good fit because all the values, i.e., Chi-square (8.096), P-value (0.757), Goodness of Fit Statistic (GFI) (0.997), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Statistic (AGFI) (0.986), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (0.925), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) (0.009), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (0.0001), Bentler-Bonett Index or Normed Fit Index (NFI) (0.996), Tucker Lewis Index or Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI) (0.947) and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) (554.97) determined at a significant level [\(Table 3.8\)](#page-156-1). We have also calculated the direct, indirect and combined effect of marble pollution on indicator species. It showed that the direct impact of predictor was higher than the indirect effect (Table 3.3.9). The marble pollution has both direct and indirect positive effects on indicator plants. While soil, elevation and climate have direct negative and indirect positive effects except for climate (i.e., negative) [\(Table 3.9;](#page-157-0) [Fig. 3.14\)](#page-159-0).

Table 3.7 The detail of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) linking indicators, climate, soil, elevation and marble pollution in the humid subtropical MWPE.

Table 3.8 Model Fit Indices and their respective values after SEM in order to check the goodness of model fit.

2.8187 Soil 0.3517 0.1248 6 Climate -0.2774 Soil Pollution $\overline{7}$ 0.1182 -0.0328 Elevation 0.1193 Climate 0.3217 8 2.6966 0.1193 Climate Pollution 9 -0.0344 -0.2884 Significant codes: $0 = ***$, $0.001 = **$, $0.01 =$ Table 3.8 Model Fit Indices and their respective values after SEM in order the goodness of model fit. Model Fit Indices S. No. Value Chi-sq 8.096 1 P-value $\overline{2}$ 0.757 Goodness of Fit Statistic (GFI) 3 0.997 Adjusted Goodness of Fit Statistic (AGFI) $\overline{4}$ 0.986 Comparative Fit Index (CFI) 5 0.925 Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) 0.009 6 Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) 0.0001 7 Bentler-Bonett Index or Normed Fit Index (NFI) 8 0.996 Tucker Lewis Index or Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI) 9 0.947 Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) 554.971 10									
									0.00
									0.78
									0.00
									$\overline{0.7'}$

Table 3.9 Summary of SEM representing the direct, indirect and combined impact of marble pollution, soil, climate and elevation on the indicators of humid MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

Fig. 3.13 Structural Equation Modeling showing the impact of marble pollution, climate, soil and elevation on indicator species of humid subtropical MWPE. Blue and red arrows represent the significant positive and negative paths, while dashed arrows comprehended the non-significant paths/effects. The standardized coefficient (β) has been shown.

Fig. 3.14 The direct and indirect effects (standardized coefficient) derived from SEM of marble pollution, soil, elevation and climate in the humid MWPE.

3.3.5.2 SEM of Semi Humid Subtropical MWPE

DRSML QAU SEM again confirmed the identified indicators of the semi-humid subtropical MWPE. It revealed that the occurrence of these indicator species decreases with an increase in marble pollution (β =-0.25). This decrease may be due to a large number of marble factories in the region. At the same time, the elevation (β = -0.30) and soil (β = -0.21) have a significant negative effect on indicator species of the region. The elevation and marble pollution have a significant negative impact on soil (β = -0.23) and climate $(\beta = -0.24)$, respectively [\(Table 3.10;](#page-160-0) [Fig. 3.15\)](#page-162-0). The recorded Chi-square (7.443), pvalue (0.506), GFI (0.998), AGFI (0.969), CFI (0.971), SRMR (0.014), RMSEA (0.0001), NFI (0.991), NNFI (0.967) and AIC (1143.44) showed that our model is the best fit. The total/combined effect of marble pollution is higher than the indirect and direct effect on the identified indicator species of the region. The direct and indirect effects of all the predicted variables followed the same pattern (i.e., negative) except marble pollution (i.e., negative for direct and positive for indirect) on the occurrence of semi-humid indicators (Table 3.12; 3.16).

Table 3.10 SEM representing the impact of explanatory on the indicator species of semi-humid subtropical MWPE. The significant effects are shown in bold and stared.

S. No.			Standardized			
			co-efficient	S.E. of		
	Response	Predictor	(β)	β	t-value	p-value
$\mathbf{1}$	Indicator	Pollution	-0.2479	0.0873	-2.8384	0.0052 **
$\overline{2}$	Indicator	Elevation	-0.2974	0.0867	-3.432	$0.0008***$
$\overline{3}$	Indicator	Soil	-0.2137	0.0818	-2.6113	0.0101 [*]
$\overline{4}$	Indicator	Climate	-0.0623	0.0805	-0.7738	0.4404
5	Soil	Elevation	-0.2258	0.0894	-2.527	0.0127 *
6	Soil	Climate	0.0557	0.0848	0.6562	0.5128
$\overline{7}$	Soil	Pollution	-0.1127	0.0917	-1.2298	0.2209
8	Climate	Elevation	-0.0007	0.0907	-0.0079	0.9937
9	Climate Significant codes: $0 = ***$, $0.001 = **$, $0.01 =$	Pollution	-0.241	0.0907	-2.658	0.0088^{47}

139

S. No.	Model Fit Indices	Value
	Chi-sq	7.443
2	P-value	0.506
3	Goodness of Fit Statistic (GFI)	0.998
$\overline{4}$	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Statistic (AGFI)	0.969
5	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.971
6	Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	0.014
$\overline{7}$	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.0001
8	Bentler-Bonett Index or Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.991
9	Tucker Lewis Index or Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.967
10	Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)	1143.44

Table 3.11 Result of model fit indices showing the goodness of model fit for semihumid SEM.

Table 3.12 Summary of SEM representing the direct, indirect and combined impact of marble pollution, soil, climate and elevation on the indicators of semi-humid MWPE. The significant effects are highlighted in bold.

	8		Bentler-Bonett Index or Normed Fit Index (NFI)		0.991				
	9		Tucker Lewis Index or Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)				0.967		
	10		Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)				1143.44		
	Table 3.12 Summary of SEM representing the direct, indirect and combined impact of								
			marble pollution, soil, climate and elevation on the indicators of semi-humid MWPE.						
			The significant effects are highlighted in bold.						
S.				Path	Effect				$p-$
No.	Response	Mediator	Predictor	label		β	S.E.	t-vale	value
1	Indicators	--	Pollution	a	Direct	-0.248	0.086	-2.887	0.004
$\overline{2}$	Indicators	--	Soil	$\mathbf b$	Direct	-0.214	0.08	-2.664	0.008
3	Indicators	\overline{a}	Elevation	$\mathbf c$	Direct	-0.297	0.085	-3.496	0.0001
$\overline{4}$	Indicators	44	Climate	d	Direct	-0.062	0.079	-0.79	0.43
$\overline{5}$	Soil	Ē.	Pollution	$\mathbf e$	Direct	-0.126	0.088	-1.43	0.153
6	Climate		Pollution	$\mathbf f$	Direct	-0.241	0.09	-2.687	0.007
$\overline{7}$	Soil	--	Elevation	${\bf g}$	Direct	-0.226	0.088	-2.561	0.01
8	Climate	--	Elevation	$\mathbf h$	Direct	-0.001	0.09	-0.008	0.994
9	Indicators	Soil	Pollution	e^*b	Indirect	0.027	0.021	1.26	0.208
10	Indicators	Climate	Pollution	f*d	Indirect	0.015	0.02	0.758	0.449
11	Indicators	Climate	Elevation	h*d	Indirect	0.001	0.006	0.008	0.994
12	Indicators	Soil	Elevation	g^*b	Indirect	0.048	0.026	1.846	0.065
		Direct +		$a+(e*b)$					
13	Indicators	Indirect	Pollution	$+(f^*d)$	Total	-0.737	0.156	-4.719	0.0001
		Direct +		$c+(g*b)$					
14	Indicators	Indirect	Elevation	$+(h^*d)$	Total	-0.574	0.136	-4.183	0.0001

Fig. 3.15 SEM representing the influence of marble pollution, climate, soil and elevation on indicator species of semi-humid subtropical MWPE. Blue and red arrows represent the significant positive and negative paths, while dashed arrows comprehended the non-significant paths/effects. The standardized coefficient (β) has been shown.

Fig. 3.16 The direct and indirect effects (standardized coefficient) obtained from SEM of marble pollution, soil, elevation and climate in the semi-humid MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

3.3.5.3 SEM of Dry Subtropical MWPE

Frame the elevation has a positive significant indirect effect
pecies of dry subtropical MWPE. The indirect impact of
pecies of dry subtropical MWPE. The indirect impact of
il and climate mediator was recorded higher (β The SEM comprehended that the marble pollution (β = 0.18) has a significantly positive and climate (β = -0.24) has a significantly negative effect on the plant indicators of this MWPE. The soil (β = 0.19) has a positive nearly significant impact and elevation (β = -0.08) has an insignificant negative influence on the identified indicator species. While the climate (β = 0.28) has positive and pollution (β = -0.20) has a significant negative effect on the soil of this region [\(Table 3.13;](#page-164-0) [Fig. 3.17\)](#page-166-0). The Goodness of Model Fit was recorded as Chi-square (2.767), p-value (0.096), GFI (0.988), AGFI (0.916), CFI (0.982), SRMR (0.027), RMSEA (0.012), NFI (0.974), NNFI (0.936) and AIC (962.96) through the most popular fit statistics [\(Table 3.14\)](#page-165-0). Furthermore, the elevation has a positive significant indirect effect via climate on the indicator species of dry subtropical MWPE. The indirect impact of marble pollution through soil and climate mediator was recorded higher (β = 0.58) than direct (β = 0.18) and combined effect (β = 0.51) on indicator species (Table 3.15). Both direct and indirect effect of marble pollution has a positive impact on indicator species of the region. While soil has positive direct & negative indirect effects, elevation and climate have a negative direct and positive indirect impact on the occurrence of indicator species of dry subtropical MWPE (Fig. 3.18).

Significant codes: $0 = ***$, $0.001 = **$, $0.01 =$ *

S. No.	Model Fit Indices	Value
	$Chi-sq$	2.767
2	P-value	0.096
3	Goodness of Fit Statistic (GFI)	0.988
$\overline{4}$	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Statistic (AGFI)	0.916
5	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.982
6	Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	0.027
$\overline{7}$	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.012
8	Bentler-Bonett Index or Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.974
9	Tucker Lewis Index or Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.936
10	Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)	962.968

Table 3.14 The precise determination of model fit indices for the goodness of model fit for the identified indicators of dry subtropical MWPE.

Table 3.15 The direct, indirect and combined impact of marble pollution, soil, climate and elevation after SEM on the indicators of dry subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

	8		Bentler-Bonett Index or Normed Fit Index (NFI)				0.974			
	9		Tucker Lewis Index or Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)				0.936			
	10		Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)				962.968			
	Table 3.15 The direct, indirect and combined impact of marble pollution, soil, climate									
			and elevation after SEM on the indicators of dry subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.							
S.				Path					$p-$	
No.	Response	Mediator	Predictor	Iabel	Effect	β	S.E.	t-vale	value	
$\mathbf{1}$	IVI	$-$	Pollution	\rm{a}	Direct	0.183	0.089	2.047	0.041	
$\overline{2}$	IVI	$-$	Soil	$\mathbf b$	Direct	0.194	0.096	2.014	0.044	
$\overline{3}$	IVI	--	Elevation	\mathbf{c}	Direct	-0.089	0.116	-0.769	0.442	
$\overline{4}$	IVI		Climate	$\mathbf d$	Direct	-0.245	0.121	-2.021	0.043	
5	Soil	۷	Pollution	$\mathbf e$	Direct	-0.18	0.082	-2.211	0.027	
6	Climate	$-$	Pollution	\overline{f}	Direct	-0.03	0.069	-0.441	0.659	
$\overline{7}$	Soil	--	Climate	\mathbf{i}	Direct	0.399	0.082	4.898	0.001	
8	Climate	$-$	Elevation	$\mathbf h$	Direct	-0.657	0.069	-9.569	0.001	
					Indirect					
					(single					
9	IVI	Soil	Pollution	eb	path)	0.035	0.023	1.489	0.137	
					Indirect					
					(single					
10	IVI	Climate	Pollution	fd	path) Indirect	-0.007	0.017	-0.431	0.666	
					(single)					
11	IVI	Climate	Elevation	hd	path)	0.161	0.081	1.978	0.048	
					Indirect					
		Climate,			(Multiple					
12	IVI	Soil	Pollution	$f+(i*b)$	paths)	0.58	0.08	7.227	0.001	

Fig. 3.17 SEM representing the influence of marble pollution, climate, soil and elevation on indicator species of dry subtropical MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan

Fig. 3.18 The direct and indirect effects (standardized coefficient) acquired from structural equation modeling of marble pollution, soil, elevation and climate in the dry subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

3.3.5.4 SEM and Goodness of the Model Fit for all identified MWPE indicators

to a decrease in marble pollution. At the same time
mpact on the climate $(\beta = -0.58)$ of MWPE (Table 3.1
of Model Fit was recorded as Chi-square (26.435),
of Fit Statistic (GFI) (0.960), Adjusted Goodness of Fi
comparative SEM was carried out to further examine and verify the indicators of the whole subtropical MWPE that were identified based on ISA and CCA results. Our hypothesis of subtropical MWPE indicators is based on equations viii & ix. The SEM revealed that the pollution has a significant positive impact on the occurrence of identified indicators (β = 0.23) and significant negative effects on soil (β = -0.22) and climate (β = -0.58) of subtropical MWPE. While soil (β = -0.03), climate (β = 0.03) and elevation (β = 0.06) have insignificant influence on the identified indicators of the region. The elevation has a significant positive influence on soil (β = 0.16) and climate (β = 0.60). With an increase in elevation, soil condition and climate become better due to a decrease in marble pollution. At the same time, pollution has a negative impact on the climate (β = -0.58) of MWPE (Table 3.16; [Fig. 3.19\)](#page-171-0). The Goodness of Model Fit was recorded as Chi-square (26.435), P-value (0.153), Goodness of Fit Statistic (GFI) (0.960), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Statistic (AGFI) (0.943), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (0.971), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) (0.049), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (0.079), Bentler-Bonett Index or Normed Fit Index (NFI) (0.960), Tucker Lewis Index or Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI) (0.959) and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) (2534.551) through the most popular fit statistics which indicates our model is perfectly fit (Table 3.17). We have also determined the direct, indirect and combined effect of all measured variables on the occurrence of indicator species of MWPE. It showed that the pollution has a direct, indirect and combined effect (≤ 0.0001) on the indicator species of subtropical MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. Overall, marble pollution has a more significant impact on the indicator of MWPE than other explanatory variables [\(Fig. 3.20\)](#page-172-0).

Table 3.16 The detail of SEM of identified plant indicators in the subtropical MWPE in relation to marble pollution, soil, climate and elevation explanatory variables.

Table 3.17 Summary of Goodness of Model Fit of SEM of indicators in the subtropical MWPE.

Elevation	Climate	0.5955	0.5955	0.0499	11.935.			
Soil	Climate	0.2478	0.2478	0.0618	4.0132			
Soil	Pollution	-0.2245	-0.2245	0.0618	-3.635			
Climate	Pollution	-0.5773	-0.5773	0.0453	-12.745			
	Significant codes: $0 = ***$, $0.001 = **$, $0.01 =$ subtropical MWPE.		Table 3.17 Summary of Goodness of Model Fit of SEM of indicator					
S. No.	Model Fit Indices				Value			
$\mathbf{1}$	Chi-sq 26.435							
$\overline{2}$	P-value				0.153			
$\overline{3}$		Goodness of Fit Statistic (GFI)			0.960			
$\overline{4}$		Adjusted Goodness of Fit Statistic (AGFI)			0.943			
5		Comparative Fit Index (CFI)			0.971			
6			Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)		0.049			
$\overline{7}$	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) 0.079							
8	Bentler-Bonett Index or Normed Fit Index (NFI) 0.960							
9	Tucker Lewis Index or Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI) 0.959							
10	Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) 2534.551							

Table 3.18 Summary of SEM representing the direct, indirect and combined impact of marble pollution, soil, climate and elevation on the indicators of subtropical MWPE, KPK.

Fig. 3.19 Structural Equation Modeling of the indicator species in subtropical MWPE in relation to marble pollution, soil, climate and elevation environmental factors.

Fig. 3.20 The direct and indirect effects (standardized coefficient) obtained from SEM of marble pollution, soil, elevation and climate in the subtropical MWPE, KPK, Pakistan.

3.4 Discussion

The occurrence and behavior of a plant species are the result of combinations of all factors prevailing in any geographic region. Several plants, animals and microorganisms have certain specific environmental requirements which limit their distribution and composition. These specific geographic features mark particular communities/niches of flora and fauna. Hence, climatic and geographic gradients have a significant role in the determination of vegetation of a particular region [\(Pitt and](#page-326-0) [Heady 1978;](#page-326-0) [Xu et al. 2004\)](#page-331-0).

This chapter revealed the impact of marble pollution, climate, elevation and edaphic factors on the formation of different types of subtropical marble waste polluted plant communities using multivariate statistical approaches. The TWCA further classified the subtropical vegetation into Humid, Semi-humid and Dry subtropical vegetation based on similar floristic composition and variation in climatic, edaphic and topographic factors. These environmental gradients have supreme importance in determining vegetation (Pitt and Heady 1978; Xu et al. 2004).

the set university of states and the reflection into the rest using multivariate statistical approaches. The TWCA
pical vegetation into Humid, Semi-humid and Dry subt
similar floristic composition and variation in clima
c The humid subtropical MWPE indicators (*Ficus carica*, *Catharanthus roseus* and *Erigeron canadensis*) were under the impact of higher precipitation, marble pollution and edaphic (higher copper, cadmium, zinc, lower calcium, phosphorous concentration and neutral soil pH) variables in the current study. This means that marble pollution, higher precipitation and the above-mentioned edaphic features have a more significant role in the shape and structure of this humid subtropical vegetation. These phenomena were again reconfirmed two times with the help of CCA and SEM. The Humid subtropical vegetation has a higher Simpson Index as compared to other subtropical vegetation zones.

At the same time, the semi-humid subtropical MWPE indicators (Table 3.3.2-3) encompassed higher marble pollution, a moderate amount of precipitation (31mm), temperature, phosphorous, lower potassium, cadmium, manganese, and neutral soil pH compared to other subtropical MWPE with higher species richness, Shannon and Pielou's Evenness indices.

The indicator species (Table 3.3.2 & 3.3.4) of Dry subtropical MWPE was under the influence of higher temperature $(38^{\circ}C)$, electrical conductivity, moderate CaCO₃, low precipitation, pH, iron, copper, nickel and zinc concentration. Likewise, plant

Its reputation as an indicator was first described by (Sk
rmed by field investigation (Brooks and Radford 1978; c
al. 1965). Whereas, *Agathis ovata* is more liable to be co
and magnesium concentration. *Acacia athens*, *G* indicators of mineral deposits were also reported by [\(Brooks 1979\)](#page-313-0). According to him, *Krascheninnikovia ceratoides*, *Salsola nitraria* and *Limonium suffruticosum* were the boron mineral indicators. *Crotalaria cobalticola*, *Haumaniastrum robertii* and *Silene cobalticola* were the universal indicators of the cobalt and copper deposits [\(Duvigneaud 1959\)](#page-315-0). *S. cobalticola* restricted to grow in copper and cobalt mine region of Savannah and the plant is also classified as critically endangered in the IUCN Red List of threatened species. *Acalypha dikuluwensis*, *Ocimum centraliafricanum*, *Ocimum metallorum*, *Commelina zigzag*, *Silene suecica* and *Polycarpaea spirostylis* were copper indicators. *S. suecica* was used to search for copper by the Scandinavian miner during the $17th$ century. *P. spirostylis* is one of the best-known copper indicators. Its reputation as an indicator was first described by (Skertchy, 1897) and later confirmed by field investigation (Brooks and Radford 1978; [Groves et al. 1972;](#page-317-0) [Nicolls et al. 1965\)](#page-324-0). Whereas, *Agathis ovata* is more liable to be controlled by nickel, chromium and magnesium concentration. *Acacia athens*, *Gompholobium polyzygum*, *Eriachne pulchella subsp. dominii* and *Goodenia scaevolina* are the iron indicators [\(Cole 1965\)](#page-314-1). (Nicolls et al. 1965) reported *Eriachne mucronata* as an indicator of copper, lead and zinc mineralization at Dugald River, Queensland. *Crotalaria florida var. congolensis* is a mangoanophytes (Duvigneaud 1959). *Hybanthus austrocaledonicus* (nickel indicator), *Astragalus pattersonii* and A. *preussii* (selenium/Uranium indicators), *Thlaspi caerulescens subsp. calaminare* and *Viola lutea subsp. calaminaria* are zinc indicators (Brooks 1979). [\(Madkour and Laurence](#page-323-0) [2002\)](#page-323-0) reported clover, jute, garden rocket and alfalfa as a bioindicator for ozone in Egypt. (Johnston et al. 2007) worked on plant indicators of the Great Lake Coastal wetland and reported forty-eight hydrogeomorphic plant indicators and ninety soil indicators. Many of them are bog and fen species which are also considered as organic soil indicators and included *Carex lasiocarpa, Drosera rotundifolia, Myrica gale, Rhynchospora alba, Salix pedicellaris, Solidago uliginosa, Triadenum fraseri, Andromeda polifolia, Chamaedaphne calyculata, Menyanthes trifoliate, Pogonia ophioglossoides, Rhynchospora fusca, Sarracenia purpurea* and *Utricularia intermedia,* plants. Similar to our study these species were identified based on ISA. Some researchers also worked on the remediation ability of the plant of mining region as well [\(Barros et al. 2010;](#page-313-1) [Chamaret et al. 2007;](#page-314-2) [Sasmaz and Yaman 2006;](#page-327-0) [Van der](#page-330-0) [Walt et al. 2012\)](#page-330-0). But little attention has been given to the identification of indicators of environmental pollution using ISA at microhabitat level and their reconfirmation via CCA and SEM and hence we claimed it as a first ever study.

heories and literature revealed that precipitation and ter

Is general distribution (Pitt and Heady 1978; Xu et al

through atmospheric humidity and the soil's water c

ne rainfall is moderate and occurs uniformly on a lar Further, structural equation modeling comprehended that the marble pollution has a positive significant (β = 0.26) impact on the occurrence of identified indicator species. Whereas, elevation (β = -0.19), soil (β = -0.20) and climate (temperature + precipitation) (β = -0.07) have an insignificant negative impact on indicators. The semi-humid subtropical vegetation decreases with an increase in marble pollution $(\beta = -0.25)$. In contrast, elevation and soil are also harm indicators of this region. The marble pollution and soil have significant positive, climate and elevation have a negative influence on the indicators of dry MWPE. Comparing the finding above with previous theories and literature revealed that precipitation and temperature regulate vegetation's general distribution (Pitt and Heady 1978; Xu et al. 2004). It affects vegetation through atmospheric humidity and the soil's water content [\(Pielke Sr](#page-326-1) [2001\)](#page-326-1). If the rainfall is moderate and occurs uniformly on a larger number of days, the plants are highly benefited, but heavy rains for a few days result in runoff and less available water. The small quantity of rain is of little significance for the plants, as most of it is lost to the atmosphere because of evaporation [\(Lazaro et al. 2001\)](#page-322-0). In tropical regions, heavy rainfall throughout the year results in the evergreen rainforest. Heavy rainfall for few months results in deciduous forest vegetation [\(Hussain 1984\)](#page-319-1). In the region of high rainfall in summer and low in winter, grassland prevails. Temperature is also considered one of the most important ecological factors as it regulates the plant's physiological process. Both extreme and low temperatures have an adverse effect on plant growth (Wahid et al. 2007). Low temperature cause cold injuries in which water is frozen into ice crystals in the intercellular spaces, causing injuries to cells [\(Ahmad et al. 2021\)](#page-311-0). Similarly, extreme high temperature causes senescence of plants due to the adverse effect on many vital physiological processes such as respiration, transpiration, and protein metabolism [\(Feller and Vaseva 2014;](#page-316-0) [Seleiman et al. 2021\)](#page-327-1). Plants differ considerably in their temperature tolerance from species to species. Broad belts of different vegetation occur between the equator and the poles. They extend parallel with the equator and correspond roughly to temperature belts [\(Hussain 1984\)](#page-319-1). The general climatic regions, edaphic factors are also crucial for the local differences in plant communities or geographical vegetation zones [\(Ahmad et al. 2016a;](#page-311-1) [Khan et al. 2017a\)](#page-320-0).

in a category (Mc-Cune and Grace 2002), which
(RF_{kj}) in a category (Mc-Cune and Grace 2002), which
n being the indicators. Identifying indicators does not im
rring in another zone/association (Dufrêne and Legendr
ce 198 One of the important applications of the present research work was using multivariate statistical techniques, i.e., ISA, SEM, CCA and TWCA, to accurately indicate and interpret vegetation distribution patterns. It allows the researcher to compare multiple classification and their interrelationship for the factual information resulting from the analyses [\(Khan et al. 2016\)](#page-320-1). TWCA was used to identify potential subtropical vegetation of MWPE based on pattern similarity via Sorenson distance measurements. ISA identified the significant indicators of each subtropical MWPE. It provides knowledge regarding species fidelity in a specific habitat [\(Dufrêne and Legendre](#page-315-1) [1997\)](#page-315-1). ISA helps to relate indicators with environmental conditions [\(Baker and Wiley](#page-313-2) [2004;](#page-313-2) [King et al. 2004\)](#page-321-0). However, its features must be understood in describing the results. The ISA must have higher values for the relative abundance (RA_{ki}) and frequency (RF_{ki}) in a category (Mc-Cune and Grace 2002), which eliminated some plants from being the indicators. Identifying indicators does not impede plant species from occurring in another zone/association (Dufrêne and Legendre 1997; [Ter Braak](#page-329-0) [and Prentice 1988\)](#page-329-0). It means that the species has a significant preference for the model group. The combination of RA_{ki} and RF_{ki} makes practical sense for the development, as it ensures a species is likely to be encountered once and has a high statistical probability value for the association with the environment characteristics for which it indicates (Johnston et al. 2007). The species are chosen as indicators that indicate the environmental change and predict the diversity of other species/taxa or communities within the area as they can reflect the physicochemical state of the environment (Dufrêne and Legendre 1997). In the current study, CCA was used to determine the relationship of plant species with different environmental variables [\(Ter](#page-329-1) [Braak and Smilauer 2002\)](#page-329-1). It is mostly used to explain covariation between two sets of variables and find canonical variates that are important for explaining covariation between sets of variables. Correlation of the canonical axes and explanatory matrix was reported, along with the significance of each correlation determined via permutation. Testing the hypothesized relationship between response and explanatory variables by standardizing the axis scores and centering on the unit variance and axes scale to optimize the representation of species. It reconfirms our observation regarding indicator species' significant consequence of distinct environmental variables. These techniques were also implemented by a different researcher for the classification of vegetation in the different regions of the world for various types of ecological observations like [\(Ahmad et al. 2016a;](#page-311-1) [Iqbal et al. 2015;](#page-319-2) [Khan et al. 2014;](#page-320-2)

Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)], Comparative Fit Index (
n Criterion ([A](#page-328-0)IC). GFI and AGFI is the measurement
covariance matrix and the hypothesized model. The GF
licating an acceptable model (Byrne 1994; Sharma et a
w well the m [Khan et al. 2012;](#page-320-3) [Khan et al. 2016\)](#page-320-1). Furthermore, Structural Equation Model was done using R- software in order to examine the complex relationship of vegetation structure/indicators plants and impact of marble pollution, climate, elevation and edaphic variables of three major subtropical vegetation zones of MWPE. It also examined the direct and indirect impact of measured environmental variables for clearer picture of the subtropical vegetation. It reconfirmed our observation of ISA and CCA through the Goodness of Model Fit statistics i.e., Chi-square Statistics (X^2) , Goodness of Model Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Model Fit Index (AGFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standard Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Non-Normed Fit Index [NNFI or also known as Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)], Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). GFI and AGFI is the measurement of fit between the observed covariance matrix and the hypothesized model. The GFI or AGFI values ≥0.90, indicating an acceptable model (Byrne 1994; Sharma et al. 2005). RMSEA tells us how well the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter estimates, would fit the population covariance matrix. Its value below 0.08 shows a good model fit (Hu and Bentler 1999; Steiger 2007). The CFI, also known as Bentler comparative fit index, compares the model of interest with relative independence or the null model (a model is accepted if it's CFI≥0.90) (Hooper et al. 2008). SRMR determines to mean covariance between observed and model-predicted correlation. A model should be considered acceptable if its SRMR <0.08 and ideally less than 0.05 (Hu and [Bentler 1999\)](#page-318-0). NFI and NNFI assess the model by comparing the chi-square (X^2) value of the model to the X^2 of the null model. Its recommending values greater than 0.90 indicating a good model fit [\(Hu and Bentler 1999\)](#page-318-0). The aforementioned tool of SEM was also adopted by a number of a researcher in the field of vegetation ecology for the investigation of the complex relationship between vegetation dynamics and environmental gradients [\(Grace et al. 2010;](#page-317-1) [Grace and Keeley 2006;](#page-317-2) [Grace and](#page-317-3) [Pugesek 1997;](#page-317-3) [Iriondo et al. 2003;](#page-319-3) [Lefcheck 2016;](#page-322-1) [Vile et al. 2006\)](#page-330-2).

3.5 Conclusion

It is concluded that marble pollution, climate, elevation and soil have a significant impact on the vegetation structure of the subtropical vegetation of MWPE. In more depth, the marble pollution and climate have a significant positive influence, while elevation and soil have a significant negative influence on subtropical vegetation and their indicator plants. It is also concluded that ISA is one of the best and most effective techniques for the identification/selection of indicators. We claim that their reconfirmation via CCA and SEM analysis has been done for the first time and these indicators can further be used for multipurpose including reforestation drives and smart habitat plantation. Both SEM and CCA analysis identified the complex relation/impact of measured environmental factors on subtropical vegetation of MWPE. The statistical and modeling procedure adopted in the current study could be followed to classify vegetation and identify indicator plants of any geographic region or microhabitat type in any part of the world.

PROPIES PROPIES

4 Chapter 4

Remediation of hazardous level of Potential Toxic Elements through phytoremediation and mycoremediation approaches

4.1 Introduction

In the study region, marble pollution has been one of the basic deteriorating sources of biosphere pollution with impacts at the species level. Rapid increases in the rate of marble industrialization have worsened the pollution problems [\(Hsiao et al. 2020;](#page-318-2) [Lai](#page-321-1) [et al. 2018;](#page-321-1) [Lin et al. 2014;](#page-322-2) [Yuanan et al. 2020\)](#page-331-1). The marble industry gives rise to oxides of Ca, Mg, Fe, Si, Ti, P, Al and Na [\(Knoche et al. 1995\)](#page-321-2). In addition, large amounts of water are used during marble processing, which, on discharge, directly affects local waterways. Without primary treatments and detoxification procedures, marble wastewater adds Potential Toxic Elements (PTEs)/heavy metals to the neighboring ecosystems (El-Maghraby et al. 2013). As a consequence, levels of pollutants increase in both water and soil that in turn adversely affect the natural biomes as well as the abiotic environment.

al waterways. Without primary treatments and detoxifiest
ewater adds Potential Toxic Elements (PTEs)/hear
g ecosystems (El-Maghraby et al. 2013). As a conse
increase in both water and soil that in turn adversely
well as th However, some of the organisms, and especially plants and microbes, can survive in such toxic conditions (Navarro‐Cano et al. 2018). Such organisms can be identified as pollution indicators of such special habitats or biomes [\(Freeman et al. 2006;](#page-316-1) [Li et al.](#page-322-3) [2017;](#page-322-3) Sepehri and Sarrafzadeh 2019). These plant species absorb or degrade PTEs well above levels present in the normal environment and hence act as a sink to remediate the polluted locations (Brückner et al. 2020; [Paz-Alberto and Sigua 2013;](#page-325-0) Treesubsuntorn and Thiravetyan 2018). These species are able to develop phytoremediation and bioremediation strategies to cope with the polluted conditions [\(Bi et al. 2020;](#page-313-3) [Ceschin et al. 2019\)](#page-314-5).

4.1.1 Phytoremediation

The term phytoremediation was coined by [\(Raskin et al. 1994\)](#page-326-2), and is derived from the Greek Phyto' plants and the Latin _remedium' to restore. Phytoremediation is one of the strategies to restore polluted ecosystems at a low cost [\(Nascimento and Xing](#page-324-2) [2006;](#page-324-2) [Wei et al. 2020;](#page-331-2) [Yan et al. 2020\)](#page-331-3). Certain plant species retain the inherent ability of bioaccumulation, translocation and degradation of different types of pollutants [\(Sepehri et al. 2020\)](#page-327-3). They play a role as a sink for biologically hazardous
materials [\(Schwitzguébel 2017\)](#page-327-0). This ability can be viewed as a low cost technology driven by natural sunlight energy and taking place in situ, where plants accumulate PTEs from the environment [\(Salt et al. 1998\)](#page-327-1). Plants accumulate these PTEs in their tissues and release/extract out nutrients for their rapid growth. This proves includes removal of both organic and inorganic contaminants [\(Anderson and Coats 1995\)](#page-312-0). Plants can act as an important means to reduce pollution irrespective of microbial assisted or chemical treatments. There is currently a research focus on the remediation of different pollutants through the use of plants.

formation, rhizodegradation and rhizofiltration for organ
tes can demobilize and bind contamination within the soi
taminant bioavailability; this is termed phytostabilizat
sorb/accumulate PTEs from polluted ecosystems in r The phytoremediation process involves different stages. These include phytoextraction and phytostabilization for inorganic pollution, and phytodegradation/ phytotransformation, rhizodegradation and rhizofiltration for organic pollution. Plant root exudates can demobilize and bind contamination within the soil matrix and hence reduce contaminant bioavailability; this is termed phytostabilization. Certain plant species absorb/accumulate PTEs from polluted ecosystems in roots or shoots through the process of phytoextraction. This approach is for organic contaminants, metals, nonmetals, metalloids and radionuclides in soil and sludge media [\(Moreno-Jiménez et](#page-324-0) [al. 2011\)](#page-324-0). Phytovolatilization describes the plant species' ability to absorb PTEs and subsequently volatilize it into the atmosphere. Phytodegradation or phytotransformation is the breakdown of PTEs taken up by plant species via metabolic procedures within plants or outside through various compounds released by plant roots (Parmar and Singh 2015). Rhizofiltration involves the use of plant roots to clean up polluted water by filtering out the contaminants from the aquatic ecosystem (Vara Prasad and de Oliveira Freitas 2003). Numerous aquatic species have been utilized for this purpose, for example duck weed (*Lemna minor* L.), sharp dock (*Polygonum amphibium* L.), penny wort (*Hydrocotyle umbellate* L.) [\(Vara Prasad and](#page-330-0) [de Oliveira Freitas 2003\)](#page-330-0). Rhizodegradation is the breakdown of PTEs via microorganisms that are boosted by rhizosphere. These microbes digest and consume organic compounds for energy and nutrition. Plant roots release sugars, acids and alcohols which provide the carbon source for the microbes. Hence, establish a dense root mass that takes large amount of water. Rhizodegradation approach is used for the removal of organic pollutants in the lithosphere.

Fig. 4.1 Accumulation mechanism on phytoremediation technology (Tangahu et al., 2011).

4.1.2 Mechanisms of heavy metal uptake by plants

Contaminated media

ccumulation mechanism on phytoremediation technolog

chanisms of heavy metal uptake by plants

e developed very efficient mechanisms to absorb both

nutrients from their surroundings. Plants produce che Plants have developed very efficient mechanisms to absorb both essential and nonessential nutrients from their surroundings. Plants produce chelating agents that stimulate pH changes and redox reactions to solubilize and accumulate nutrients even from very low levels and nearly insoluble precipitates in soils. This process is also involved in uptake, translocation and storage of PTEs whose chemical features simulate essential elements. Hence, the nutrient uptake procedure is of immense significance to phytoremediation.

Different transport mechanisms in the plant cell membrane are involved in ion uptake and translocation. These consist of channels (proteins that assist ions transport into the cell), proton pump (ATPases which utilize energy and produce electrochemical gradient) and co-and anti-transporters (proteins that utilize electrochemical gradient produced by ATPases to drive the active uptake of ions). Every transport system takes up an array of nutrients / ions. The plant uptake or translocation approach are usually closely regulated. They generally do not accumulate trace elements beyond their metabolic requirements. These needs range from 10-15 ppm for most trace elements. However, the exception are the hyperaccumulator plant species that can accumulate or take up PTEs in thousands of ppm. Different mechanisms are adopted by hyper accumulator plants to avoid metal toxicity. One of these mechanisms is the storage of PTEs in vacuoles.

Evaporation from the leaves of plant species helps to absorb nutrients into plant roots. This development is responsible for transfers of contaminants into plant shoots. Some plant species that are used as phytoextraction are termed hyperaccumulators. Usually, the hyper accumulator requires little maintenance to remove toxic elements from its surroundings [\(Cluis 2004;](#page-314-0) [Lasat 2000\)](#page-322-0). The phytoremediators can concentrate or take up PTEs up to 100-1000 times greater than non-accumulator or excluder plant species.

4.1.3 Factors effecting the accumulation of PTEs

ctors effecting the accumulation of PTEs
different factors which affect the accumulation of PTE,
ies, bioavailability of metals, properties of medium/sc
uptake and addition of chelating agents etc. The plants
n ability nee There are different factors which affect the accumulation of PTE, including type of plant species, bioavailability of metals, properties of medium/soil and root zone, vegetative uptake and addition of chelating agents etc. The plants with the greatest remediation ability need to be examined and carefully chosen [\(Prasad et al. 2010\)](#page-326-0). The accumulation of PTEs is significantly affected by plant species characteristics [\(Rodriguez et al. 2005\)](#page-326-1). Various practices are developed to change soil properties (i.e., change in pH, addition of fertilizer and chelators etc.) to enhance remediation ability. For example, lead accumulation in plants can be affected as a result of changes in soil pH, organic matter and phosphorus concentration [\(Ashraf et al. 2015\)](#page-312-1). Furthermore, the rhizosphere possesses a special interest in phytoremediation. It can absorb or metabolize PTEs inside the plant tissue. An increase in diameter and reduction in root elongation are responses that can indicate morphological adaptation of plant species to the polluted soil [\(Huhle et al. 2008\)](#page-318-0). The accumulation of PTEs is affected by environmental conditions. For example, temperature influences plant growth and subsequently the root length. Understanding the mass balance and metabolic fate of the contaminants are keys to demonstrating the application of phytoremediation [\(Mwegoha 2008\)](#page-324-1). Accumulation of PTEs also depends on bioavailability in water phase, retention time and interaction with elements. When PTEs blend with soil, redox potential, pH and organic matter concentration will influence the tendency of metals to either exist in ionic or plant available form. The plant species will influence the soil via their ability to lower the pH and oxygenate the sediment both of which will affect metal availability. The phytoremediation ability can be enhanced through addition of synthetic chelating agents. Chelating agents promote the leaching of PTEs into soil. The bioavailability of PTEs decreases over pH 5-6, therefore, chelating agents may be used in alkaline soil remediations. Exposure of plant species to Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) for more than two weeks improves translocation of metals. The application of EDTA at 5 mmol/kg was found to give significant results [\(Roy et al. 2005\)](#page-327-2). Plant root release of organic acids like oxalate and citrate also affect the availability of metals. The occurrence of ligands influences the accumulation of PTEs through the formation of metal ligand complexes and fluctuate to leach contaminants below rhizosphere [\(Seuntjens et al. 2004\)](#page-328-0).

4.1.4 Advantages of Phytoremediation

vantages of Phytoremediation
diation is considered a new technology that can remediat
and ambient air. Phytoremediation is more publicly acc
und physical techniques. It can be considered an approa
that is low-cost and envi Phytoremediation is considered a new technology that can remediate contamination of water, soil and ambient air. Phytoremediation is more publicly acceptable than other chemical and physical techniques. It can be considered an approach to contaminant reduction that is low-cost and environmentally friendly. It is the most suitable technology that can be used for the remediation of large numbers of hazardous elements and sites. It is inexpensive i.e., 60-80% less than other conventional technology. Therefore, it doesn't need highly specialized workers and expensive equipment. Phytoremediation is cost effective for large areas having moderately polluted surface soils (Liu et al. 2018b). It can be applied to a wide range of environmental contaminants either organic or inorganic. It is also applicable to a wide range of radionuclides and toxic elements with minimum environmental disturbance. The phytoextraction is regarded as significant method to degrade contaminants form soil in situ condition. The amount of soil disturbance is very low in *In-situ* application as compared to other conventional methods. It causes minimal environmental disturbance with topsoil left in a usable condition that can be reclaimed for agriculture use. Phytoremediation is an alternative to other much tougher remediation approaches like thermal vaporization, incineration, solvent and other soil washing techniques, all of which damage the biological components of the soil and hence change its physical and chemical features along with creating a comparatively nonviable waste. It is one of the most significant ecological clean up technologies for the remediation of contaminated soil also known as green technology or the green liver of the earth. An additional benefit of phytoremediation is the production of a recyclable metal rich

plant residue [\(Liu et al. 2000\)](#page-322-1). Also, biomass generated through phytoremediation procedures can be economically valorized in the form of bioenergy. If soil phytoremediation occurs through oil crops, the biodiesel production from the resulting plant oil could be a viable option to generate bioenergy [\(Van Ginneken et al. 2007\)](#page-330-1). On a larger scale, the stored potential energy can be used to generate thermal energy.

4.1.5 Limitations of Phytoremediation

The matrice of the can be applied to those sites where there is no need for the path of phytoremediation e.g soil, root length, growt ntal factors, magnitude of c Phytoremediation does have some limitations. It is time consuming since it may take several growing seasons to clean up a site. The polluted sites that pose severe risk may not be recommended to clean up through a phytoremediation approach. Phytoremediation technology takes time to clean the specific environment. This technology can be applied to those sites where there is no need for an urgent response and where human exposure is limited to that site. Numerous other factors may be a barrier to the path of phytoremediation e.g soil, root length, growth period of plants, environmental factors, magnitude of contaminants, soil and contaminant chemistry [\(Salido et al. 2003\)](#page-327-3). The first and foremost barrier to phytoremediation is contact of roots to contaminants that must occur in two ways: either roots are deeper to be in contact or contaminants must be in vicinity of the roots (EPA 2000). The second important barrier for efficient phytoremediation is root age since this affects the process. Generally, roots of younger plants with active physiology have the ability to remediate at a faster rate compared to roots of older plants. Phytoremediation is also influenced by the magnitude of contaminants. Elevated levels of heavy metals are toxic to plants and causes inhibition of growth. The plants that accumulate the toxic metals at high levels are called as hyper accumulator plants. Among all above mentioned factors environmental factors also play an important role. The plants used for phytoremediation technology must be harvested and immediately disposed of to avoid further spread of contamination but still there are chances for toxic elements to become part of the food chain via animals and insects.

4.1.6 Plants physiological response to pollution

Various plant species respond to levels of pollution through the production of compatible osmolytes (i.e., glycine betaine, glycerol, sorbitol and proline, etc.) which in turn prevent plants from death and enable them to tolerate polluted, stressed environments [\(Ahmad et al. 2020;](#page-311-0) [Patel and Parida 2020\)](#page-325-1). Osmolyte molecules are generally soluble in water at certain physiological pH, which usually accumulates in cytosols of the cells [\(Trovato et al. 2008\)](#page-329-0). They protect plant species from different environmental stresses via regulating the cellular osmotic pressures, helping in detoxification of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) and through stabilization of protein and membrane protection reliability [\(Ghosh et al. 2020;](#page-317-0) [Hayat et al. 2012;](#page-318-1) [Pellegrini](#page-325-2) [et al. 2019\)](#page-325-2). Proline plays a significant role during different abiotic and biotic environmental stresses, drought, pathogen attack, salinity, nutrient deficiency, heavy metal accumulation, pollution and temperature fluctuation etc. [\(Gupta et al. 2020;](#page-317-1) [Rehman et al. 2014;](#page-326-2) [Rossi et al. 2020;](#page-326-3) [Sreedevi et al. 2013\)](#page-329-1).

y metabolism. Various types of plant species accumul
r certain types of environmental stresses including lithe
at of proline level in plant cells is governed by transport
ic activities and catabolism (Szabados and Savoure Proline is a type of proteinogenic amino acid with an alpha-amino group, necessary for primary metabolism. Various types of plant species accumulate proline amino acids under certain types of environmental stresses including lithospheric pollution. The amount of proline level in plant cells is governed by transport between a cell's biosynthetic activities and catabolism (Szabados and Savoure 2010). Biosynthesis occurs via the glutamate or ornithine pathways. Glutamate encompasses proline synthesis from glutamic acid through Pyrroline-5-Carboxylate in the chloroplast or cytoplasm. It is an important biochemical pathway in osmotic stress, nitrogen deficiency and stressful physiological condition (Verslues and Sharma 2010). The P5C causes production of ROS, the initiation of apoptosis and harmful cellular constituents (Van Breusegem and Dat 2006). Excessive amounts of ROS cause programmed cell death (Patel and Parida 2020; [Verslues and Sharma 2010\)](#page-330-2). Therefore, plant species degrade it as soon as possible when the stress is relieved. ROS causes a reduction in chlorophyll content, membrane fluidity and lipid peroxidation (Verma and Mishra, 2005). In order to counteract ROS, plants have a variety of enzymatic and non-enzymatic detoxification processes [\(Sairam and Tyagi](#page-327-4) [2004\)](#page-327-4). The lipid peroxidation is measured for oxidative damage in the form of malondialdehyde [\(Del Rio et al. 2005;](#page-315-0) [Siddiqui et al. 2020\)](#page-328-1).

Determination of the physiological characters, for example chlorophyll concentration is one of the approaches to measure the influence of environmental pollution on plant species. It is a tool that can detect whether their environmental pollution is interfering with photosynthesis, based on the loss of chlorophyll as a negative consequence of environmental pollution/stress. It has always been deliberated as one of the adaptive characters in growth of plant species growing in environmentally polluted or physiologically stressed habitats. Rhizosphere has special interest in terms of phytoremediation. Microbial populations are usually higher in the rhizosphere than in the root free zone. Microorganisms living in the rhizosphere are directly associated with plant species. They contribute to mobilize PTE ions and hence increase the bioavailability fraction.

4.1.7 Mycoremediation

As most of the contaminant ransfanced in the statement of semi-
axes the risk of pollutant transfer into the food chain (Har
cording to (Adenipekun and Lawal 2011), it is a distincti-
gical approaches like bacterial remedi The use of fungi for the removal of waste or pollutants from the environment is termed mycoremediation. It is an economical and environmentally friendly approach to combat the ever-increasing challenge of environmental pollution. Mycoremediation is the safest means of contaminant remediation in terms of human health [\(Leonardi et](#page-322-2) [al. 2007\)](#page-322-2). As most of the contaminants are degraded by fungi rather than extracted, this minimizes the risk of pollutant transfer into the food chain [\(Haritash and Kaushik](#page-318-2) [2009\)](#page-318-2). According to (Adenipekun and Lawal 2011), it is a distinctive method among other biological approaches like bacterial remediation, as there is no constraint for the preconditioning to a particular contamination. However, the proficiency of fungi remediation is influenced by several factors including sunlight, temperature, nutrients, oxygen level and moisture contents (Bhattacharya et al. 2012). The processes of mycoremediation are optimal at 25-30 °C temperature (Fletcher 2019). Other factors affecting the mycoremediation processes included are genetic and environmental, including pH, type of substrate, enzyme, ecology, fungi biomass content, mobilizing agents, life cycle of fungal agents, soil chemistry, and age of the mycelium [\(Amjad et](#page-312-2) [al. 2017\)](#page-312-2). Fungi have the broader ecological and biochemical capability to degrade environmental organic pollutants and hence reduce the risk associated with metalloids, metals and radionuclides [\(Harms et al. 2011\)](#page-318-3). They are ideal species for the remediation of different types of pollutants due to their vigorous growth, immense hyphal network, high surface to volume ratio, production of extracellular enzymes, adaptability to changing pH and temperature [\(Koul et al. 2021\)](#page-321-0). The fungal cell wall possesses polysaccharides and proteins containing hydroxyl, phosphate, amino, carboxyl and sulphate groups for binding with heavy metals/ metal(loid) ions/ pollutants (Maheswari and Murugesan, 2009). Fungi are tolerant to various heavy metals due to phytochelatin or metallothionein protein which can bind and deactivate toxic elements, or they may store potential toxic elements in the vacuoles (Anahid et al., 2011). They can adapt to extreme environmental conditions and are even able to

grow and to colonize soils affected by metal exploitation, such as mine soils, wasterock dumps, and tailing deposits, which are characterized by extreme edaphic, physical, and chemical conditions.

In a nutshell, fungi can be regarded as pioneer organisms that can help to remediate, clean and prepare substances for eventual natural ecosystem colonization (Garcia et al., 2005). The use of native wild fungi for the accumulation of heavy metals from the polluted environment may represent an innovative, potentially cheap and sustainable remediation approach to rehabilitate the natural ecosystem.

4.1.8 Justification

ential pollution directly or indirectly affects more or 1
plant species and microorganisms (Lin et al. 2010
dicator plant species and micro fungi develop strong defen
n such unfavorable habitats. They develop phy
diation s Environmental pollution directly or indirectly affects more or less all organisms including plant species and microorganisms (Lin et al. 2010). However, the tolerant/indicator plant species and micro fungi develop strong defense mechanisms to survive in such unfavorable habitats. They develop phytoremediation or mycoremediation strategies and physiological changes to cope with the situation [\(Bi](#page-313-1) [et al. 2020;](#page-313-1) Ceschin et al. 2019). This chapter determines the phytoremediation ability of the naturally occurring indicator plant species (discussed in the previous chapter) and their physiological responses in terms of proline accumulation and reduction in chlorophyll contents in the vicinities of the marble waste polluted ecosystem along with the bioremediation ability of micro fungi (isolated from MWPE) for potential toxic elements remediation. This study can be reproduced in other kinds of polluted systems as well. We are also of the opinion that naturally grown plants can be easily developed, propagated and forested if found beneficial in ecological and physiological terms. While the identified micro fungi can be grown in the bioreactor for the large scale removing of contaminants. Government and non-government organizations can also get guidelines for management of wastelands while devising policies and bylaws such as broader scale plantation drives and reforestation in the industrial zones.

4.2 Materials and Methods

As discussed in the previous chapter, the indicator plant species were identified based on indicator species analysis and confirmed through canonical correspondence analysis and structural equation modeling. These indicators were collected in replicates from near to vicinity (high polluted zone) and at a distance of 100 m interval (less polluted zone) from the Marble waste polluted ecosystem for the assessment of their phytoremediation ability and physiological response to marble pollution [\(Ahmad et al. 2021\)](#page-311-2). Prior to the analysis, plant roots and shoots were carefully separated and washed with distilled water to remove any surface marble waste, soil or any other deposits. After that, the plant specimens were dried in the Oven (DSO-300D) and ground to a fine powder.

4.2.1 Quantification of Potential Toxic Elements (PTEs)/Heavy Metals

D-300D) and ground to a fine powder.
 antification of Potential Toxic Elements (PTEs)/Heavy

(Cr), nickel (Ni), copper (Cu), manganese (Mn), zine

), cadmium (Cd), calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg) and so

ithin the plant ti Chromium (Cr), nickel (Ni), copper (Cu), manganese (Mn), zinc (Zn), iron (Fe), cobalt (Co), cadmium (Cd), calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg) and sodium (Na) heavy metals within the plant tissues were quantified using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometry (Ahmad et al. 2019). One gram of sieved and dried marble waste, each indicator plant root and shoot samples were taken in a 250 mL conical flask. Ten mL of Per-chloric (HCLO₄) and Nitric acid (HNO₃) solution in 1:3 was added and placed for 24 hours. Then samples were digested by placing on a hot plate at an initial temperature of 150 °C for 1 hour and a final 235 °C till the red fumes of nitric acid disappear and white fumes become appear. The solution was filtered after cooling through filtered paper (Whatman No. 42) and 40 mL distilled water was added to raise its volume [\(Fig. 4.2-](#page-189-0)3). The blank reagents were also prepared. The atomic absorption spectrophotometer VARIAN, AA240FS, was used for the quantification of heavy metals [\(Fig. 4.4-](#page-190-0)5). The final metal concentrations were obtained using below formula:

Heavy metal concentration(mg/kg) = AA reading - Blank reagents/sample weight (kg) \times volume raised \times df

Where, AA = atomic absorption reading, df = dilution factor.

Fig. 4.2 Samples preparation for potential toxic elements/ heavy metals quantification.

Fig. 4.3 Samples filtration after its digestion on hotplate.

Fig. 4.4 Quantification of PTEs using atomic absorption spectrophotometer.

Fig. 4.5 A picture with atomic absorption spectrophotometer VARIAN, AA240FS after backbreaking work.

4.2.2 Phytoremediation and plant selection

Some of the selected indicator plants were examined for their phytoremediation ability [\(Table 4.1\)](#page-191-0). The standard accumulation, transfer and concentration quotients were measured through Bioaccumulation Coefficient (BAC), Translocation Factor (TF) and Biological Concentration Factor (BCF) using the below equations/formulae [\(Malik et al. 2010\)](#page-323-1). All the selected plants were tested for their phytoremediation capabilities.

 $TF = Metal recorded in Shoot/Metal recorded in Root$ (ii)

(iii) $BCF = Metal recorded in Root/Meta recorded in Soil$										
	Table 4.1 The indicator species evaluated for their phytoremediation ability.									
S. No.	Botanical Names	Family	Habit	IVI						
	Adiantum capillus-veneris	Pteridaceae	Herb	739.55						
$\overline{2}$	Ailanthus altissima	Simaroubaceae	Tree	1647.28						
$\overline{3}$	Albizia lebbeck	Leguminosae	Tree	784.25						
4	Calotropis procera	Apocynaceae	Shrub	1799.81						
5	Cynodon dactylon	Poaceae	Herb	2982.38						
6	Datura innoxia	Solanaceae	Shrub	1050.27						
τ	Debregeasia salicifolia	Urticaceae	Shrub	766.67						
8	Desmostachya bipinnata	Poaceae	Herb	596.84						
9	Dodonaea viscosa	Sapindaceae	Shrub	620.56						
10	Erigeron bonariensis	Compositae	Herb	993.83						
11	Ficus carica	Moraceae	Tree	2441.65						
12	Morus alba	Moraceae	Tree	1699.0						
13	Morus nigra	Moraceae	Tree	1655.67						
14	Parthenium hysterophorus	Compositae	Herb	1122.48						
15	Persicaria glabra	Polygonaceae	Herb	752.36						
16	Ricinus communis	Euphorbiaceae	Shrub	797.03						
17	Setaria viridis	Poaceae	Herb	1090.93						
18	Tamarix aphylla	Tamaricaceae	Tree	528.97						
19	Withania somnifera	Solanaceae	Shrub	781.20						

Table 4.1 The indicator species evaluated for their phytoremediation ability.

4.2.3 Determination of Photosynthetic pigments

The photosynthetic pigments i.e., chlorophyll-a, b and total carotenoids of each indicator plant species were measured both in high and less polluted zone of marble waste. Fresh leaf sample (0.5 g) was ground in 4 ml Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) reagent using mortar and pestle. The extract was filtered by Whatman No 1 filter paper to get transparent (clear) supernatant [\(Fig. 4.6\)](#page-192-0). Falcons containing samples were heated at 65 °C for 4 hours. Absorbance was measured at Optical Density 663 nm and 645 nm by spectrophotometer instrument [\(Hiscox and Israelstam 1979\)](#page-318-4). The following standard formula were used for the determination of Chlorophyll-a, b and carotenoids [\(Arnon 1949\)](#page-312-3).

Chlorophyll a
$$
\left(\frac{mg}{g}\right) = [1.07 \text{ (optical density 663)} - 0.09 \text{ (optical density 645)}]
$$

= Z

Chlorophyll b $\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)$ g $| = [1.77$ (optical density 645) – 0.280 (optical density 663)]

Carotenoids content (\mathbf{m} g $) = (Z \times 4)$

Fig. 4.6 Samples prepared for photosynthetic determination.

4.2.4 Proline Quantification

In tube (Fig. 4.7). Finally, the absorbance was measured
ainst toluene as blank using spectrophotometer. The air of in each plant sample was calculated from the standa
using the equation below.
 $\frac{18}{g}$ = $\frac{K \text{ value} \times \text$ The Proline concentration was determined in all the selected plant species collected near to vicinity and 100 m distance from MWPE using the method of [\(Bates et al.](#page-313-2) [1973a\)](#page-313-2). Fresh plant leaf sample of 0.5g along with 3% (w/v) Sulphosalicylic was taken, ground and filtered using Whatman No. 1 filter paper to get transparent (clear) supernatant. The obtained 2 ml filtrated sample was mixed with 2 ml each of Ninhydrin, Glacial acetic acid and heated in a water bath at 100 °C for 1hr. The samples were kept at room temperature initially and then below 0° C in the refrigerator to avoid any chemical reaction. Four ml of toluene was added to the sample and kept for 50 minutes. The upper organic layer of toluene was transferred into falcon tube (Fig. 4.7). Finally, the absorbance was measured at 520 nm optical density against toluene as blank using spectrophotometer. The amount of proline accumulation in each plant sample was calculated from the standard available curve of proline using the equation below.

$$
Problem \left(\frac{\mu g}{g}\right) = \frac{K \text{ value} \times \text{dilut. factor} \times \text{ optical density 520 nm}}{\text{weight of Sample}}
$$

Where, $K = 17.52$, dilution factor = 2 and weight of sample = $0.5g$

oline produced by plant species as response to marble way that plant come in stress and produce high level of P or indicate that plant cope up with pollution stress and oline
ta Analyses
fixed Effect Model
involved replica Fig. 4.7 Proline produced by plant species as response to marble waste pollution. Pink color show that plant come in stress and produce high level of Proline, while light yellow color indicate that plant cope up with pollution stress and produce very low level of Proline

4.2.5 Data Analyses

4.2.5.1 Mixed Effect Model

The study involved replicated measurement of the plant species within and across polluted zone of the marble waste polluted ecosystem. Such a design introduced the strong likelihood that the measurement within the same site would be influenced by phytoremediation. It was necessary to specify a model that attempts to explain the difference in phytoremediation capacity among proline, chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b contents in order to avoid systematic variation in residuals. The site and species were selected randomly rather than being of primary interest. The random component therefore included the categorical variable sites i.e., polluted and less polluted zone. The fixed components of the model were proline, chlorophyll-a, chlorophyll-b and phytoremediation. The final model fitted using the *nlme* package in R is expressed as:

Phytoremediation $[p] = \alpha + \beta 1z[p] + \beta 2p[p] + \beta 3C-a[p] + \beta 4C-b[p] + a[p] + \xi[p]$

Here the response variable is phytoremediation, [pl] denotes polluted and less polluted region, respectively. [pl] zone with denoted by categorical variable 1 and 2 respectively. a[p] is random effect intercept and allowed variation between the sites. Whereas z[pl] is the categorical variable which represent the site of the study. the term p[pl], C-a[pl] and C-b[pl] are the explanatory variable of our study and $\mathcal{E}[p]$ is the error term.

4.2.5.2 Regression /Bi-variate Analysis

The impact of phytoremediation on proline, chlorophyll-a, and chlorophyll-b was determined through the ordinary least square method. Phytoremediation was taken as a dependent variable and proline, chlorophyll-a, and chlorophyll-b as explanatory variables. R-software was used to determine regression coefficient of the following empirical model:

Phytoremediation
$$
{[i]} = \alpha + \beta 1{\text{proline}[i]} + \beta 2_{\text{ chlorophyll-a}[i]} + \beta 3_{\text{ chlorophyll-b}[i]} + \mu_i
$$

R-software was used to determine regression coefficien
nodel:
toremediation $_{[i]} = \alpha + \beta 1_{\text{proline}[i]} + \beta 2_{\text{ chlorophyll-8}[i]} + \beta 3_{\text{chlor}}$
diation [i] is the dependent variable which indicates the r
where [i] represent different pol Phytoremediation [i] is the dependent variable which indicates the remediation ability of plants, where [i] represent different polluted zones, β1, β2 and β3 were the coefficients of proline, chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b, respectively, µi is the disturbance/error term of the model.

4.2.6 Bioremediation / Myco-remediation

The micro fungi isolated and identified from the MWPE were further assessed for their bioremediation ability. Mineral Salts Medium (MSM) was used which contained $0.3g$ KNO₃, $0.01g$ of FeSO₄.7H₂O, $0.01g$ MgSO₄, and 3 g of glucose per liter. Ca, Cd, Co, Cu, Mg, Fe, Hg, Ni and NaCl₂.6H₂O were used as the source of metals separately. The initial pH was adjusted to 7.0 with help of NaOH and HCl. All the media were sterilized via autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minutes. After that the selected micro fungi i.e., *Aspergillus sydowii*, *Aspergillus brasilensi, Curvularia aeria* and *Alternaria alternata* were grown aerobically on a rotary shaker at 120 rpm at 30 °C. UV-vis spectrophotometer was used to calculate the absorption intensity at 200-600 nm at 7-, 14-, 21- and 28-days interval [\(Fig. 4.8\)](#page-196-0).

Fig. 4.8 Samples preparation and processing for myco-remediation.

mples preparation and processing for myco-remediation.

4.3 Results

in previous chapter). The detailed summary statistics are gones A total of 85 plant species (out of 220) were recorded as indicators of the subtropical Marble Wastewater Ecosystem, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. Out of which, 19 species i.e., *Adiantum capillus-veneris, Ailanthus altissima, Albizia lebbeck, Calotropis procera, Cynodon dactylon, Datura innoxia, Debregeasia salicifolia, Desmostachya bipinnata, Dodonaea viscosa, Erigeron bonariensis, Ficus carica, Morus alba, Morus nigra, Parthenium hysterophorus, Persicaria glabra, Ricinus communis, Setaria viridis, Tamarix aphylla* and *Withania somnifera* were further evaluated for Potential Toxic Elements (PTEs)/heavy metals remediation based on their availability, indicator and importance value index (IVI) data (already discussed in previous chapter). The detailed summary statistics are given in [Table 4.2.](#page-198-0)

Table 4.2 Detailed summary statistics.

4.3.1 Phytoremediation ability of identified indicators

The detailed phytoremediation ability of selected indicator plants are as follows:

4.3.1.1 Chromium (Cr)

r phytostabilization. Among the collected plant species λ oxia, Parthenium hysterophorus and Ricinus communis
tors of Cr metal based on BCF and TF values in HPZ. Whi
procera, Cynodon dactylon, Debregeasia salicifoli
Do The recorded chromium concentration varied from 11.04-15.88 in root and 10.28-16.62 mg/kg in shoot of all the selected plant species in the highly polluted zone (HPZ) of MWPE [\(Table 4.3\)](#page-206-0). Several researchers used BAC, BCF and TF for the evaluation of phytoremediation ability in plant species. The plants with BCF and TF values > 1 are considered as phytoextractors. While BCF>1 and TF<1 had been used to evaluate plant potential for phytostabilization. Among the collected plant species *Ailanthus altissima*, *Datura innoxia, Parthenium hysterophorus* and *Ricinus communis* were identified as phytoextractors of Cr metal based on BCF and TF values in HPZ. While, *Albizia lebbeck, Calotropis procera, Cynodon dactylon, Debregeasia salicifolia, Desmostachya bipinnata, Dodonaea viscosa, Erigeron bonariensis, Persicaria glabra, Setaria viridis, Tamarix aphylla, Adiantum capillus-veneris* and *Withania somnifera* were recorded as phytostabilizers for chromium metal in HPZ of MWPE (Table 4.4).

At the same time, the chromium concentration varied between 8.04-9.84 mg/kg in shoot and 10.12-12.88 mg/kg in root of indicator species in less polluted zone (LPZ) of MWPE [\(Table 4.5\)](#page-210-0). Based on BCF, TF and BAC values, *Debregeasia salicifolia*, *Desmostachya bipinnata* and *Withania somnifera* were the phytoextractor and *Albizia lebbeck*, *Dodonaea viscosa*, *Erigeron bonariensis*, *Persicaria glabra*, *Ricinus communis* and *Setaria viridis* were the phytostabilizers of potential toxic levels of chromium metal in the less polluted zone of the marble waste polluted ecosystem [\(Table 4.6\)](#page-212-0).

4.3.1.2 Nickel (Ni)

The nickel concentration varied between 30.44-35.31 in root and 24.8-34.39 mg/kg in shoot of the studied plants of high polluted zone [\(Table 4.3\)](#page-206-0). Based on BCF and TF values *Albizia lebbeck, Datura innoxia, Dodonaea viscosa, Erigeron bonariensis, Ficus carica, Parthenium hysterophorus, Ricinus communis, Setaria viridis* and *Withania somnifera* were the significant species for the phytoextraction of nickel heavy metal in highly polluted zone of MWPS. While *Morus alba, Morus nigra* and *Persicaria glabra*

were the best plant species for the phytostabilization of nickel pollution in HPZ [\(Table](#page-208-0) [4.4\)](#page-208-0).

The nickel amount ranged from 2.64-15.76 in root and 1.40-12.80 mg/kg in shoot of indicator species in less polluted zone of MWPE [\(Table 4.5\)](#page-210-0). The plant species *Parthenium hysterophorus*, *Ricinus communis* and *Withania somnifera* were determined as phytoextractors and *Persicaria glabra* as a phytostabilizer in the less marble waste polluted zone [\(Table 4.6\)](#page-212-0).

4.3.1.3 Copper (Cu)

concentration fluctuates in root and shoot between 31.9-
g, respectively (Table 4.3). Ailanthus altissima, Calotrop
esmostachya bipinnata, Erigeron bonariensis, Morus a
glabra, Ricinus communis, Tamarix aphylla and Withani The copper concentration fluctuates in root and shoot between 31.94-54.46 and 30.47- 48.98 mg/kg, respectively (Table 4.3)*. Ailanthus altissima, Calotropis procera, Datura innoxia, Desmostachya bipinnata, Erigeron bonariensis, Morus alba, Morus nigra, Persicaria glabra, Ricinus communis, Tamarix aphylla* and *Withania somnifera* were the significant species for the phytoextraction of copper heavy metal in MWPS. The evaluated phytostabilizer plants for copper heavy metal in MWPS were *Adiantum capillus-veneris, Albizia lebbeck, Cynodon dactylon, Dodonaea viscosa, Ficus carica, Parthenium hysterophorus* and *Setaria viridis* (Table 4.4). At the same time, copper concentrations were recorded in the range 12.68-30.96 in root and 11.28-27.92 mg/kg in shoot of all the studied plants in LPZ of MWPE (Table 4.5). *Adiantum capillus-veneris*, *Ailanthus altissima*, *Calotropis procera*, *Morus alba* and *Morus nigra*, showed phytoextraction, while *Albizia lebbeck* and *Datura innoxia* demonstrated a phytostabilization ability against copper potential toxic element in LPZ [\(Table 4.6\)](#page-212-0).

4.3.1.4 Manganese (Mn)

Manganese concentrations were between 11.99-42.95 in root and 16.44-43.02 mg/kg in shoot of the 19 studied plants [\(Table 4.3\)](#page-206-0). Based on BCF and TF, *Ailanthus altissima, Cynodon dactylon, Desmostachya bipinnata, Dodonaea viscosa, Ficus carica, Persicaria glabra, Setaria viridis* and *Withania somnifera* were the significant phytoextractors of manganese in the subtropical of MWPS. While, *Calotropis procera, Datura innoxia* and *Morus alba* were recorded as phytostabilizers for manganese heavy metal in MWPS [\(Table 4.4\)](#page-208-0). However, manganese concentration varied from 1.76-19.92 in root and 1.68- 18.84 mg/kg in the shoots of indicator species in less polluted zone of MWPE [\(Table](#page-210-0) [4.5\)](#page-210-0). Among the evaluated species *Ailanthus altissima* and *Persicaria glabra* showed a phytoextraction ability for manganese potential toxic element in LPZ [\(Table 4.6\)](#page-212-0).

4.3.1.5 (Zn)

geron bondinensis, r iclas cancel, informs higher, retends for
ved significant phytostabilization ability for zinc heavy m
ues in HPZ (Table 4.4). The zinc concentration was deter
4 - 44.83 in root and 29.77 - 42.74 in sho The zinc concentration in root and shoot material was between 40.74-91.68 and 40.27- 74.42 mg/kg in high polluted zone of MWPE, respectively [\(Table 4.3\)](#page-206-0). Among the studied plants *Albizia lebbeck, Parthenium hysterophorus, Persicaria glabra* and *Tamarix aphylla* were recorded as significant phytoextractors for zinc heavy metals in MWPS. At the same time, *Calotropis procera, Desmostachya bipinnata, Dodonaea viscosa, Erigeron bonariensis, Ficus carica, Morus nigra, Ricinus communis* and *Setaria viridis* showed significant phytostabilization ability for zinc heavy metal based on BCF and TF values in HPZ (Table 4.4). The zinc concentration was determined to be in the range 26.34 - 44.83 in root and 29.77 - 42.74 in shoot of plant indicators in the less polluted zone of MWPE (Table 4.5). *Dodonaea viscosa*, *Withania somnifera* were the phytostabilizers and *Morus nigra* was recorded as a phytoextractor of zinc heavy metal in the LPZ of MWPE (Table 4.6).

4.3.1.6 (Fe)

The iron concentration recorded in root material ranged between 86.36-102.74 and in shoot 78.28-97.5 mg/kg (Table 4.3). *Albizia lebbeck, Cynodon dactylon, Datura innoxia, Debregeasia salicifolia, Desmostachya bipinnata, Dodonaea viscosa, Erigeron bonariensis, Morus alba, Parthenium hysterophorus, Persicaria glabra, Ricinus communis, Setaria viridis* and *Withania somnifera* were recorded as phytoextractors of iron heavy metal in MWPS. *Ailanthus altissima* and *Calotropis procera* were recorded as phytostabilizers for iron heavy metal [\(Table 4.4\)](#page-208-0). In the less polluted zone, iron varied from 9.56-70.24 in root and 33.52-69.68 in shoot of the studied indicators [\(Table 4.5\)](#page-210-0). Among the studied plants none of the species showed a remediation ability for iron in the less polluted zone [\(Table 4.6\)](#page-212-0).

4.3.1.7 Cobalt (Co)

The cobalt concentration fluctuates in root and shoot between 3.16-7.58 and 2.68-7.28 mg/kg in HPZ, respectively [\(Table 4.3\)](#page-206-0). *Adiantum capillus-veneris* and *Morus nigra* were identified as phytoextractors and *Cynodon dactylon, Datura innoxia, Ficus carica, Tamarix aphylla* and *Withania somnifera* were recorded as phytostabilizers of cobalt heavy metal in HPZ [\(Table 4.4\)](#page-208-0). At the same time, cobalt varied from 1.24-5.92 in root and 0.08-4.25 mg/kg in shoot of the studied indicator species in the less polluted zone of MWPE [\(Table 4.5\)](#page-210-0). Based on BCF, TF and BAC values, *Adiantum capillus-veneris, Desmostachya bipinnata, Erigeron bonariensis, Morus alba* and *Withania somnifera* were phytostabilizers of cobalt PTE in LPZ of MWPE [\(Table 4.6\)](#page-212-0).

4.3.1.8 Cadmium (Cd)

In heavy metal concentration was reveated to be between
1.63 mg/kg in shoot of the 19 studied plants (Table 4.3
procera, Datura innoxia, Dodonaea viscosa, Morus a
hysterophorus, Ricinus communis and Withania so
phytoextrac The cadmium heavy metal concentration was revealed to be between 23.18-34.76 in root and 17.98-31.63 mg/kg in shoot of the 19 studied plants (Table 4.3). *Albizia lebbeck, Calotropis procera, Datura innoxia, Dodonaea viscosa, Morus alba, Morus nigra, Parthenium hysterophorus, Ricinus communis* and *Withania somnifera* were the significant phytoextracter species for cadmium non-biological heavy metal in the subtropical zone of MWPS. *Debregeasia salicifolia, Desmostachya bipinnata* and *Tamarix aphylla* were identified as accumulators for phytostabilization of cadmium metal [\(Table 4.4\)](#page-208-0). In the less polluted zone, cadmium concentration ranged from 12.12 -68.64 in root and 10.44-18.21 mg/kg in shoot of indicator species [\(Table 4.5\)](#page-210-0). *Dodonaea viscosa* was recorded as a hyperaccumulator of cadmium metal, while, *Calotropis procera* and *Withania somnifera* were reported as phytostabilizers of cadmium potential toxic element in LPZ of MWPE (Table 4.6).

4.3.1.9 Calcium

The calcium concentration was determined to be between 13.97 - 605.22 in root and 0.85 - 295.75 mg/kg in shoot of all the nineteen studied indicator species grown in the highly polluted ecosystem [\(Table 4.3\)](#page-206-0). *Adiantum capillus-veneris, Ailanthus altissima, Cynodon dactylon, Debregeasia salicifolia, Erigeron bonariensis, Ficus carica, Morus alba, Morus nigra, Parthenium hysterophorus* and *Withania somnifera* were identified as contributing to the phytoremediation of calcium in the highly polluted marble waste ecosystem [\(Table 4.4\)](#page-208-0). In contrast, the calcium concentration ranged between 37.08 - 172.20 in root and 36-164.04 mg/kg in shoot of selected indicators in the less polluted zone of MWPE [\(Table 4.5\)](#page-210-0). *Desmostachya bipinnata* was identified as a phytoextractor,

while *Adiantum capillus-veneris*, *Erigeron bonariensis* and *Morus alba* were recorded as phytostabilizers of potential toxic levels of calcium in LPZ [\(Table 4.6\)](#page-212-0).

4.3.1.10 Magnesium

In the highly polluted zone of MWPE, magnesium concentration was recorded between 59.61 - 248.76 in root and 11.42 - 284.22 mg/kg in shoot of the indicator species [\(Table](#page-206-0) [4.3\)](#page-206-0). *Adiantum capillus-veneris* was recorded as a hyper accumulator, while *Ailanthus altissima, Albizia lebbeck, Calotropis procera, Cynodon dactylon, Debregeasia salicifolia, Desmostachya bipinnata, Erigeron bonariensis, Ficus carica, Morus alba, Morus nigra, Ricinus communis* and *Setaria viridis* were identified as phytostabilizers of toxic levels of magnesium in the highly polluted zone of MWPE [\(Table 4.4\)](#page-208-0). Magnesium concentration was recorded between 16.72-135.92 in root and 7.80-133.58 mg/kg in shoot of indicators in the less polluted zone of MWPE (Table 4.5). Among all the studied plant species, none showed phytoremediation ability for magnesium metal in the less polluted zone of MWPE (Table 4.6).

4.3.1.11 Sodium

d, *nechasis commans* and *betara virtus* were defined as
of magnesium in the highly polluted zone of MWPE (Tab
n was recorded between 16.72-135.92 in root and 7.8
licators in the less polluted zone of MWPE (Table 4.5). The recorded sodium element concentration varied from 14.37-54.75 mg/kg in root and 13.74-49.78 mg/kg in shoot of the indicator species in HPZ (Table 4.3). The plant species *Desmostachya bipinnata, Dodonaea viscosa* and *Erigeron bonariensis* were recorded as hyperaccumulators, while *Adiantum capillus-veneris, Albizia lebbeck, Calotropis procera, Cynodon dactylon, Datura innoxia, Debregeasia salicifolia, Ficus carica, Morus alba, Parthenium hysterophorus, Tamarix aphylla* and *Withania somnifera* were identified as phytostabilizers of sodium metal in the highly polluted zone of MWPE [\(Table 4.4\)](#page-208-0). The sodium concentration fluctuates between 16.19-51.31 in root and 18.38-26.22 mg/kg in shoot of all the studied indicator species in the less polluted zone [\(Table 4.5\)](#page-210-0). *Adiantum capillus-veneris*, *Erigeron bonariensis* were assessed as phytostabilizers, *Desmostachya bipinnata* as a hyper accumulator, and *Ricinus communis* and *Setaria viridis* as phytoextractors of sodium metal in LPZ [\(Table 4.6\)](#page-212-0).

Plant Name	Part	Cr	Ni	Cu	Mn	C _d	Zn	Fe	Co	Ca	Mg	Na
	Root	13.06	32.21	54.46	33.84	26.78	50.35	89.36	6.96	297.20	242.20	37.34
Adiantum capillus-veneris	Shoot	11.06	31.61	48.98	31.44	24.22	49.14	89.02	6.67	234.48	284.22	36.66
	Root	13.12	32.11	43.70	42.02	23.58	51.19	102.7	5.92	283.76	216.63	32.50
Ailanthus altissima	Shoot	12.70	31.03	42.40	40.34	17.98	48.77	97.50	4.09	222.52	212.86	24.41
	Root	15.88	34.51	51.48	31.82	29.04	58.87	95.24	4.72	213.80	211.62	35.41
Albizia lebbeck	Shoot	14.81	33.64	45.67	31.44	31.37	56.58	93.81	3.22	138.80	197.56	34.96
	Root	13.99	31.10	45.36	40.59	27.91	54.52	92.53	5.88	13.97	235.36	39.43
Calotropis procera	Shoot	13.01	28.38	43.17	33.29	26.95	45.74	78.28	4.60	17.12	225.77	35.31
	Root	13.50	32.79	36.52	40.50	25.72	53.58	94.44	6.96	357.40	235.62	39.12
Cynodon dactylon	Shoot	11.98	31.88	34.52	39.07	23.72	40.27	92.79	5.18	289.30	192.79	31.85
	Root	15.76	34.83	45.56	40.04	28.04	53.16	97.14	7.58	143.98	173.83	46.72
Datura innoxia	Shoot	16.62	33.80	43.61	36.47	27.93	48.69	94.80	6.25	123.32	145.25	37.95
	Root	14.18	31.65	31.94	38.44	27.26	48.00	96.36	3.16	325.02	248.76	39.25
Debregeasia salicifolia	Shoot	13.14	29.42	30.47	35.57	25.52	43.36	94.50	2.68	295.75	234.13	36.80
	Root	14.67	30.45	46.76	42.95	27.79	63.60	94.19	5.28	40.71	247.38	35.57
Desmostachya bipinnata	Shoot	13.45	24.81	45.65	42.71	26.39	50.50	93.01	4.93	0.85	189.01	45.39
	Root	15.70	33.35	39.16	40.34	28.02	91.69	95.02	4.78	222.98	135.30	39.04
Dodonaea viscosa	Shoot	14.58	34.39	35.36	39.91	27.44	74.42	94.50	3.96	143.42	116.41	39.00
	Root	13.22	33.25	35.96	36.28	25.50	54.82	95.46	5.64	290.22	195.06	37.64
Erigeron bonariensis	Shoot	11.48	32.83	34.94	33.40	23.36	43.72	94.28	5.88	244.68	193.85	49.78
	Root	12.32	33.47	36.87	42.74	24.44	56.01	88.20	7.40	276.56	233.58	34.06
Ficus carica	Shoot	10.32	32.62	34.26	41.46	20.41	51.01	86.35	6.65	215.56	198.29	33.45
Morus alba	Root	12.72	35.31	37.58	40.62	27.84	47.01	94.70	3.92	288.72	197.21	42.34

Table 4.3 The concentration of heavy metals recorded (mg/kg) in the root and shoot of plant species in the highly polluted zone of MWPE.

Table 4.4 Biological Concentration Factor (BCF), Translocation Factor (TF) and Bioaccumulation Coefficient (BAC) for different heavy metals of indicator species in the highly polluted zone of MWPE.

Plant Name	Factor	Cr	Ni	Cu	Mn	C _d	Zn	Fe	Co	Ca	Mg	Na
Adiantum capillus-veneris	BCF	1.00	0.94	1.44	0.82	0.94	0.88	0.94	0.97	1.06	1.27	1.06
	TF	0.85	0.98	0.90	0.93	0.90	0.98	1.00	0.96	0.79	1.17	0.98
	BAC	0.84	0.92	1.30	0.76	0.85	0.86	0.94	0.93	0.84	1.49	1.04
Ailanthus altissima	BCF	1.00	0.93	1.16	1.01	0.83	0.90	1.09	0.82	1.02	1.13	0.92
	TF	0.97	0.97	0.97	0.96	0.76	0.95	0.95	0.69	0.78	0.98	0.75
	BAC	0.97	0.90	1.12	0.97	0.63	0.85	1.03	0.57	0.80	1.11	0.69
Albizia lebbeck	BCF	1.21	1.00	1.37	0.77	1.02	1.03	1.01	0.66	0.77	1.11	1.00
	TF	0.93	0.97	0.89	0.99	1.08	0.96	0.98	0.68	0.65	0.93	0.99
	BAC	1.13	0.98	1.21	0.76	1.10	0.99	0.99	0.45	0.50	1.03	0.99
Calotropis procera	BCF	1.07	0.90	1.20	0.98	0.98	0.95	0.98	0.82	0.05	1.23	1.12
	TF	0.93	0.91	0.95	0.82	0.97	0.84	0.85	0.78	1.23	0.96	0.90
	BAC	0.99	0.82	1.15	0.80	0.94	0.80	0.83	0.64	0.06	1.18	1.00
Cynodon dactylon	BCF	1.03	0.95	0.97	0.98	0.90	0.94	1.00	0.97	1.28	1.23	1.11
	TF	0.89	0.97	0.95	0.96	0.92	0.75	0.98	0.74	0.81	0.82	0.81
	BAC	0.91	0.93	0.92	0.94	0.83	0.70	0.98	0.72	1.04	1.01	0.90
Datura innoxia	BCF	1.20	1.01	1.21	0.97	0.98	0.93	1.03	1.05	0.52	0.91	1.32
	TF	1.05	0.97	0.96	0.91	1.00	0.92	0.98	0.82	0.86	0.84	0.81
	BAC	1.27	0.98	1.16	0.88	0.98	0.85	1.00	0.87	0.44	0.76	1.07
Debregeasia salicifolia	BCF	1.08	0.92	0.85	0.93	0.95	0.84	1.02	0.44	1.16	1.30	1.11
	TF	0.93	0.93	0.95	0.93	0.94	0.90	0.98	0.85	0.91	0.94	0.94
	BAC	1.00	0.85	0.81	0.86	0.89	0.76	1.00	0.37	1.06	1.22	1.04
Desmostachya bipinnata	BCF	1.12	0.88	1.24	1.04	0.97	1.11	1.00	0.73	0.15	1.29	1.01
	TF	0.92	0.81	0.98	0.99	0.95	0.79	0.99	0.93	0.02	0.76	1.28
	BAC	1.03	0.72	1.21	1.03	0.92	0.88	0.98	0.69	0.00	0.99	1.28
Dodonaea viscosa	BCF	1.20	0.97	1.04	0.97	0.98	1.60	1.00	0.66	0.80	0.71	1.10
	TF	0.93	1.03	0.90	0.99	0.98	0.81	0.99	0.83	0.64	0.86	1.00
	BAC	1.11	1.00	0.94	0.96	0.96	1.30	1.00	0.55	0.51	0.61	1.10
Erigeron bonariensis	BCF	1.01	0.97	0.95	0.88	0.89	0.96	1.01	0.78	1.04	1.02	1.06
	TF	0.87	0.99	0.97	0.92	0.92	0.80	0.99	1.04	0.84	0.99	1.32
	BAC	0.88	0.95	0.93	0.81	0.82	0.77	1.00	0.82	0.88	1.01	1.41
Ficus carica	BCF	0.94	0.97	0.98	1.03	0.86	0.98	0.93	1.03	0.99	1.22	0.96
	TF	0.84	0.97	0.93	0.97	0.84	0.91	0.98	0.90	0.78	0.85	0.98
	BAC	0.79	0.95	0.91	1.00	0.71	0.89	0.91	0.92	0.77	1.04	0.95
Morus alba	BCF	0.97	1.03	1.00	0.98	0.98	0.82	1.00	0.54	1.03	1.03	1.20
	TF	0.96	0.94	0.98	0.92	0.96	0.91	0.99	0.86	0.75	0.98	0.75
	BAC	0.93	0.97	0.98	0.90	0.94	0.75	0.99	0.47	0.78	1.01	0.90

Botanical Names	Part	Cr	Ni	Cu	Mn	C _d	Zn	Fe	Co	Ca	Mg	Na
	Root	10.20	9.64	30.96	4.20	16.88	36.27	52.80	5.16	172.20	122.33	28.90
Adiantum capillus-veneris	Shoot	9.16	6.72	27.92	2.84	15.68	34.57	47.64	4.25	164.04	111.08	26.21
	Root	10.52	8.88	24.60	1.76	12.12	36.92	69.92	1.24	137.00	116.24	27.22
Ailanthus altissima	Shoot	9.84	6.92	24.28	1.88	11.52	33.15	58.36	0.08	116.00	111.08	25.55
	Root	12.88	10.26	21.48	13.29	14.72	41.35	65.00	3.28	103.34	111.88	25.25
Albizia lebbeck	Shoot	10.81	9.26	20.67	12.18	13.35	39.53	63.05	2.95	88.76	94.93	24.18
	Root	10.56	5.44	23.16	2.80	18.64	39.46	58.16	3.72	86.88	131.69	23.85
Calotropis procera	Shoot	9.04	2.00	23.01	2.20	16.80	37.34	52.96	2.64	60.76	110.36	23.25
	Root	10.23	8.35	20.07	5.96	15.33	39.76	64.82	4.29	68.29	135.73	27.27
Cynodon dactylon	Shoot	9.34	7.12	14.52	3.40	14.72	30.58	59.29	2.96	57.40	125.62	19.12
	Root	10.24	10.57	26.46	4.35	14.27	40.90	67.29	4.43	117.01	131.98	27.99
Datura innoxia	Shoot	9.64	8.96	20.80	2.56	13.76	38.75	59.20	3.48	106.20	81.32	25.83
	Soot	12.28	8.24	17.32	13.96	15.92	36.57	12.12	2.72	119.36	98.28	19.32
Debregeasia salicifolia	Shoot	11.08	4.28	15.56	12.72	15.60	33.44	9.56	2.60	110.68	80.76	16.19
	Root	12.72	6.28	16.52	5.04	16.20	38.87	17.00	5.20	163.56	72.17	28.26
Desmostachya bipinnata	Shoot	11.96	4.72	14.76	2.88	15.36	26.34	12.52	4.24	163.24	61.37	51.31
	Root	11.88	8.76	19.72	5.29	18.28	44.83	58.60	4.00	123.08	113.48	21.12
Dodonaea viscosa	Shoot	9.84	7.16	14.80	2.36	18.21	42.74	47.16	3.82	59.96	112.83	18.38
	Root	11.08	5.36	19.08	9.12	16.56	43.26	54.40	4.80	169.60	133.64	28.42
Erigeron bonariensis	Shoot	8.96	4.84	16.84	3.04	14.28	42.59	52.72	3.52	147.92	129.18	26.22
	Root	10.78	9.39	16.58	17.28	14.47	43.19	58.29	4.29	157.28	135.92	27.88
Ficus carica	Shoot	9.32	8.80	13.86	15.64	10.44	41.01	50.68	3.40	146.56	133.58	23.06
Morus alba	Root	10.26	9.64	22.48	19.52	16.84	43.68	64.08	5.92	168.72	129.21	25.34

Table 4.5 The concentration of heavy metals recorded (mg/kg) in the root and shoot of plant species in the less polluted zone of MWPE.

Botanical Names	Factor	Cr	Ni	Cu	Mn	C _d	Zn	Fe	Co	Ca	Mg	Na
	BCF	0.94	0.88	1.45	0.20	0.95	0.82	0.73	1.16	1.03	0.89	1.02
	TF	0.90	0.70	0.90	0.68	0.93	0.95	0.90	0.82	0.95	0.91	0.91
Adiantum capillus-veneris	BAC	0.84	0.61	1.30	0.14	0.88	0.79	0.66	0.95	0.98	0.81	0.92
	BCF	0.97	0.81	1.15	0.08	0.68	0.84	0.97	0.28	0.82	0.84	0.96
	TF	0.94	0.78	0.99	1.07	0.95	0.90	0.83	0.06	0.85	0.96	0.94
Ailanthus altissima	BAC	0.90	0.63	1.13	0.09	0.65	0.75	0.81	0.02	0.69	0.81	0.90
	BCF	1.18	0.94	1.00	0.64	0.83	0.94	0.90	0.74	0.62	0.81	0.89
	TF	0.84	0.90	0.96	0.92	0.91	0.96	0.97	0.90	0.86	0.85	0.96
Albizia lebbeck	BAC	0.99	0.84	0.97	0.59	0.75	$\overline{0.90}$	0.87	0.66	0.53	0.69	0.85
	BCF	0.97	0.50	1.08	0.13	1.05	0.90	0.81	0.83	0.52	0.96	0.84
	TF	0.86	0.37	0.99	0.79	0.90	0.95	0.91	0.71	0.70	0.84	0.98
Calotropis procera	BAC	0.83		0.18 1.08	0.11	0.95	0.85	0.73	0.59	0.36	0.80	0.82
	BCF	0.94	0.76	0.94	0.29	0.86	0.90	0.90	0.96	0.41	0.99	0.96
	TF	0.91	0.85	0.72	0.57	0.96	0.77	0.91	0.69	0.84	0.93	0.70
Cynodon dactylon	BAC	0.86	0.65	0.68	0.16	0.83	0.69	0.82	0.66	0.34	0.91	0.67
	BCF	0.94	0.96	1.24	0.21	0.80	0.93	0.93	0.99	0.70	0.96	0.99
	TF.	0.94	0.85	0.79	0.59	0.96	0.95	0.88	0.79	0.91	0.62	0.92
Datura innoxia	BAC	0.89	0.82	0.97	0.12	0.77	0.88	0.82	0.78	0.63	0.59	0.91
	BCF	1.13	0.75	0.81	0.67	0.90	0.83	0.17	0.61	0.71	0.71	0.68
	TF	0.90	0.52	0.90	0.91	0.98	0.91	0.79	0.96	0.93	0.82	0.84
Debregeasia salicifolia	BAC	1.02	0.39	0.73	0.61	0.88	0.76	0.13	0.58	0.66	0.59	0.57
	BCF	1.17	0.57	0.77	0.24	0.91	0.88	0.24	1.17	0.98	0.52	1.00
	TF	0.94	0.75	0.89	0.57	0.95	0.68	0.74	0.82	1.00	0.85	1.82
Desmostachya bipinnata	BAC	1.10	0.43	0.69	0.14	0.86	0.60	0.17	0.95	0.97	0.45	1.81
	BCF	1.09	0.80	0.92	0.25	1.03	1.02	0.81	0.90	0.73	0.82	0.74
	TF	0.83	0.82	0.75	0.45	1.00	0.95	0.80	0.95	0.49	0.99	0.87
Dodonaea viscosa	BAC	0.90	0.65	0.69	0.11	1.03	0.97	0.65	0.86	0.36	0.82	0.65

Table 4.6 BCF, TF and BAC for measured heavy metals of indicator species in the less polluted zone of MWPE.

4.3.2 Pattern in chlorophyll contents of indicator plants

The chlorophyll-a, b and total carotenoids were assessed in plant shoot (leaves) of indicator species both in highly and less polluted marble waste ecosytem. The results indicate that the chlorophyll-a, b and total caroteniods decrease with an increase in marble pollution. The chlorophyll contents increase when moving from high levels of marble pollution towards the less polluted zone [\(Fig. 4.9](#page-215-0) & [Table 4.7\)](#page-217-0).

), *Datura innoxia* (0.52 mg/g), *Persicaria glabra* (0.50 m
teris (0.48 mg/g) in the highly polluted marble waste
mount were shown by *Desmostachya bipinnata* (0.13 mg/g
, *Setaria viridis* (0.31 mg/g), *Calotropis pro* The maximum amount of chlorophyll-a was recorded in *Ailanthus altissima* (1.45 mg/g), followed by *Ficus carica* (0.71 mg/g), *Morus alba* (0.65 mg/g), *Debregeasia salicifolia* (0.52 mg/g), *Datura innoxia* (0.52 mg/g), *Persicaria glabra* (0.50 mg/g) and *Adiantum capillus-veneris* (0.48 mg/g) in the highly polluted marble waste ecosystem. While minimum amount were shown by *Desmostachya bipinnata* (0.13 mg/g), *Tamarix aphylla* (0.25 mg/g), *Setaria viridis* (0.31 mg/g), *Calotropis procera* and *Cynodon dactylon* (0.32 mg/g each) (Fig. 4.9 & Table 4.7). In the less polluted environment, the maximum concentration of chlorophyll-a was recorded from *Ailanthus altissima* (1.78 mg/g), *Morus alba* (1.03 mg/g), *Erigeron bonariensis* (0.82 mg/g), *Ficus carica* (0.81 mg/g), *Adiantum capillus-veneris* (0.71 mg/g), *Persicaria glabra* (0.70 mg/g) and *Morus nigra* (0.66 mg/g). At the same time, the lowest amount of chlorophyll-a was determined in *Desmostachya bipinnata* (0.29 mg/g), *Calotropis procera* (0.35 mg/g), *Dodonaea viscosa* (0.43 mg/g), *Cynodon dactylon* (0.44 mg/g), *Tamarix aphylla* (0.45 mg/g) and *Albizia lebbeck* (0.49 mg/g) (Fig. 4.9 & Table 4.7).

Fig. 4.9 Chlorophyll-a contents (mg/g) in the leaves of some identified indicator plants in HPZ and LPZ.

 $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^0}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^0}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^0}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^0}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^0}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^0}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^0}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^0}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^0}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^0}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^0}$ and The highest amount of chlorophyll-b was observed in *Ailanthus altissima* (0.78 mg/g) acompanied by *Morus alba* (0.38 mg/g), *Ficus carica* (0.35 mg/g), *Persicaria glabra* (0.27 mg/g) and *Debregeasia salicifolia* (0.22 mg/g) in the highly MWPE. The lowest amount of chlorophyll-b was shown by *Desmostachya bipinnata* (0.063 mg/g), *Parthenium hysterophorus* (0.065 mg/g), *Ricinus communis* (0.075 mg/g), *Calotropis procera* (0.098 mg/g), *Erigeron bonariensis* (0.11 mg/g) and *Tamarix aphylla* (0.12 mg/g) [\(Fig. 4.10](#page-216-0) & [Table 4.7\)](#page-217-0). Whereas, in the LPZ environment the maximum amount of chlorophyll-b was observed in *Calotropis procera* (1.06 mg/g) followed *Ailanthus altissima* (0.95 mg/g), *Ficus carica* (0.50 mg/g), *Morus alba* (0.48 mg/g), *Erigeron bonariensis* (0.43 mg/g) and *Persicaria glabra* (0.39 mg/g). *Desmostachya bipinnata* (0.06 mg/g), *Cynodon dactylon* (0.11 mg/g), *Parthenium hysterophorus* (0.14 mg/g), *Dodonaea viscosa* (0.19 mg/g) and *Tamarix aphylla* (0.20 mg/g) comprehended the miniumum amount of chlorophyll-b in the control enviroment [\(Fig. 4.10](#page-216-0) & [Table 4.7\)](#page-217-0).

Fig. 4.10 Chlorophyll-b contents (mg/g) in leaves of some identified indicator plants in highly and less marble waste polluted ecosystem.

 $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$ and $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial$ Regarding the amount of total carotenoids, the maximum concentrations were shown by *Ailanthus altissima* (5.79 mg/g), *Ficus carica* (2.85 mg/g), *Morus alba* (2.60 mg/g), *Debregeasia salicifolia* (2.07 mg/g), *Datura innoxia* (2.06 mg/g) and *Persicaria glabra* (2.01 mg/g) in the HPZ of MWPE. At the same time, the lowest amounts of total carotenoids were determined in *Cynodon dactylon* (1.28 mg/g), *Calotropis procera* (1.28 mg/g), *Setaria viridis* (1.27 mg/g), *Tamarix aphylla* (1.01 mg/g) and *Desmostachya bipinnata* (0.51 mg/g) in the MWPE [\(Fig. 4.11](#page-217-0) & [Table 4.7\)](#page-217-1). While in the LPZ, *Ailanthus altissima* (7.11 mg/g), *Morus alba* (4.13 mg/g), *Erigeron bonariensis* (3.27 mg/g), *Ficus carica* (3.24 mg/g), *Adiantum capillus-veneris* (2.85 mg/g) showed maximum and *Desmostachya bipinnata* (1.81 mg/g), *Calotropis procera* (1.75 mg/g), *Dodonaea viscosa* (1.74 mg/g), *Cynodon dactylon* (1.41 mg/g) and *Tamarix aphylla* (1.16 mg/g) comprehended the minimum amount of total carotenoids [\(Fig. 4.11](#page-217-0) & [Table](#page-217-1) [4.7\)](#page-217-1).

Fig. 4.11 Total carotenoids (mg/g) in leaves of identified indicator plants in the HPZ and LPZ of marble waste polluted ecosystem.

Table 4.7 Detailed description of Chlorophyll-a, b and total carotenoids determined in the indicator plant species in response to MWPE stress.

		Chlorophyll-a		Chlorophyll-b		Carotenoids	
S.		(mg/g)		(mg/g)		(mg/g)	
N ₀	Plant Names	HPZ	LPZ	HPZ	LPZ	HPZ	L PZ
\mathbf{I}	Adiantum capillus-veneris	0.48393	0.71371	0.19995	0.33193	1.93572	2.85484
$\overline{2}$	Ailanthus altissima	1.44787	1.77686	0.78076	0.95489	5.79148	7.10744
3	Albizia lebbeck	0.39409	0.49209	0.13963	0.28863	1.57636	1.96836
$\overline{4}$	Calotropis procera	0.3202	0.35362	0.09784	1.06012	1.2808	1.41448
5	Cynodon dactylon	0.32027	0.43663	0.13799	0.11278	1.28108	1.74652
6	Datura innoxia	0.51579	0.57262	0.13398	0.24136	2.06316	2.29048
7	Debregeasia salicifolia	0.51789	0.58596	0.21726	0.31122	2.07156	2.34384
8	Desmostachya bipinnata	0.12773	0.29115	0.06263	0.06702	0.51092	1.1646

4.3.3 Proline accumulation as a survival mechanism in indicator plants

The proline contents are directly proportional to the level of marble pollution in the indicator plants. The maximum amount of proline accumulation was recorded in plants grown in the HPZ of MWPE as compared to the LPZ (Fig. 4.12 & [Table 4.8\)](#page-219-1).

phylla 0.25279 0.45335 0.11548 0.1992

nomnifera 0.4467 0.54264 0.12237 0.291

interaccumulation as a survival mechanism in indicator

contents are directly proportional to the level of marb

ants. The maximum amount of p The maximum amount of proline accumulation was recorded in *Cynodon dactylon* (93.91 µg/g), followed by *Ailanthus altissima* (68.61 µg/g), *Withania somnifera* (57.54 µg/g), *Ficus carica* (43.52 µg/g), *Morus nigra* (35.53 µg/g), *Ricinus communis* (32.03 µg/g) and *Datura innoxia* (30.77 µg/g). The lowest amount of proline contents was shown by *Adiantum capillus-veneris* (9.95 µg/g), *Dodonaea viscosa* (11.35 µg/g), *Erigeron bonariensis* (12.96 µg/g), *Persicaria glabra* (13.74 µg/g), *Desmostachya bipinnata* (14.16 µg/g) and *Albizia lebbeck* (15.14 µg/g) in the HPZ of MWPE [\(Fig. 4.12](#page-219-0) & [Table](#page-219-1) [4.8\)](#page-219-1).

At the same time, *Ailanthus altissima* (62.80 µg/g), *Ficus carica* (36.23 µg/g), *Morus nigra* (22.57 µg/g), *Parthenium hysterophorus* (21.87 µg/g), *Morus alba* (18.78 µg/g) comprehended maximum and *Dodonaea viscosa* (2.24 µg/g), *Calotropis procera* (4.20 µg/g), *Cynodon dactylon* (5.05 µg/g), *Adiantum capillus-veneris* (5.60 µg/g) and *Erigeron bonariensis* (5.61 µg/g) showed the minimum accumulation of proline contents in the LPZ [\(Fig. 4.12](#page-219-0) & [Table 4.8\)](#page-219-1).

Fig. 4.12 Proline accumulation in the leaves of identified indicator plant species in the HPZ and LPZ of MWPE.

Table 4.8 Pattern of proline accumulation in the indicator plant in response to highly and less marble pollution.

		Proline $(\mu g/g)$			
S. No.	Plant Names	HPZ	LPZ		
	Adiantum capillus-veneris	9.95136	5.6064		
$\overline{2}$	Ailanthus altissima	68.60832	62.79168		
3	Albizia lebbeck	15.13728	8.12928		
$\overline{4}$	Calotropis procera	17.23968	4.2048		
5	Cynodon dactylon	93.9072	5.04576		
6	Datura innoxia	30.76512	9.95136		
7	Debregeasia salicifolia	18.29088	13.10496		

4.3.4 Mixed Effect Model

Setaria viridis

Tamarix aphylla

20.39328 8.26944

26.42016 12.82464

Withania somnifera

57.53568 7.07808

ed Effect Model

effect modeling showed both fixed and random effect

orophyll-a and chlorophyll-b are fixed, The mixed effect modeling showed both fixed and random effects simultaneously. Proline, chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b are fixed, while phytoremediation is a random component in the model. The results of the fixed effect model indicate a positive significant relationship between chromium phytoremediation and proline accumulation (0.3033) by indicator species in MWPE. At the same time, chlorophyll-a and b exhibit a significant negative $(-0.4017 \& 0.2882)$ relationship with phytoremediation of chromium metal (Fig. 4.3.5 & Table 4.9). The recorded inter-specific variance between highly and less polluted zone was 20%, and among chromium and other potential toxic elements was 70% [\(Fig. 4.13](#page-229-0) & Table 4.3.8).

Nickel phytoremediation by the identified indicator species had a significant positive relationship with proline accumulation (0.3175) after the analysis of the fixed effect modeling. Chlorophyll-a showed an insignificant positive (0.1805) and chlorophyll-b a significant negative (-0.3489) relationship with the phytoremediation of nickel. The interspecific variance between highly and less polluted zone was noted as 19%, and among nickel and other metals was 73% [\(Fig. 4.14](#page-230-0) & [Table 4.9\)](#page-223-0).

The results of the mixed effect modeling demonstrated an insignificant positive (0.225) relation between copper phytoremediation and proline accumulation by indicator plants in MWPE. While chlorophyll-a showed insignificant (-0.24171) and chlorophyll-b significant negative (-0.1672) relationships with the phytoremediation of copper metal. The inter-specific variance between polluted zone and among copper plus other quantified metals were 22 and 63 %, respectively [\(Fig. 4.15](#page-231-0) & [Table 4.9\)](#page-223-0)

The amount of proline accumulation increased (0.3822) significantly with increase in manganese phytoremediation. Both chlorophyll-a and b decrease $(-0.3374 \& -0.2107)$ with increase in accumulation of manganese metal by studied plant species. The recorded inter-specific variance between highly and less polluted zone was 22%, and among manganese and potential toxic elements was 66% (Table 4.9).

ic variance between highly and less polluted zone was
and potential toxic elements was 66% (Table 4.9).
t of cadmium phytoremediation by identified indicators shationship with proline accumulation (0.3023) after the ar-
el The amount of cadmium phytoremediation by identified indicators showed a significant positive relationship with proline accumulation (0.3023) after the analysis of the fixed effect modeling. The chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b illustrated significant negative (- 1504 & -02199) relationships with the phytoremediation of cadmium toxic level. The inter-specific variance between highly and less polluted zone was observed as 32.1%, and among cadmium and other metals was 53% (Fig. 4.16 & Table 4.9).

The concentration of proline accumulation is directly proportional (0.3247) to phytoremediation of zinc heavy metal in marble waste polluted ecosystem. Initially, chlorophyll-a increased with an increase in zinc phytoremediation in the less polluted zone. However, it showed an inverse relation with zinc phytoremediation in the highly polluted zone. The chlorophyll-b has a significant negative (-0.3290) relationship with the phytoremediation of zinc heavy metal. The recorded inter-specific variance between highly and less polluted zone was 25%, and among zinc and potential toxic elements was 62 % [\(Fig. 4.17](#page-233-0) & [Table 4.9\)](#page-223-0).

The amount of proline accumulation increases (0.3056) significantly with increase in iron phytoremediation. Both chlorophyll-a and b decreased $(-0.1651 \& -0.2653)$ with increase in accumulation of iron metal in the studied plant species. The inter-specific variance between polluted zone and among copper plus other quantified metals were 42 and 43 %, respectively [\(Fig. 4.18](#page-234-0) & [Table 4.9\)](#page-223-0).

The mixed effect modeling illustrated that the proline has a positive (0.2183), while chlorophyll-a (-0.2013) and chlorophyll-b (-0.1507) have significant negative relationships with the cobalt phytoremediation of indicator species of marble waste polluted ecosystem. The inter-specific variance between polluted zone was 15 % and among potential toxic elements was 70% [\(Fig. 4.19](#page-235-0) & [Table 4.9\)](#page-223-0).

The results of the fixed effect model demonstrated a positive significant relationship between calcium phytoremediation and proline accumulation (i.e., 0.4665) by indicator species in MWPE. At the same time, chlorophyll-a and b exhibited significant negative (- 0.5671 & -0.2796) relationships with phytoremediation of calcium metal [\(Fig. 4.20](#page-236-0)). The recorded inter-specific variance between highly and less polluted zone was 22%, and among chromium and potential toxic elements was 60% (Fig. 4.20 [Table 4.9\)](#page-223-0).

Magnesium phytoremediation by identified indicator species had a significant positive relationship with proline accumulation (0.4445), chlorophyll-b (0.3191) and an insignificant positive correlation with chlorophyll-a (0.018) after the analysis of fixed effect modeling. The inter-specific variance between highly and less polluted zone was noted as 24%, and among magnesium and other metals was 62% (Table 4.9).

Example 12 and proportional and proportional and potential and the phytoremediation of calculating the phytoremediation by identified indicator species had a with proline accumulation (0.4445), chlorophyll-b t positive co The results of the mixed effect modeling demonstrated an insignificant positive (0.221) relation between sodium phytoremediation and proline accumulation by indicator plants in MWPE. While chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b showed a significant negative relationship (-0.2778 & -0.3070) with the phytoremediation of sodium metal. The interspecific variance between polluted zone and among copper plus other quantified metals were 22 and 63 %, respectively [\(Fig. 4.21](#page-237-0) & [Table 4.9\)](#page-223-0)

Table 4.9 The detailed description of mixed effect model representing the impact of phytoremediation on proline and chlorophyll contents.

Fig. 4.13 The relationship between chromium phytoremediation along with proline, chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b in studied indicator plant species in the highly polluted zone (HPZ) and the less polluted zone (LZP) of MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. The red and blue lines represent HPZ and LPZ, respectively.

Fig. 4.14 The impact of nickel phytoremediation on proline accumulation, chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b in identified indicator plant species in the highly polluted zone (HPZ) and the less polluted zone (LZP) of MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. The red and blue lines represent HPZ and LPZ, respectively.

Fig. 4.15 The scattered plot for copper phytoremediation along with proline, chlorophylla and chlorophyll-b of indicator species in the highly polluted zone (HPZ) and the less polluted zone (LZP) of MWPE.

Fig. 4.16 The effect of cadmium phytoremediation leads to increase proline accumulation and decrease chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b in studied indicator plant species in the highly polluted zone (HPZ) and the less polluted zone (LZP) of MWPE.

Fig. 4.17 The scattered plot for zinc phytoremediation along with proline, chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b of indicator species in the highly polluted zone (HPZ) and the less polluted zone (LZP) of MWPE.

Fig. 4.18 The influence of iron phytoremediation on proline, chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b of indicator species in the highly and the less polluted zone of Marble waste polluted ecosystem.

Fig. 4.19 The cobalt phytoremediation approach increases proline accumulation and reduce chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b in the indicator species in the highly and less polluted zones of Marble waste polluted ecosystem.

Fig. 4.20 The scattered plot for calcium phytoremediation along with proline, chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b of indicator species in the highly polluted zone (HPZ) and the less polluted zone (LZP) of MWPE.

Fig. 4.21 The effect of sodium phytoremediation on proline, chlorophyll-a and chlorophyll-b in the studied plant species of the highly polluted zone (HPZ) and the less polluted zone (LZP) of MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

4.3.5 Myco-remediation / bioremediation ability of selected micro fungi

4.3.5.1 Magnesium

The biosorption or bioremediation ability of the selected micro fungi were assessed. Higher magnesium biosorption ability was observed in *Aspergillus sydowii* (average 0.25 mg/L; 50 %) followed by *Curvularia aeria* (0.178 mg/L; 35.5%), *Aspergillus brasilensi* (0.177 mg/L; 35.4 %) and *Alternaria alternata* (0.13 mg/L; 26 %) [\(Fig. 4.22](#page-238-0) & [Table](#page-244-0) [4.10\)](#page-244-0). The detailed day wise absorption is given in [Table 4.10.](#page-244-0)

Fig. 4.22 Magnesium bioremediation by selected micro fungi over different time intervals. Error bar represent the standard error.

4.3.5.2 Calcium

Aspergillus brasilensi showed the maximum (0.17 mg/L; 34%) calcium remediation followed by *Alternaria alternata* (0.168 mg/L; 33.7 %) and *Aspergillus sydowii* (0.167; 33.6 %). While the minimum calcium remediation ability was demonstrated by *Curvularia aeria* (0.125 mg/L; 25 %) [\(Fig. 4.23](#page-239-0) & [Table 4.10\)](#page-244-0).

4.3.5.3 Cadmium

The highest cadmium concentration was remediated by *Aspergillus sydowii* (0.32 mg/L; 64 %) followed by *Aspergillus Brasilensi* (0.30 mg/L; 60 %). *Alternaria alternata* and *Curvularia aeria* remediated 0.18 mg/L (35 %) & 0.17 mg/L (33 %) cadmium, respectively (Fig. 4.24 & Table 4.10).

Fig. 4.24 Detail of cadmium heavy metal remediation through micro fungi.

4.3.5.4 Cobalt

Aspergillus brasilensi showed maximum cobalt bioremediation i.e., 0.0894 mg/L (17.89 %). While *Alternaria alternata* remediated 0.0892 mg/L (17.84 %), *Aspergillus sydowii* 0.0565 mg/L (11 %) and *Curvularia aeria* 0.0469 mg/L (9 %) [\(Fig. 4.25](#page-240-0) & [Table 4.10\)](#page-244-0).

Fig. 4.25 Cobalt remediation by some of the selected micro fungi after specific time intervals.

4.3.5.5 Copper

The higher myco-remediation ability for copper heavy metal were shown by *Aspergillus sydowii* (0.175 mg/L; 35 %) followed by *Aspergillus brasilensi* (0.12 mg/L; 24 %), *Curvularia aeria* (0.114 mg/L; 22.8 %) and *Alternaria alternata* (0.113 mg/L; 22.7 %) [\(Fig. 4.26](#page-241-0) & [Table 4.10\)](#page-244-0).

Fig. 4.26 Copper bioremediation by selected micro fungi over different time intervals.

4.3.5.6 Iron

Aspergillus sydowii showed maximum iron bioremediation i.e., 0.115 mg/L (23 %). While Aspergillus *brasilensi* remediated 0.106 mg/L (21 %), *Curvularia aeria* 0.103 mg/L (20.6 %) and *Alternaria alternata* 0.101 mg/L (20.2 %) (Fig. 4.27 & [Table 4.10\)](#page-244-0).

Fig. 4.27 Iron heavy metal remediation through micro fungi after different time intervals

4.3.5.7 Mercury

The maximum mycoremediation ability for mercury heavy metal was shown by *Aspergillus sydowii* i.e., 0.10 mg/L (21 %), accompanied by *Aspergillus brasilensi* 0.086 mg/L (17 %), *Curvularia aeria* 0.078 mg/L (16 %) and *Alternaria alternata* 0.075 mg/L (15 %) (18%) [\(Fig. 4.28](#page-242-0) & [Table 4.10\)](#page-244-0).

Fig. 4.28 Mercury mycoremediation ability of the studied species isolated from MWPE

4.3.5.8 Sodium

Aspergillus sydowii and *Alternaria alternata* showed the higher sodium remediation ability at 0.167 mg/L (33 %) each. While *Curvularia aeria* and *Alternaria alternata* remediated 0.17 mg/L (29 %) and 0.12 mg/L (23 %) sodium potential toxic element (Fig. [4.29](#page-243-0) & [Table 4.10\)](#page-244-0).

4.3.5.9 Nickel

The maximum nickel remediation was shown by *Aspergillus brasilensi* (0.16 mg/L; 32 %) followed by *Curvularia aeria* (0.14 mg/L; 29%), *Aspergillus sydowii* (0.14 mg/L; 28 %) and *Alternaria alternata* (0.11 mg/L; 23 %) (Fig. 4.30 & Table 4.10).

Fig. 4.30 The nickel remediation ability of micro fungi isolated from MWPE.

Table 4.10 Mycoremediation ability of selected micro fungi after specific time interval (7 days).

4.4 Discussion

Bioremediation is one of the better strategies to restore polluted ecosystems at a low cost [\(Nascimento and Xing 2006;](#page-324-0) [Wei et al. 2020;](#page-331-0) [Yan et al. 2020\)](#page-331-1). Certain species of plants and microorganisms retain the inherent ability of bioaccumulation, translocation and degradation of different types of pollutants [\(Sepehri et al. 2020\)](#page-327-0). In this way, they play a role as a sink for biologically hazardous materials [\(Schwitzguébel 2017\)](#page-327-1).

species analysis using phytosociological attributes and
diation abilities of these species were determined
spectrophotometry. The study shows that from 0.11
als can be detected in the soil of the less marble waste
mg/kg in The current study focused on evaluation of indicator plant species in relation to their tolerance levels of marble pollution. These species were selected based on the higher values of density, cover, frequency, importance value index in the region followed by indicator species analysis using phytosociological attributes and PCORD analyses. Phytoremediation abilities of these species were determined through atomic absorption spectrophotometry. The study shows that from 0.11 to 610 mg/kg of heavy metals can be detected in the soil of the less marble waste polluted zone and 0.91- 643 mg/kg in the heavily polluted zone. Heavy metal concentration varied from 12.1 to 299 mg/kg and 15-439 mg/kg in the less, moderate and heavily polluted marble wastewater, respectively. Edaphic factors i.e., soil pH, organic matter, phosphorous and potassium varied significantly among these three polluted zones. Likewise, (Mulk et al. 2017) examined the influence of marble effluents on water along with sediment quality. They concluded that the concentration of heavy metals considerably increased with the increase in marble wastewater pollution. [\(Noreen et](#page-325-0) [al. 2019b\)](#page-325-0) assessed heavy metal concentrations along different physico-chemical parameters in the marble industrial effluents in Mardan Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. They showed higher amounts of heavy metals in water and worker's blood than the permissible limit set by the World Health Organization, Occupational Health and Safety Act, Occupational Health & Safety Division and Agency for Toxic Substances & Disease Registry, USA. Whereas, [\(Zornoza et al. 2013\)](#page-332-0) reported the effect of pig slurry combined and separately along with marble waste for heavy metals stabilization and organic matter mineralization. According to these researchers, the combined marble waste and pig slurry was the most significant treatment resulting in the highest reduction in the availability of metals which helped to reduce soil carbon loss and stabilize organic matter concentration. In other words, pig slurry mixed with marble waste reduced heavy metal accumulation in plants [\(Kabas et al.](#page-319-0) [2012\)](#page-319-0).

le impacts on the vegetation. Similarly, Malik et al. (20
ulation of different metals in various plant species. A
al accumulation and bioavailability significantly depen
ies, soil condition, climate, transfer progressions, The current project revealed that the BCF, TF and BAC values recorded for roots and shoots of all the selected plants indicate that these species are significant phytostabilizors and phytoextractors of the marble waste polluted ecosystem. Similar to our study [\(Kumar and Thambavani 2012\)](#page-321-0), investigated roadside vegetation exposed to pollution and observed *Pongamia pinnata, Polyalthia longifolia, Azadirachta indica* and *Ficus religiosa* helping in the remediation of pollution. Whereas, [\(Noor et](#page-324-2) [al. 2015\)](#page-324-2) worked on Air Pollution Tolerance Index and Anticipated Performance Index estimation of vegetation near to marble industrial region and concluded considerable impacts on the vegetation. Similarly, Malik et al. (2010) also examined the accumulation of different metals in various plant species. According to them, heavy metal accumulation and bioavailability significantly depends on the type of plant species, soil condition, climate, transfer progressions, sequestration, type of plant root system and their response to elements and seasonal cycles. Furthermore, higher soil pH resulted in a significant reduction in heavy metals and their leaching owing to their decreased solubility in less acidic soil. This reduced the absorption of heavy metals from the soil and their translocation into plant tissues [\(Liu et al. 2018a\)](#page-322-0).

Pollution is a dynamic phenomenon that affects every aspect of plant chemistry, biology and physiology, varying in space and time. Proline accumulation is a typical physiological response/reaction of certain plant species to a wide range of environmental stresses/pollution. It has been recorded to accumulate in plant tissues or organs exposed to pollution, salt, temperature, drought, infection by different pathogens/insects and various gases like NO2, SO2 and NH3 etc. (Saradhi, 1991). The current research study has shown that the proline concentration increases when the concentration of marble wastewater pollution increases. The amount of proline concentration encompasses a highly significant relationship with the chlorophyll, biological concentration factors, translocation factor and bioaccumulation coefficient factor/ability of the examined plant species (*A. altissima, A. donax, C. dactylon, E. canadensis* L*.*, *C. sativa, F. carica, L. aphaca* L*, M. alba* L*., P. alba* L, *R. pseudoacacia* and *V. negundo* L) in the marble wastewater pollution environment.

Proline has an important role to play in the protection of certain enzymes from denaturation, serving as a source of nitrogen and carbon, stabilizing protein synthesis, cytosolic acidity and scavenging hydroxyl radicals [\(Mateos et al. 2020\)](#page-323-0). The amount

inder salt stress in *Olea europaea* (olive tree) (Ahm
(Xu et al. 2009) also reported that the exogenous prolin
rance in *Solanum nigrum* by improving the activiti
The application of proline reduces the toxic effects of a of proline concentration increases in plant species as a defense mechanism to cope with environmental stress and to improve survival [\(Akshita et al. 2018;](#page-311-0) [Amiri et al.](#page-311-1) [2020;](#page-311-1) [Bates et al. 1973b\)](#page-313-0). Exposure of plant species to pollutants causes a reduction in the amount of photosynthetic pigments [\(Arellano et al. 2017;](#page-312-0) [Kanwal et al. 2020;](#page-320-0) [Li et](#page-322-1) [al. 2017;](#page-322-1) [Lin and Jin 2018\)](#page-322-2). These and other physiological variations help plants to maximize their efficiency for resource utilization under environmental stress. [\(Zouari](#page-332-1) [et al. 2016\)](#page-332-1) also described the role of exogenous proline in cadmium heavy metal stress alleviation. According to them, proline supplemented the plant's antioxidant defense and mineral uptake, while diminishing heavy metal (cadmium) oxidative damage in a young date palm. Proline increased photosynthetic activities and mineral nutrition under salt stress in *Olea europaea* (olive tree) (Ahmed et al., 2011). Similarly, (Xu et al. 2009) also reported that the exogenous proline increased heavy metal tolerance in *Solanum nigrum* by improving the activities of antioxidant enzymes. The application of proline reduces the toxic effects of arsenate by reducing arsenate accumulation and oxidative stress in *Solanum melongena* [\(Singh et al.](#page-328-0) [2015a\)](#page-328-0). Plants exposed to adverse environmental conditions exhibit variation in functions for the accumulation of proline i.e., sustaining osmotic and cell turgor equilibrium, scavenging reactive oxygen species and preventing electrolyte leakage by stabilizing the cell membrane (Hayat et al. 2012; [Shahid et al. 2014b\)](#page-328-1). The beneficial effect of proline is either direct i.e., increase in photosynthetic rate and mineral nutrition, or indirect in the form of tolerance against diseases in the plant species. (Shahid et al. 2014b) reported that the exogenous proline concentration amplified fresh plant weight by enhancing $CO₂$ absorption for photosynthesis in *Pisum sativum*. The protective effect of exogenous proline may be linked to improved mineral uptake [\(Dawood et al. 2014\)](#page-315-0). On the other hand, a significant proline amount has also been found in the reproductive organs of various plant species for developmental purposes [\(Mattioli et al. 2009\)](#page-323-1). For example, [\(Chiang and Dandekar](#page-314-0) [1995\)](#page-314-0) reported proline accounts for up to 26% of the whole pool of amino acids in reproductive tissues (pollen, seeds, siliques and florets) as compared to 1-3% in the vegetative parts of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. [\(Schwacke et al. 1999\)](#page-327-2) also reported a higher concentration of proline in tomato flowers as compared to other vegetative organs.

The current study has revealed that the amount of chlorophyll content decreased in all selected plant species when moving from the highly marble waste polluted zones towards the moderate and less polluted zones. Exposure of plants to various types of pollution decreases the concentration of their photosynthetic pigments, namely carotenoids and chlorophyll. It also affects pedicle length, plant yield, seed germination and inflorescence number [\(Nithamathi and Indira 2005\)](#page-324-3). Pollution and heavy metal stress decrease the activity of enzymes involved in chlorophyll synthesis and hence reduce photosynthetic activity (de Filippis and Pallaghy, 1994), disruption of membrane [\(Caspi et al. 1999\)](#page-314-1), metal ion exchange for chlorophyll molecule and decrease in the concentration of leaf chlorophyll [\(Kastori et al. 1998\)](#page-320-1). A significant decrease in the chlorophyll content was observed during drought stress in *Catharanthus roseus, Gossypium hirsutum, Helianthus annuus* and *Vaccinium myrtillus* (Jaleel et al. 2008; Kiani et al. 2008; Massacci et al. 2008; [Tahkokorpi et al.](#page-329-0) [2007\)](#page-329-0). When relative water content and leaf water capacity reduce the foliar photosynthetic rate of higher plants decreases (Lawlor and Cornic 2002). This may be due to metabolic impairment or stomatal closure (Lawson et al. 2003).

Jaleel et al. 2008; Kiani et al. 2008; Massacci et al. 2008
hen relative water content and leaf water capacity
etic rate of higher plants decreases (Lawlor and Cornic 2
abolic impairment or stomatal closure (Lawson et al. Furthermore, this chapter also assessed the mycoremediation ability of *Aspergillus sydowii, Aspergillus brasilensi, Curvularia aeria* and *Alternaria alternata.* All these species showed efficient bioremediation ability against cadmium, copper, cobalt, magnesium, iron, mercury, nickel, sodium and calcium heavy metals. Similar to the current finding (Joseph et al. 2011) also worked on the mycoremediation of some fungal species and assessed *Aspergillus sydowii*, *A. brasilensi* and *A. alliaceus* for copper, zinc and tin remediation. Likewise, (Kisielowska et al. 2012) reported *Aspergillus* species for heavy metal remediation. Our results are in close harmony with the findings of (Brunner et al. 2018; El-Morsy et al. 2017; [Ojha et al. 2017\)](#page-325-1), where they reported that *Aspergillus sydowii* and *Aspergillus brasensli* were effective strains for the remediation of different types of metal pollution. Different *Aspergillus* species were isolated from heavy metal contaminated sites showing high tolerance against arsenic, copper, zinc, magnesium heavy metals [\(Singh et al. 2015b;](#page-328-2) [Vickers](#page-330-0) [2017;](#page-330-0) [Wu et al. 2016\)](#page-331-3). These fungal species also improve soil physio chemical properties and plant growth as well [\(Abu-Elsaoud et al. 2017\)](#page-311-2). Similar to the current findings, [\(Khan et al. 2019\)](#page-320-2) worked on the mycoremediation of heavy metal polluted sites at Hattar Industrial Estate, Pakistan through indigenous metallotolerant fungal isolates and reported the *Aspergillus* species for the remediation of cadmium and chromium heavy metals. In addition to, the evaluation of polluted ecosystem has led to the identification of different fungi that can remove heavy metals. These indigenous species are not only resistant to the harmful effects of heavy metal but also show adaptations to the polluted ecosystem [\(Khan et al. 2019\)](#page-320-2).

4.5 Conclusion

Vithania somnifera and micro fungi i.e., Aspergillus sy
Curvularia aeria and Alternaria alternata have a sign
n of heavy metals present in marble waste polluted ecos
sed for the phytoremediation and mycoremediation pur
ion It is concluded that the identified indicator plant species i.e., *Adiantum capillusveneris, Ailanthus altissima, Albizia lebbeck, Calotropis procera, Cynodon dactylon, Datura innoxia, Debregeasia salicifolia, Desmostachya bipinnata, Dodonaea viscosa, Erigeron bonariensis, Ficus carica, Morus alba, Morus nigra, Parthenium hysterophorus, Persicaria glabra, Ricinus communis, Setaria viridis, Tamarix aphylla, Withania somnifera* and micro fungi i.e., *Aspergillus sydowii, Aspergillus brasilensi, Curvularia aeria* and *Alternaria alternata* have a significant role in the remediation of heavy metals present in marble waste polluted ecosystems and hence could be used for the phytoremediation and mycoremediation purposes. The proline accumulation increases in plant species with the increase in marble waste pollution while chlorophyll decreases with an increase in pollution. The fluctuation in concentration of both proline and chlorophyll was due to the phytoremediation property of the plant species. It is recommended that these plant species could be grown to remediate the MWPS in the marble processing industries and its catchments. Such findings can also be applied on the broader scale in drives to revegetate and reforest polluted industrial zones.

Mapping of heavy metals and temporal changes in NDVI in the MWPE - (1986- 2021)

5.1 Introduction

The rapid growth of technology can help to identify and solve environmental problems. The elemental interactions of heavy metals and their chemical distribution in the soil have been studied [\(Eze et al. 2010;](#page-311-3) [Ren et al. 2017;](#page-313-1) [Udeigwe et al. 2015\)](#page-314-3). However, there is still a need for site-specific studies of the distribution of heavy metals under different pollution and environmental conditions. Site specific studies can play an essential role in understanding the distribution of pollutants and in remediation planning.

the different pollution and environmental conditions. Si
an essential role in understanding the distribution of
n planning.
bhic Information System (GIS) can be used to create, ma
pes of data. A GIS links data to maps and A Geographic Information System (GIS) can be used to create, manage, analyze, and map all types of data. A GIS links data to maps and integrates location data with descriptive information. This information can provide a foundation for mapping and analysis. GIS helps users to understand patterns, geographical context, and relationships. The benefits include improved communication, efficiency, better management and decision-making (O'Looney 2000).

GIS provides the ability to relate previously unrelated information through the location as a key index variable. Earth spacetime can record location and extent through date and time of occurrence and three coordinates (x, y, and z). The x coordinate represents longitude, y latitude and z elevation. The actual physical location or extent are identified through all earth-based spatial-temporal sites and extent reference should be relatable to one another [\(Naidu 2015\)](#page-313-3). Based on this, GIS has begun to open new scientific inquiry and study avenues. Hundreds of thousands of organizations in virtually every field use GIS to make maps that communicate, perform analysis, share information, and solve complex problems worldwide.

GIS has various applications in multiple domains, including benefit-risk management and urban planning by creating awareness and sharing knowledge about the environment, natural resources, and potential disasters [\(Pierce and Clay 2007\)](#page-313-4). Organizations like ESRI, Here Maps, and Leidos work on various models regarding
the nations' environmental assets, advanced operating systems, and even security systems. Applications of GIS also allow people and organizations to manage geological interpretations and [evaluate the spatial data](https://www.educba.com/what-is-spatial-data/) in a granular format [\(Singh](#page-314-0) [2019\)](#page-314-0).

The findings of spatial analysis research have led to clear conclusions for several decades [\(Fotheringham and Charlton 1994\)](#page-311-0). Many researchers and practitioners adopt GIS as a front end and a back end to georeferenced databases. GIS serves as a spatial database management system for managing georeferenced data and a spatial decision support system for mapping and communicating geographic information to colleagues, decision-makers, and stakeholders.

decades, GIS and remote sensing tools have been ex
and quantify changes in vegetation and the spatial dist
e assessment and mapping of heavy soil metals can assis
es to promote sustainable use of soil resources, decreas
d In recent decades, GIS and remote sensing tools have been extensively used to identify and quantify changes in vegetation and the spatial distribution of heavy metals. The assessment and mapping of heavy soil metals can assist the development of strategies to promote sustainable use of soil resources, decrease soil degradation and expand crop production. This will include identifying contamination levels and assessing associated impacts on the environment and human health. Remediation of soils polluted by heavy metals is a major global ecological issue. Remote sensing is one of the most important methods for environmental investigation, mapping, and soil survey (Lillesand et al. 2015). In addition, image investigation by remote sensing can directly record short- and long-term effects on vegetation cover. For example, Landsat data can be used to provide a precise classification of vegetation cover changes over time (Tsarouchi and Buytaert 2013). The change detection by remote sensing relies on the difference in spectral signatures corresponding with the variation in vegetation cover. Change detection can be accurately determined by using GIS due to its high volume of spatial and non-spatial data handling abilities [\(Sakthivel et al. 2010\)](#page-314-2). Numerous change detection methods have been developed to use remotely sensed imageries. A range of change detection techniques have been developed and studied for their advantages and disadvantages. Normalized Difference Vegetation Index, supervised classification, fuzzy classification, unsupervised classification or PCA/ clustering and hybrid classification are the most frequently applied methods used for classification [\(Zhang et al. 1999\)](#page-314-3).

5.1.1 Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI)

e leaf area index, biomass, plant productivity, fractional
1 concentration in leaves, accumulated rainfall, and
have all been estimated using the NDVI value. Such
comparing space-derived NDVI values to ground-measu
The mul The vegetation index is a simple and effective measurement parameter used in remote sensing to designate the vegetation cover and crop growth status [\(Ahmadi and](#page-311-1) [Nusrath 2010\)](#page-311-1). There are many indices for highlighting vegetation-bearing areas in remote sensing. Among the most important ones is the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), widely used in research on the global environment and climate change [\(Hacihaliloglu and Karta 2004\)](#page-312-0). NDVI is calculated as the ratio difference between measured canopy reflectance in the red and near-infrared bands. The values of NDVI vary with the absorption of red light by plant chlorophyll and the reflection of infrared radiation by water-filled leaf cells [\(Hacihaliloglu and Karta](#page-312-0) [2004\)](#page-312-0). The leaf area index, biomass, plant productivity, fractional vegetation cover, chlorophyll concentration in leaves, accumulated rainfall, and other vegetation properties have all been estimated using the NDVI value. Such relationships are derived by comparing space-derived NDVI values to ground-measured values of these variables. The multispectral remote sensing data technology is used to find vegetation index, land cover classification, water bodies, open area, agriculture area, hilly area, thick forest and thin forest with few band combinations of remote sensed data. The multispectral remote sensing images (MSRS) can be employed to provide a better understanding of the earth's environment (Hacihaliloglu and Karta 2004; [Karaburun](#page-312-1) [2010\)](#page-312-1). The science and art of acquiring information and extracting features in the form of spatial, spectral and temporal information about some objects, areas, or phenomena, such as vegetation, land cover classification, agricultural land, urban areas and water resources, without coming into physical contact with these objects is known as multispectral remote sensing [\(Chouhan and Rao 2011\)](#page-311-2).

Remote sensing data has diverse applications, including forest classification, fire and snow mapping, land cover classification, environmental pollution and crop prediction [\(Hacihaliloglu and Karta 2004\)](#page-312-0). Multispectral remote sensing images convey important spatial features [\(Ramachandra and Kumar 2004\)](#page-313-1). Remote sensing is classified into thermal infrared, visible and reflective infrared, and microwave remote sensing [\(Xie et al. 2010\)](#page-314-4). The digital image processing of satellite data gives a tool for analyzing images via various mathematical indices and algorithms. The features are based on reflectance characteristics and indices formulated to highlight the feature of interest in the image [\(Gao 1996\)](#page-312-2). Recently, researchers have employed new space

thikha et al. 2007). The ability to discriminate crops ena
d accurate crop maps for cultivated areas using multi-
ulti-temporal environment mapping is achieved via of
Proper extraction of environmental pollution data and
g remote sensing, which provides opportunities to monitor environmental applications and give up to date information in the space and time domain. Optical remote sensing is a commonly used data source for acquiring biophysical variables [\(Thiruvengadachari 1988\)](#page-314-5), crop variables [\(Jeyaseelan and Venkataratnam 2003\)](#page-312-3), crop type mapping [\(Yang et al. 2011\)](#page-314-6) and biomass estimation [\(Kogan 2000\)](#page-312-4) due to the sensitivity of crop leaves to visible and infrared bands [\(Aparicio et al. 2002;](#page-311-3) [Ayyangar](#page-311-4) [et al. 1980\)](#page-311-4). Contradictory to optical sensors, Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) sensors can acquire images under all weather conditions, making them suitable for long-term and multi-seasonal monitoring [\(Lan et al. 2009\)](#page-313-2). Current SAR systems are becoming an increasingly valuable source for environmental monitoring [\(Carlson and Ripley](#page-311-5) [1997;](#page-311-5) El-Shikha et al. 2007). The ability to discriminate crops enables production of reliable and accurate crop maps for cultivated areas using multi-temporal analysis. Finally, multi-temporal environment mapping is achieved via object-based image analysis. Proper extraction of environmental pollution data and spatial-temporal monitoring are crucial for long-term ecological management [\(Kim et al. 2008\)](#page-312-5). Different tools and techniques are used to analyze satellite images including normalized difference vegetation index, artificial neural network, singular value decomposition, and satellite image contrast enhancement. Among them, the NDVI is very useful in detecting surface features. It can help us to understand how natural and anthropogenic pressure affects the flora or vegetation cover.

This chapter evaluates the spatial distribution of the concentrations of heavy metals present in the marble waste polluted ecosystem of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province and an assessment of temporal changes in the NDVI for the last forty years in the region.

5.2 Materials and Methodology

5.2.1 Spatial distribution of heavy metals

Spatial interpolation is usually used when the data is collected at various locations to generate continuous information (Moghanum, 2013). An interpolation method, i.e., Inverse distance weighted (IDW), measures the surrounding prediction location. Using this approach, the geostatistical relationships among the known points (IDW) of ArcGIS 10.8 were used to interpolate the heavy metal concentrations in the studied region. The heavy metal concentration data were used as input for GIS mapping. The spatial distribution pattern for each heavy metal was created using ArcGIS software.

5.2.2 Spatial autocorrelation

atial autocorrelation
tocorrelation was used to describe the spatial pattern
is method can help to understand the degree of similari
riables. Moran's Index (MI) was used for the determ
ation.
termination of Normalized Diff Spatial autocorrelation was used to describe the spatial pattern formed by heavy metals. This method can help to understand the degree of similarity and differences among variables. Moran's Index (MI) was used for the determination of spatial autocorrelation.

5.2.3 Determination of Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI)

The NDVI is a vegetation index calculated from satellite data bands. It approximates the density of vegetation at a pixel based on various intensities of reflected sunlight. It ranges from -1 to 1. The general formula for NDVI calculation is as follows:

NDVI= Near Infrared – Red / Near Infrared + Red

Google Earth Engine (GEE) was used for the calculation/ extraction of NDVI from 1986 to 2021. The general script for GEE consists of feature collection, buffer points, three NDVI functions for Landsat 5, 7 $\&$ 8, Fmask, image collection etc. (Appendix X). Finally, the NDVI data were downloaded in CSV file format.

5.2.4 Statistical Analyses

The bivariate statistical analysis and structural equation modelling were used to explore the impact of marble pollution (calcium + $CaCO₃$), precipitation and temperature on NDVI of the marble polluted and non-polluted ecosystems. The marble pollution, precipitation and temperature were treated as explanatory variables, while NDVI was a dependent variable. R software was used for these statistical evaluations.

5.3 Results

The soil of marble waste polluted ecosystem was analyzed for the quantification of heavy metals or potential toxic elements. The contaminated soil has a chromium content ranging from 0.11-32.11 (average 13.11) mg/kg, nickel 17.13-50.55 (34.42) mg/kg, copper 16.37-91.68 (38.57) mg/kg, manganese 0.67-131.65 (42.45) mg/kg, zinc 30.33-86.03 (57.60) mg/kg, iron 0.38-225.9 (94.61) mg/kg, cobalt 2.23-12.99 (7.19) mg/kg, cadmium 0.59-56.93 (20.50) mg/kg, magnesium 13.49-471.72 (191.23) mg/kg and calcium 2.764-643.85 (279.27) mg/kg (Fig. 5.1-5.11; Appendix table X). On the basis of average metal concentration, calcium has the highest concentration followed by Mg> Fe>Zn>Mn>Cu>Ni>Cd>Cr>Co in the region. The spatial distribution of these potential toxic elements is illustrated in the following figures [\(Fig. 5.1–](#page-257-0) 5.11).

calcium 2.764-643.85 (279.27) mg/kg (Fig. 5.1-5.11; A
sis of average metal concentration, calcium has the hig
by Mg> Fe>Zn>Mn>Cu>Ni>Cd>Cr>Co in the reg
n of these potential toxic elements is illustrated in the
5.11).

Fig. 5.1 Spatial distribution pattern of calcium element in the marble waste polluted ecosystem, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. The red circle represents the concentration of calcium element.

Fig. 5.2 Spatial distribution of magnesium heavy metal secreted from marble factories in the KPK province.

Fig. 5.3 Mapping the distribution of iron heavy metal in the marble waste polluted ecosystem.

Fig. 5.4 Spatial distribution of zinc heavy metal in the MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa.

Fig. 5.5 Spatial distribution of manganese heavy metal in the MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa.

Fig. 5.6 Spatial distribution of copper heavy metal in the studied region.

Fig. 5.7 Mapping of nickel concentration in the marble waste polluted ecosystem.

Fig. 5.8 Cadmium heavy metal in the MWPE Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan

Fig. 5.9 Spatial distribution of chromium heavy metal in the studied region.

Fig. 5.10 Spatial distribution potassium element in the studied region.

Fig. 5.11 Spatial distribution of phosphorous element in the studied area.

5.3.1 Spatial Autocorrelation Moran's Index

The results of spatial autocorrelation revealed that calcium (Moran's I=0.48, zscore=11.18, p-value=0.0001), chromium (Moran's I=0.29, z-score=6.79, pvalue=0.0001), potassium (Moran's I=0.74, z-score=17.29, p-value=0.0001), magnesium (Moran's I=0.31, z-score=7.35, p-value=0.0001), manganese (Moran's I=0.074, z-score=1.79, p-value=0.07) and zinc (Moran's I=0.09, z-score=2.16, pvalue=0.03) all showed a clustered distribution pattern. CaCO₃ (Moran's I= -0.03, zscore= -0.62 , p-value=0.53), cadmium (Moran's I=0.02, z-score=0.12, p-value=0.89), iron (Moran's I=0.003, z-score=0.14, p-value=0.88), nickel (Moran's I=0.04, zscore=1.10, p-value=0.27), and phosphorus (Moran's $I = -0.07$, z-score= -1.5, pvalue=0.12) all showed a random distribution pattern, while copper (Moran's $I = -$ 0.13, z-score = -3.05 , p-value = 0.002) had a dispersed pattern in the region [\(Fig. 5.12-](#page-269-0) 5.23 & Table 5.1).

	2) all showed a random distribution pattern, while copper (M								
ore= -3.05, p-value=0.002) had a dispersed pattern in the region									
ole 5.1).									
Global Moran's Index (MI) summary of the measured variables.									
S. No.	Variable	MI	Z-score	p-value					
$\mathbf{1}$	Calcium	0.484	11.183	0.0001					
$\overline{2}$	Chromium	0.292	6.793	0.0001					
3	Potassium	0.749	17.29	0.0001					
$\overline{4}$	Magnesium	0.317	7.351	0.0001					
5	Manganese	0.074	1.792	0.072					
6	Zinc	0.091	2.164	0.030					
$\overline{7}$	CaCO ₃	-0.030	-0.621	0.534					
8	Cadmium	0.002	0.129	0.896					
9	Iron	0.003	0.143	0.886					
10	Nickel	0.044	1.101	0.270					
11	Phosphorous	-0.070	-1.548	0.121					
12	Copper	-0.135	-3.050	0.002					

Table 5.1 Global Moran's Index (MI) summary of the measured variables.

Fig. 5.12 Spatial autocorrelation of calcium.

Fig. 5.13 Spatial autocorrelation of chromium.

Fig. 5.14 Spatial autocorrelation of potassium

Fig. 5.15 Spatial autocorrelation of magnesium

Fig. 5.16 Spatial autocorrelation of manganese

Fig. 5.17 Spatial autocorrelation of zinc

Fig. 5.18 Spatial autocorrelation of CaCO3

Fig. 5.19 Spatial autocorrelation of cadmium

Fig. 5.20 Spatial autocorrelation of iron

Fig. 5.21 Spatial autocorrelation of nickel

Fig. 5.22 Spatial autocorrelation of phosphorous

Fig. 5.23 Spatial autocorrelation of copper

5.3.2 Normalised Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) 1986-2021

The Normalised Difference Vegetation Index was calculated for the marble waste polluted (contaminated) and non-polluted (noncontaminated) regions from 1986 to 2021. The results comprehend a significant NDVI difference in the polluted and nonpolluted areas. The non-polluted areas have higher NDVI than the marble polluted regions [\(Fig. 5.24](#page-275-0) & [Table 5.2\)](#page-275-1). The overall average NDVI in the marble polluted and non-polluted regions were 0.263 and 0.382, respectively.

Fig. 5.24 Variation in NDVI between marble polluted and non-polluted regions during 1986-2021.

Table 5.2 Detailed average NDVI in the marble polluted and non-polluted area from 1986 to 2021.

Year	NDVI Polluted	NDVI Non-polluted
1986	0.204336688	0.226378924
1987	0.188986831	0.213528827
1988	0.250632311	0.297899236
1989	0.26214269	0.286399353
1990	0.294199344	0.302905593

5.3.3 NDVI at a province level

NDVI at the province level was determined and mapped at ten year intervals, i.e., 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2020. There is a significant reduction in the NDVI from 1990 to 2020, i.e., -0.945 to 0.834 and -0.727 to 0.603, respectively. The highest NDVI recorded during 1990 was 0.834, which was reduced to 0.71 (in 2000), 0.57 (in 2010) and 0.60 (in 2020) (Fig. 5.25).

Fig. 5.25 Mean Annual NDVI maps of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan (1990- 2020).

5.3.4 NDVI at Factory Level

NDVI at the factory/station/quadrat level was assessed and compared with the nonpolluted station/quadrat from 1987 to 2021 [\(Fig. 5.26-](#page-283-0)5.32; [Table 5.3](#page-278-0) [Table 5.3](#page-278-0) NDVI [at polluted \(contaminated\) and non-polluted plots during 1990-2020.&](#page-278-0) Appendix 6). The NDVI at marble polluted quadrats significantly decreased with passage of time, while increasing gradually in the non-polluted/non-contaminated quadrats. For example, the recorded NDVI in Abbottabad Marble Factory-1 (AB-F1) was 0.33 during 1990, reduced to 0.29, 0.17 and 0.14 in 2000, 2010 and 2020, respectively. At the same time, in the non-polluted quadrat i.e., AB-F1-NC, NDVI increased from 0.35

to 0.47, 0.48 and 0.54 in 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2020, respectively. The detailed NDVI values for all the marble polluted and non-polluted quadrats is given in table 5.3.

Station	Zone	1990	2000	2010	2020
$AB-F1$	\mathcal{C}	0.33879	0.29706	0.17529	0.14024
AB-F1-NC	NC	0.35461	0.47150	0.47726	0.54611
$AB-F10$	\overline{C}	0.21289	0.25537	0.21725	0.21579
AB-F10-NC	NC	0.43326	0.51606	0.42382	0.51331
$AB-F2$	\mathcal{C}	0.35289	0.33996	0.21818	0.16505
$AB-F2-NC$	NC	0.36579	0.49078	0.46775	0.54144
$AB-F3$	\mathcal{C}	0.30103	0.27250	0.17052	0.16167
AB-F3-NC	NC	0.44959	0.56311	0.52820	0.59342
$AB-F4$	\mathcal{C}	0.28130	0.29465	0.21924	0.17512
AB-F4-NC	NC	0.36966	0.51557	0.47388	0.57581
$AB-F5$	\overline{C}	0.28701	0.22680	0.13880	0.13206
AB-F5-NC	NC	0.32950	0.51155	0.53107	0.66786
$AB-F6$	\mathcal{C}	0.30085	0.27494	0.19730	0.22857
AB-F6-NC	NC	0.24030	0.41771	0.45169	0.59630
$AB-F7$	\mathcal{C}	0.20546	0.19323	0.13999	0.11583
AB-F7-NC	NC	0.24501	0.42518	0.51100	0.65316
$AB-F8$	\mathcal{C}	0.29076	0.26227	0.20889	0.26961
AB-F8-NC	NC	0.30382	0.55226	0.58349	0.69248
$AB-F9$	\mathcal{C}	0.21206	0.23695	0.18689	0.18287
AB-F9-NC	NC	0.42019	0.55595	0.54287	0.68168
BA-F1	\overline{C}	0.25973	0.32991	0.22265	0.25105
BA-F1-NC	NC	0.16747	0.23380	0.36843	0.49263
BA-F ₂	\overline{C}	0.19365	0.30190	0.19540	0.26945
BA-F2-NC	NC	0.19057	0.29088	0.46340	0.46261
BA-F3	\mathcal{C}	0.31033	0.38175	0.29550	0.35239
BA-F3-NC	NC	0.34647	0.38300	0.35003	0.43376
BA-F4	\mathcal{C}	0.15609	0.18019	0.15465	0.22413
BA-F4-NC	NC	0.23804	0.28975	0.31715	0.38302
BA-F5	$\mathbf C$	0.13795	0.14499	0.16308	0.22084
BA-F5-NC	NC	0.14937	0.12832	0.17080	0.22647
$BN-F1$	\mathcal{C}	0.22419	0.20732	0.21618	0.15517
BN-F1-NC	NC	0.48034	0.44371	0.45298	0.57325
BN-F ₂	C	0.19715	0.17255	0.20466	0.17129
BN-F2-NC	NC	0.49130	0.48822	0.49938	0.57240
$BN-F3$	\mathcal{C}	0.20626	0.16014	0.17906	0.18218
BN-F3-NC	NC	0.52384	0.51041	0.49032	0.57116

Table 5.3 NDVI at polluted (contaminated) and non-polluted plots during 1990-2020.

Fig. 5.26 Mean annual NDVI (1990, 2000, 2010 & 2020) in the Buner Marble Factory-1 and non-polluted plot.

Fig. 5.27 Mean annual NDVI (1990, 2000, 2010 & 2020) in the Buner Marble Factory-2 and non-polluted quadrat.

Fig. 5.28 Mean annual NDVI (1990, 2000, 2010 & 2020) in the Buner Marble Factory-3 and non-polluted plot.

Fig. 5.29 Mean annual NDVI (1990, 2000, 2010 & 2020) in the Buner Marble Factory-4 and non-polluted quadrat.

Fig. 5.30 Mean annual NDVI (1990, 2000, 2010 & 2020) in the Buner Marble Factory-1 and non-polluted plot.

Fig. 5.31 Mean annual NDVI (1990, 2000, 2010 & 2020) in the Buner Marble Factory-6 and non-polluted quadrat.

Fig. 5.32 Mean annual NDVI (1990, 2000, 2010 & 2020) in the Buner Marble Factory-7 and non-polluted plot.

5.3.5 Impact of Marble pollution on NDVI through bivariate analysis

Following the assessment of NDVI in the marble polluted and non-polluted regions, an evaluation was undertaken of the impact of precipitation, temperature, and marble pollution concerning NDVI in order to better understand the role of pollution in driving differences in NDVI, and to discount any effect of changes in regional climate over the time period of the study. The NDVI decreases with an increase in marble pollution in the marble contaminated region [\(Fig. 5.33\)](#page-290-0). In comparison, NDVI increases in the non-contaminated area. At the same time, NDVI strongly correlates with precipitation in the marble contaminated compared to the non-contaminated regions [\(Fig. 5.34\)](#page-291-0). NDVI also decreases faster with increased temperature in the marble polluted ecosystem than in the non-polluted area (Fig. 5.35).

Fig. 5.33 Impact of marble pollution on NDVI in the contaminated and noncontaminated regions.

Fig. 5.34 Impact of precipitation on NDVI in the marble contaminated and noncontaminated regions.

Fig. 5.35 The influence of temperature on NDVI in the MWPE.

5.3.6 Impact of Marble pollution viz NDVI on Structural Equation Modelling

Structural equation modelling was carried out to determine whether NDVI changes are due to marble pollution or precipitation and temperature in the studied area. SEM showed that the marble pollution has a significant negative $(\beta = -0.27)$ and precipitation has a significant positive (β = 0.24) effect on the NDVI in the polluted region [\(Fig. 5.36a](#page-292-0); Table 5.4). While in the non-contaminated region, the precipitation has a significant positive (β = 0.46) influence on the NDVI compared with marble pollution [\(Fig. 5.36b](#page-292-0) & [Table 5.4\)](#page-293-0). Hence, marble pollution has a significant role in determining the NDVI of the studied region. The measured variables' direct and indirect effects in marble polluted and non-polluted zones are given in [Table 5.5.](#page-293-1)

Fig. 5.36 SEM representing the impact of marble pollution, precipitation and temperature on NDVI in the (A) marble polluted and (B) non-polluted regions.

Table 5.4 Summary of SEM represents the impact of marble pollution, precipitation, and temperature on NDVI in the marble polluted and non-polluted regions.

Table 5.5 The measured variables' direct and indirect effect in marble polluted and non-polluted zones.

S. No.	Response	Mediator	Predictor	label	Beta	S.E	z-value	$p-$ value
			Marble Poluted Zone					
1	NDVI	$\overline{}$	Marble Pollution	$\mathbf c$	-0.141	0.047	-3.017	0.003
2	NDVI	$\overline{}$	Precipitation	a	0.14	0.07	2.00	0.046
3	NDVI	٠	Temperature	$\mathbf b$	0.055	0.068	0.804	0.421
4	Temperature	$\overline{}$	Precipitation	D	-0.696	0.073	-9.521	0.0001
	Marble							
5	Pollution	$\overline{}$	Precipitation	e	-0.041	0.106	-0.384	0.701
10	NDVI	Temperature	Precipitation	bd	-0.038	0.047	-0.801	0.423
11	NDVI	MP	Precipitation	ec	-0.006	0.015	-0.381	0.703
		Direct +						
12	Total	Indirect	$a+(b*d)+(e*c)$		0.097	0.054	1.785	0.074
			Non-polluted zone					
1	NDVI	$\overline{}$	Precipitation	a	0.414	0.098	4.207	0.0001

Table 5.6 Model Fit values after the SEM.

	Marble	Non-polluted	
Test	polluted zone	zone	
Chi-sq.	8.621	11.742	
p-value	0.431	0.481	
GFI	0.997	0.961	
AGFI	0.97	0.912	
RMSEA	0.01	0.017	
NFI	0.992	0.921	
RMR	0.021	0.057	
CFI	0.986	0.925	
SRMR	0.018	0.071	
AIC	776.476	719.381	

5.4 Discussion

an et al. 2016). The current chapter evaluates the spatial coxic elements in the marble waste polluted ecos wa, Pakistan. On the basis of average metal concentratio ncentration followed by magnesium, iron, zinc, mangane ch Environmental pollution has become one of the main problems globally. Increase in industrialization has worsen this situation by adding heavy metals or potential toxic elements (PTE) into the natural environment [\(He et al. 2013\)](#page-312-0). PTEs don't easily break down through natural degradation procedures. Unfortunately, these PTEs can accumulate in the soil, which directly or indirectly influence the chemical and physical characteristics of the surrounding ecosystem [\(Khan et al. 2008;](#page-312-1) [Nicholson et](#page-313-0) [al. 2003\)](#page-313-0). The presence of a large amount of these elements in the soil poses an increasing risk to all organisms. Understanding the spatial distribution of PTE is an important prerequisite for monitoring and evaluating the environment [\(Facchinelli et](#page-311-0) [al. 2001;](#page-311-0) Pan et al. 2016). The current chapter evaluates the spatial distribution pattern of potential toxic elements in the marble waste polluted ecosystem of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. On the basis of average metal concentration, calcium has the highest concentration followed by magnesium, iron, zinc, manganese, copper, nickel, cadmium, chromium and cobalt. Similar to our study, (Li et al. 2014) summarized the data of soil metal contamination from 72 mining regions. They reported eight heavy metals concentration exceeding the grade II environmental quality standard for soil in the China (SEPAC, 1995). Interpolation methods, i.e., IDW of ArcGIS 10.8 were used to interpolate the heavy metal concentrations in the marble waste polluted ecosystem. The PTE concentration /density was indicated through red circle on the maps. Similar to the current study, the geo-statistics multivariate and GIS approaches are powerful analyses that have been carried out in various research studies for the assessment of spatial distribution of pollution (Gong et al. 2010; [Guagliardi et al.](#page-312-3) [2012;](#page-312-3) [Imperato et al. 2003;](#page-312-4) [Lee et al. 2006;](#page-313-3) [Morton-Bermea et al. 2009;](#page-313-4) [Rodríguez-](#page-313-5)[Salazar et al. 2011;](#page-313-5) [Yuan et al. 2013\)](#page-314-0). The IDW approach has been used in various soil quality survey that integrates GIS with multivariate statistical analysis [\(Huang et](#page-312-5) [al. 2015;](#page-312-5) [Iñigo et al. 2011;](#page-312-6) [Lee et al. 2006;](#page-313-3) [Zhang 2006\)](#page-314-1). This method is one of the most frequent used spatial interpolation approaches due to its fast implementation, easy use and interpretation [\(Lu and Wong 2008\)](#page-313-6).

Similar to the current study [\(Mihailović et al. 2015\)](#page-313-7) also assessed the spatial distribution of heavy metals in the Novi Sad, Serbia. They applied the GIS mapping tools and techniques for the spatial distribution of heavy metal contamination in the region. They also reported the arsenic, cobalt, manganese and nickel as natural origin in the region while copper, lead and zinc originated from anthropogenic activities [\(Mihailović et al. 2015\)](#page-313-7). Furthermore, [\(Pan et al. 2016\)](#page-313-1) worked on the heavy metals (arsenic, chromium, lead, zinc, mercury, nickel, copper and cadmium) origin and spatial distribution pattern in the Xiangfen, Shanxi province, China. The sources of these heavy metals were industrial practices (chromium and mercury), agricultural, vehicle emission (cadmium, lead, zinc and copper) and parent materials (arsenic and nickel). The spatial distribution of these metals varied significantly and closely correlated to the local anthropogenic activities [\(Pan et al. 2016\)](#page-313-1). The ArcGIS spatial distribution of PTE was related to human disturbance in the Weifang region [\(Liu et al.](#page-313-8) [2016\)](#page-313-8). ArcGIS has become an important approach for the spatial distribution of heavy metals and pollution assessment. (Shi et al. 2007) used ArcGIS software for the assessment of spatial distribution of heavy metals in the Changxin Zhejiang region of China. They suggested ArcGIS for spatial distribution of heavy metals or pollutants and health risk assessment.

I pollution assessment. (Shi et al. 2007) used ArcGIS
t of spatial distribution of heavy metals in the Changxin
ey suggested ArcGIS for spatial distribution of heavy m
risk assessment.
rent study spatial autocorrelation wa In the current study spatial autocorrelation was used to describe the spatial pattern formed by heavy metals. This method can help to understand the degree of similarity and differences among variables. Moran's Index (MI) was used for the determination of spatial autocorrelation. The spatial autocorrelation was considered as problem requiring correction as compared to inherent ability of spatial data in the early days of GIS research (Goodchild et al. 1992). Nevertheless, researchers have discovered the spatial autocorrelation as ubiquitous, occurring at spatial scales up to hundreds of kilometers (F. Dormann et al. 2007). Spatial autocorrelation could be taken to derive values for a given attribute factors in the areas between observed samples [\(F.](#page-311-1) [Dormann et al. 2007\)](#page-311-1). [\(Eze et al. 2019\)](#page-311-2) worked on the turning bands conditional cosimulation approach has been successfully used to quantify and map spatial uncertainty of heavy metals in a semiarid Ni–Cu exploration field in Botswana. In the case of heavy metals dataset with strong positive correlation, multivariate mapping of the cross-correlated variables is highly encouraged rather than univariate mapping of each variable separately because the former method considers the intrinsic dependency among variables, and so the post-processing outputs are more reliable. The co-simulation maps of the heavy metals show spatial variations in Co, Mn and Fe distribution.

In the current study, the Normalised Difference Vegetation Index was calculated for the marble waste polluted (contaminated) and non-polluted (noncontaminated) regions from 1986 to 2021. The results comprehend a significant NDVI difference in the polluted and non-polluted areas. The non-polluted areas have higher NDVI than the marble polluted regions. The overall average NDVI in the marble polluted and non-polluted regions were 0.263 and 0.382, respectively.

t 1991; Justice et al. 1986; Tucker et al. 1991; Tuding human disturbance particularly industrialization enaty changes under different climatic scenarios, hence as a good indicator for terrestrial vegetation productive get Normalize difference vegetation index (NDVI) is the measurement of quantitative estimation from the surface reflectance to calculate vegetation cover's growth and biomass [\(Arabameri and Pourghasemi 2019\)](#page-311-3). It monitors vegetation of an area from space in the visible and infrared portion of the spectrum [\(Bannari et al. 1995;](#page-311-4) [Baret](#page-311-5) [and Guyot 1991;](#page-311-5) Justice et al. 1986; Tucker et al. 1991; [Tucker et al. 1985\)](#page-314-4). Understanding human disturbance particularly industrialization enables us to predict productivity changes under different climatic scenarios, hence NDVI has been recognized as a good indicator for terrestrial vegetation productivity [\(Wang et al.](#page-314-5) [2001\)](#page-314-5). Vegetation performs a baseline for all living things and carrying out a crucial role in global equilibrium, therefore vegetation structuring is very important to manage all the natural resources and plan land uses. Vegetation mapping provides a valued information to investigate natural and semi-natural ecosystem for quantification of the vegetation cover both locally and globally, for a given time over a continuous period (He et al. 2005; Malatesta et al. 2013; [Xiao et al. 2004\)](#page-314-6). The arrival of recent technology and the use of remote sensing provides very efficient tools used to monitor the spatial and temporal changes upon the surface of land. Similar findings have also been reported by (Sun et al. 2019), who worked on the different pollution concentration in relation to NDVI changes in the Beijing, Tianjin, & Hebei, China. They concluded that the high concentration of pollution has negative correlation with NDVI in the studied regions. The lower NDVI values, the more obvious interference of human disturbance in the form of environmental pollution [\(Sun et al. 2019\)](#page-314-7). NDVI reflects the land use, industrial layout to certain extent and these factors directly or indirectly estimates the level of environmental pollution. [\(Prakasam et al. 2022\)](#page-313-10) worked on the estimation of NDVI as a precursor for monitoring air pollution. They concluded that increases in environmental pollution decreases the forest vegetation quality (NDVI) between 2001-2021 [\(Prakasam et al.](#page-313-10) [2022\)](#page-313-10).

Xiong et al. 2017) and soil mapping (Padarian, Minasi
addition to researchers throughout the world, GEE is also
users as the Google Maps is put together (i.e mosaicked
ead, well documented and high level dynamic progr
2017 In the current study Google Earth Engine (GEE) was used to assess the NDVI from 1986-2021. Remotely sensed NDVI values were used for the assessment of NDVI temporal changes in the marble waste polluted ecosystem. GEE, the cloud computing platform can be used to extract a number of parameters such as Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) utilizing images taken by satellite. GEE may be used to show and plot data in time series graphs or download data for external processing. It was successfully implied for analyzing forests losses and gains on global scale [\(Kim et al. 2014;](#page-312-10) [Townshend et al. 2021\)](#page-314-8). GEE can also be used for identification of archaeological heritage sites [\(Agapiou 2017\)](#page-311-6), risk mapping for spread of malaria, population mapping [\(Patel et al. 2015\)](#page-313-11), automated mapping of cropland (Xiong et al. 2017) and soil mapping [\(Padarian, Minasny, & McBratney,](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_28) [2015\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_28). In addition to researchers throughout the world, GEE is also used by millions of regular users as the Google Maps is put together (i.e mosaicked) by GEE. GEE is easy to read, well documented and high level dynamic programming language [\(Schmid 2017\)](#page-314-10). Google datacenters get scripts that run in the Code Editor, get executed and the results are shared with the users. In this way, the workflow becomes fast in such a way that the scripts can be tested, revised and tested again to obtain desired performance. An image obtained as a layer from Google Maps base map, the one used in this study, a just in time principle for computation will be utilized as this will compute the data necessary for current map zoom. This increases the speed of visualization of results by GEE (Ferrari and Cribari-Neto 2004). Remote sensing alone is not enough to assess the current and past status of the forests in a comprehensive manner. A combination of remote sensing and *in situ* observations about land use (indicator sets) can bring about comprehensiveness in the analysis. Thus, the utilization of indicator sets in analyses is necessary. In the future, indicator sets- as automated and standardized models- should be part of every remote sensing analysis. Further improvement in the indicator sets can be brought about by incorporating information about local plant and animal species from open access data sites such as Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF).

5.5 Conclusion

It is concluded that the use of GIS technology is an effective approach for the mapping of heavy metals contamination. The results comprehend a significant NDVI difference in the marble polluted and non-polluted areas between 1986-2021. Increase in marble pollution with time decreases the average NDVI of the region. The nonpolluted areas have higher NDVI than the marble polluted regions. The overall average NDVI in the marble polluted and non-polluted regions were 0.263 and 0.382, respectively.

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6 Chapter 6

6.1 Discussion and Synthesis

Exercise are 160.2 million to the country. Out of these 158 million ton (98%) is present the country. Out of these 158 million ton (98%) is present that the country. Out of these 158 million ton (98%) is present that the c Environmental pollution is a substantial issue of the world, causing huge damage to natural ecosystems. Approximately, 2.01 billion metric tons per annum waste is produced worldwide. According to World Bank's estimations, waste generation will increase up to 3.4 billion metric tons by 2050. An estimate of 13.5% of today's waste is recycled and 5.5% is composted. One-third or 40% of the waste generated is not managed appropriately and is dumped or openly burned. Among one of them is the improper use of marble industry. Globally, Pakistan is $6th$ largest extractor of the marble mineral and granite. According to Pakistan Federal Boards of Revenue Directorate of Training and Research, there are 160.2 million tons of the marble reserves in the country. Out of these 158 million ton (98%) is present in province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KP) Pakistan. Marble industry or pollution has been one of the basic deteriorating sources of biosphere pollution with impacts at the species level. Rapid increases in the rate of marble industrialization have worsened the pollution problems (Lin, Panchangam et al. 2014; Lai, Lin et al. 2018; [Hsiao, Lin et al. 2020;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_119) [Yuanan, He et al. 2020\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_314). Levels of contamination or pollutants increase in the surrounding ecosystem (water, soil and air) that in turn adversely affect natural environment in the form of physical and chemical changes. As a result, it affects people, animals and plants directly in the form of diseases and indirectly in the form of food safety and habitat destruction. In such situations it becomes imperative for young students and researchers to study environmental issues including pollutant, microbial strains, bioremediation procedure and heavy metals accumulation. For the first time, this thesis evalautes in depth the marble waste poluted ecosytem of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. This study determines the physio-chemical properties of the marble waste polluted ecosystems, their holistic impacts on local vegetation & their classification, identification and role of specific indicators (plants and Fungi) in remediation, internal physiological changes in indicator plants, spatial distribution of potential toxic elements (heavy metals), NDVI changes and corrective measures to treat marble pollution in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan.

6.1.1 Vegetation dynamics; abundance and rare plant species of the MWPE

sissoo (970 IVI), Azadirachta indica (898 IVI) and Salis
foremost abundant shrub species were *Calotropis pro*
by Datura innoxia (1050 IVI), Ricinus comm
omnifera (781 IVI), Lantana camara (444 IVI), Ziziphus
indica (382 I The ordinary least square, logistic and probabilistic models were used for the analysis of binary outcome variables i.e., abundant and rare plant species [\(Kwak and Clayton-](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_157)[Matthews 2002;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_157) [Moffat 2014\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_188). It gives us why some of the plant species are abundant, while some of them are rare in the marble waste polluted ecosystem. The explanatory variables that were taken including soil major characteristics and binary variables were abundant and rare plant species. The abundant tree species based on higher importance value index were *Ficus carica*, *Morus alba* (2441 IVI), *Morus nigra* (1699 IVI), *Ailanthus altissima* (1655 IVI)*, Populus alba* (1647 IVI)*, Broussonetia papyrifera* (1624 IVI)*, Eucalyptus globulus* (1308 IVI)*, Dalbergia sissoo* (970 IVI)*, Azadirachta indica* (898 IVI) and *Salix tetrasperma* (724 IVI). The foremost abundant shrub species were *Calotropis procera* (1799 IVI), followed by *Datura innoxia* (1050 IVI), *Ricinus communis* (797 IVI), *Withania somnifera* (781 IVI), *Lantana camara* (444 IVI), *Ziziphus nummularia* (392 IVI), *Rosa indica* (382 IVI), *Senna occidentalis* (332 IVI), *Dodonaea viscosa* (320 IVI) and *Vitis vinifera* (317 IVI). The top ten most abundant herb species were *Cynodon dactylon* (2982 IVI), *Parthenium hysterophorus* (1122 IVI), *Erigeron canadensis* (993 IVI), *Arundo donax* (795 IVI), *Adiantum capillus-veneris* (739 IVI), *Cannabis sativa* (664 IVI), *Xanthium strumarium* (633 IVI), *Taraxacum officinale* (627 IVI), *Amaranthus viridis* (621 IVI) and *Eleusine indica* (619 IVI). Whereas, the top ten rarest tree species were *Pyrus communis* (6.78 IVI) followed by *Cupressus sempervirens* and *Araucaria heterophylla* (8.46 IVI each), *Litchi chinensis* (12.22 IVI), *Juglans regia* (13.09 IVI), *Citrus limon* (16.67 IVI), *Sapium sebiferum* (17.42 IVI), *Ficus macrophylla* (17.56 IVI), *Ficus benjamina* (27.5 IVI) and *Citrus reticulata* (56 IVI). At the same time, *Rumex hastatus*, *Combretum indicum* (13.88 IVI), *Bougainvillea spectabilis* (17.78 IVI), *Duranta stenostachya* (22.72 IVI), *Datura metel* (33.34), *Nannorrhops ritchieana*, *Indigofera heterantha*, *Duranta erecta*, *Debregeasia saeneb* (each with 66.67 IVI) and *Parthenocissus inserta* (120.74 IVI) were recorded as rare shrub species of the MWPE. *Bidens bipinnata* and *Pteris cretica* (3.67 IVI each) were the rare herb species accompanied by *Aloe vera* (4.18 IVI), *Dichanthium annulatum* (4.53 IVI), *Capsella bursa-pastoris* (5.04), *Malva sylvestris* (5.09 IVI), *Aerva javanica* (5.27 IVI), *Brassica campestris* (5.45 IVI), *Artemisia scoparia* (5.78 IVI) and *Sisymbrium irio* (6 IVI) in the MWPE. Based on OLS, logistic and probabilistic models the abundance and rareness of these plant species were due to $CaCO₃$, magnesium, soil pH, electrical conductivity, chromium, copper, zinc, iron, organic matter, potassium, phosphorous, manganese, nickel, cadmium, calcium, temperature, precipitation and elevation [\(Yee and Mitchell 1991;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_311) [Wu and Huffer 1997;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_304) [Guisan,](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_103) [Theurillat et al. 1998;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_103) [Augustin, Cummins et al. 2001;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_25) [Carl and Kühn 2007;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_46) [Kubota,](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_156) [Shiono et al. 2015\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_156). Our model is best fit based on R^2 , Akaike Information Criteria, Chi-square and Probability values. This quantitative modeling approaches i.e., OLS, probabilistic and logistic to dominant and rare plant species of the MWPE not only fulfills the methodological deficiencies and gap in the literature regarding the impact of marble pollution on vegetation. But it also provides a firm basis for extending this approach for the impact of other types of pollution on vegetation in different region of the world.

6.1.2 Multivariate statistical approach Modelling

pollution on vegetation. But it also provides a firm basis
or the impact of other types of pollution on vegetation in
Iltivariate statistical approach Modelling
important applications of this research project was the t
t One of the important applications of this research project was the use of multivariate statistical techniques, i.e., Cluster Analysis, Two-way Cluster Analysis, Indicator Species Analysis, Species Area Curves, Detrended Correspondence Analysis, Canonical Correspondence Analysis, Structural Equation Modeling, Ordinary Least Square, Probabilistic & Logistic Models, Bivariate regression etc., to accurately indicate and interpret vegetation distribution patterns in the marble waste polluted ecosystem. It allows the researcher to compare multiple classification and their interrelationship for the factual information resulting from the analyses [\(Khan, Khan](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_145) [et al. 2016\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_145). TWCA was used to identify potential subtropical vegetation of MWPE based on pattern similarity via Sorenson distance measurements. ISA identified the significant indicators of each subtropical MWPE [\(Dufrêne and Legendre 1997\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_65). ISA helps to relate indicators with environmental conditions [\(Baker and Wiley 2004;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_30) [King, Richardson et al. 2004\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_149). In the current study, CCA was used to determine the relationship of plant species with different environmental variables [\(Ter Braak and](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_270) [Smilauer 2002\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_270). It is mostly used to explain covariation between two sets of variables and find canonical variates that are important for explaining covariation between sets of variables. Correlation of the canonical axes and explanatory matrix was reported, along with the significance of each correlation determined via permutation. Testing the hypothesized relationship between response and explanatory variables by standardizing the axis scores and centering on the unit variance and axes scale to optimize the representation of species. These techniques were also implemented by a different researcher for the classification of vegetation in the different regions of the world for various types of ecological observations like [\(Khan, Page et al. 2012;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_142) [Khan,](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_141) [Page et al. 2014;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_141) [Iqbal, Khan et al. 2015;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_126) [Ahmad, Khan et al. 2016;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_3) [Khan, Khan et al.](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_145) [2016\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_145). Furthermore, Structural Equation Model was done using R- software in order to examine the complex relationship of vegetation structure/indicators plants and impact of marble pollution, climate, elevation and edaphic variables of three major subtropical vegetation zones of MWPE. It also examined the direct and indirect impact of measured environmental variables for clearer picture of the subtropical vegetation (Byrne 1994; Sharma, Mukherjee et al. 2005). These statistical tool and techniques can be used in the field of vegetation ecology for the investigation of the complex relationship between vegetation dynamics and pollution or environmental gradients.

6.1.3 Concept of Indicator species in MWPE

(Byrne 1994; Sharma, [M](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_205)ukherjee et al. 2005). These s
can be used in the field of vegetation ecology for the in
elationship between vegetation dynamics and pollution
meept of Indicator species in MWPE
tation study of the MW This vegetation study of the MWPE is distinctive as, unlike other vegetation assessments along the pollution and environmental gradients which simply compare vegetation indices among different zones and treat all species equally without surveying their ecological position (Oommen and Shanker 2005; [Gould, González et](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_95) [al. 2006;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_95) Crimmins, Crimmins et al. 2008; Wazir, Dasti et al. 2008; [Siddiqui, Ahmed](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_253) [et al. 2009\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_253). Indicator species analysis was used for the identification of indicator plant species in the three major subtropical marble waste polluted ecosystem.

It provides knowledge about species fidelity with the habitat of specific subtropical vegetation zone of MWPE. The indicator values were calculated using data about species abundance in PCORD and at least one indicator species (statistically significant) was selected for each of the tree, shrub and herb layers for each marble polluted zone using ISA. The Monte Carlo Test was carried out for statistical significance after determining Indicator Values (%age of perfect indication established on combing values of relative abundance and frequency) of respective indicators [\(Dufrêne and Legendre 1997\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_65). A threshold level of 25% indication and 95% significance ($p \leq 0.05$) was deliberated as a cutoff value for determining the indicators. The topmost indicators of Humid subtropical MWPE were *Ficus carica*, *Catharanthus roseus* and *Erigeron canadensis*. Other indicators of humid subtropical

nium aegyptium, Achyranthes aspera, Persicaria mac

Euphorbia hirta, Juncus maritimus, Container and Colocasia esculenta. The identified top

1 spontaneum and Colocasia esculenta. The identified top

1 spontaneum and Coloc zone were *Ailanthus altissima*, *Salix tetrasperma*, *Diospyros lotus*, *Punica granatum*, *Prunus persica*, *Pinus wallichiana*, *Amaranthus viridis*, *Eleusine indica*, *Brachiaria ramosa*, *Persicaria barbata*, *Solanum americanum*, *Echinochloa colona*, *Paspalum distichum*, *Tagetes erecta*, *Setaria viridis*, *Sorghum halepense*, *Oenothera rosea*, *Setaria pumila*, *Plantago major*, *Digera muricata*, *Rumex nepalensis, Arundo donax* and *Artemisia vulgaris*. While, the topmost indicator species of semi-humid subtropical MWPE were *Morus nigra*, *Datura innoxia* and *Persicaria glabra*. The other characteristic species of this vegetation zone were *Populus alba*, *Albizia lebbeck*, *Mangifera indica*, *Ziziphus jujuba*, *Celtis australis*, *Ficus palmata, Senna occidentalis, Adiantum capillus-veneris, Chenopodium album, Dactyloctenium aegyptium, Achyranthes aspera, Persicaria maculosa, Adiantum incisum, Euphorbia hirta, Juncus maritimus, Cortaderia selloana, Cheilanthes acrostica, Rumex dentatus, Poa annua, Verbena officinalis, Saccharum spontaneum* and *Colocasia esculenta*. The identified topmost indicators of dry subtropical MWPE were *Dalbergia sissoo*, *Withania somnifera* and *Saccharum bengalense*. Other characteristics species included *Prosopis juliflora* (Sw.) DC., *Tamarix aphylla*, *Tribulus pentandrus*, *Ricinus communis*, *Dodonaea viscosa*, *Rumex hastatus*, *Cynodon dactylon*, *Desmostachya bipinnata*, *Artemisia persica*, *Dysphania nepalensis*, *Euphorbia prostrata*, *Sonchus oleraceus*, *Chenopodium murale*, *Heliotropium europaeum*, *Boerhavia diffusa*, *Solanum surattense*, *Cucumis melo var agrestis* and *Dysphania ambrosioides*.

The identified indicator species after the ISA was further reconfirmed through structural equation modeling. This reconfirmation of indicator species via SEM analysis has been done for the first time which can be used for the multipurpose including restoration of polluted ecosystem, reforestation drives and smart habitat plantation. This statistical and modeling procedure adopted in the current study could be followed to classify vegetation and identify indicator plants of any geographic region or microhabitat type in any part of the world.

6.1.4 Physiological response as defense mechanism

Some of the indicator species were selected for assessment of physiological response or changes as a defense mechanism against marble pollution based on their

on factor and bioaccumulation coefficient factor. Proline
providing response/reaction of certain plant species to
tral pollution. The amount of proline concentration
a defense mechanism to cope with environmental stres
ata importance value index and indicator values. Literature reviews showed that majority of such experimentations had generally been performed solely in vitro and there are very few examples from the natural sites [\(Pál, Horváth et al. 2006;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_209) [Zobayed, Afreen](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_320) [et al. 2007;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_320) [Hayat, Khalique et al. 2012;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_113) [Ghatak, Chaturvedi et al. 2018;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_88) [Arif, Singh et](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_23) [al. 2020\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_23). This thesis evaluated the physiological response of naturally occurring indicator species of the marble polluted ecosystem. The amount of proline accumulation increases with increase in the marble pollution. While chlorophyll-a, chlorophyll-b and total carotenoids decrease with increases in marble pollution. The proline has highly significant negative relation with chlorophyll a, chlorophyll-b, total carotenoids and significant positive correlation with biological concentration factors, translocation factor and bioaccumulation coefficient factor. Proline accumulation is a typical physiological response/reaction of certain plant species to a wide range of environmental pollution. The amount of proline concentration increases in plant species as a defense mechanism to cope with environmental stress and to improve survival (Bates, Waldren et al. 1973; Akshita, Nandini et al. 2018; [Amiri, Nafez et al.](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_14) [2020\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_14). Exposure of plant species to pollutants causes a reduction in the amount of photosynthetic pigments (Arellano, Tansey et al. 2017; [Li, Feng et al. 2017;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_166) [Lin and](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_170) [Jin 2018;](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_170) Kanwal, Farhan et al. 2020). These and other physiological variations help plants to maximize their efficiency for resource utilization under environmental stress. This evaluation of internal physiological changes of indicator plant species can also be checked for abundant and rare plant species of any polluted ecosystem in order to understand the physiological factors responsible for the survival and death of plant species in the polluted environment. This study can be performed for other kinds of polluted systems as well. The naturally grown plants can be easily developed, propagated and forested if found beneficial in ecological and physiological terms.

6.1.5 Bioremediation of indicator plants and Micro Fungi

The bioremediation ability was determined of the naturally occurring indicator plant species and micro fungi of the MWPE. The standard accumulation, transfer and concentration quotients for each indicator plant species were measured through Bioaccumulation Coefficient (BAC), Translocation Factor (TF) and Biological Concentration Factor (BCF) [\(Malik, Husain et al. 2010\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_178). All the selected plant indicators i.e., *Adiantum capillus-veneris, Ailanthus altissima, Albizia lebbeck, Calotropis procera, Cynodon dactylon, Datura innoxia, Debregeasia salicifolia,*

nts accumulate PTEs from the environment (Salt, Si
the mycoremediation ability of *Aspergillus sydowii*, *Asperania* and *Alternaria alternata* (isolated from MWPE)
ies showed efficient bioremediation ability against q
gne *Desmostachya bipinnata, Dodonaea viscosa, Erigeron bonariensis, Ficus carica, Morus alba, Morus nigra, Parthenium hysterophorus, Persicaria glabra, Ricinus communis, Setaria viridis, Tamarix aphylla* and *Withania somnifera* have significant phytoremediation ability against chromium, nickel, copper, manganese, zinc, iron, cobalt, cadmium, calcium, magnesium and sodium potential toxic elements in the marble waste polluted ecosystem. Certain plant species retain the inherent ability of bioaccumulation, translocation and degradation of different types of pollutants [\(Sepehri, Sarrafzadeh et al. 2020\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_244). They play a role as a sink for biologically hazardous materials [\(Schwitzguébel 2017\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_241). This ability can be viewed as a low cost technology driven by natural sunlight energy and taking place in situ, where plants accumulate PTEs from the environment [\(Salt, Smith et al. 1998\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_237). Similarly, the mycoremediation ability of *Aspergillus sydowii*, *Aspergillus brasilensi, Curvularia aeria* and *Alternaria alternata* (isolated from MWPE) was assesses. All these species showed efficient bioremediation ability against cadmium, copper, cobalt, magnesium, iron, mercury, nickel, sodium and calcium heavy metals. Fungi have the broader ecological and biochemical capability to degrade environmental organic pollutants and hence reduce the risk associated with metalloids, metals and radionuclides (Harmus et al., 2011). They are ideal species for the remediation of different types of pollutants due to their vigorous growth, immense hyphal network, high surface to volume ratio, production of extracellular enzymes, adaptability to changing pH and temperature (Khan et al., 2019; Singh et al., 2015; Kapahi et al., 2017; Bhattacharya et al., 2011).

6.1.6 Spatial distribution pattern of PTE and temporal changes in NDVI

The spatial distribution of potential toxic elements (heavy metals) released from the marble waste polluted ecosystem were assessed using ArcGIS software. The assessment and mapping of heavy soil metals can assist the development of strategies to promote sustainable use of soil resources, decrease soil degradation and conserve natural vegetation. This will include identifying contamination levels and assessing associated impacts on the environment and human health. Remote sensing is one of the most important methods for environmental investigation, mapping, and soil survey (Lillesand and Kiefer 2003). The GEE was used for the determination of temporal

changes in NDVI for the last forty years in the MWPE. The vegetation index is a simple and effective measurement parameter used in remote sensing to designate the vegetation cover and impact of pollution on flora [\(Ahmadi and Nusrath 2010\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_7). NDVI reflects the land use, industrial layout to certain extent and these factors directly or indirectly estimates the level of environmental pollution.

6.1.7 Concept of Water tank for initial treatment of marble wastewater

process 30-40% of block weight is wasted into fine parallel
process 30-40% of block weight is wasted into fine parameticles, resulting in the generation of high solid efflue
particles, resulting in the generation of high Large quantity of water consumed during marble processing i.e., cutting, cleaning, washing, cooling of saws and polishing that results enormous quantity of the wastewater. The production of marble process involves water use for cool down the cuttings, equipment's and control particulate matter emission. During marble processing process 30-40% of block weight is wasted into fine particles (powder) of around <0.2 mm in size. Hence, a large amount of water is used to capture the produced particles, resulting in the generation of high solid effluent [\(Taşdemir and](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_267) [Kurama 2013\)](file:///F:/Zeeshan%20Data/PhD%20Data/PhD%20Data/Thesis/Thesis%20Combined/Zeeshan%20Thesis%20Combined_V2.docx%23_ENREF_267). Initially, wastewater coming from the marble industry can be stored in sedimentation or settlement tank separated by walls. The layout will include 3-4 sedimentation tanks, where in the first one more sludge will be settled down and the last one will contain more clean water. These can be reused by marble factory directly or may discarded into constructed wetland via growing the identified plant species and micro fungi. At the end water from the constructed wetland may be directly released into rivers or streams (Fig. 6.1)

Fig. 6.1 A recommended sketch for the treatment of marble waste water.

Conclusions

istewater mostly revealed six different types of micro
kistan. Their molecular identification and phylogeny re
ZAF 02 and ZAF 03), Aspergillus brasilensi (ZAF (petrophilium (ZAF 06), Aureobasidium leucosper (ZA
ZAF 08) and It is concluded that the MWPE of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan mostly contains 220 different plant species. Family Poaceae was the topmost dominant family of the polluted region. *Ficus carica, Calotropis prosera, Cynodon dactylon* were the dominant and *Pyrus communis, combretum indicum and Biden bippinta* were the rare plant species of MWPE. Based on OLS, logistic and probabilistic all the measured variables have significant role in the occurrence of dominant and rare plant species in the region. While CCA concluded that the $CaCO₃$, electrical conductivity, calcium, soil pH, magnesium, temperature, precipitation, elevation and organic matter have significant role in the distribution pattern of plant species in the region. The marble wastewater mostly revealed six different types of micro fungal strains in Buner, Pakistan. Their molecular identification and phylogeny resulted *Aspergillus sydowii* (ZAF 02 and ZAF 03), *Aspergillus brasilensi* (ZAF 04 and ZAF 05), *Fusarium petrophilium* (ZAF 06), *Aureobasidium leucosper* (ZAF 07), *Alternaria alternata* (ZAF 08) and *Curvularia aeria* (ZAF 09) species. Morphologically many of these strains exhibited aseptate hyphae and varying colors i.e., black, brown, green and white. Anatomically, these strains range from cylindrical to round, hyaline in lacto-phenol blue, thick to thin walled, smooth to ornamented surface with sharp scale and fusoid to ellipsoid in shape.

The marble pollution, climate, elevation and soil have a significant impact on the vegetation structure of the subtropical vegetation of MWPE. In more depth, the marble pollution and climate have a significant positive influence, while elevation and soil have a significant negative influence on subtropical vegetation and their indicator plants. The ISA is one of the best and most effective techniques for the identification/selection of indicators. We claim that their reconfirmation via CCA and SEM analysis has been done for the first time and these indicators can further be used for multipurpose including reforestation drives and smart habitat plantation. Both SEM and CCA analysis identified the complex relation/impact of measured environmental factors on subtropical vegetation of MWPE.

Among the identified indicator plant species i.e., *Adiantum capillus-veneris, Ailanthus altissima, Albizia lebbeck, Calotropis procera, Cynodon dactylon, Datura innoxia, Debregeasia salicifolia, Desmostachya bipinnata, Dodonaea viscosa, Erigeron bonariensis, Ficus carica, Morus alba, Morus nigra, Parthenium hysterophorus,*

Persicaria glabra, Ricinus communis, Setaria viridis, Tamarix aphylla, Withania somnifera and micro fungi i.e., *Aspergillus sydowii, Aspergillus brasilensi, Curvularia aeria* and *Alternaria alternata* have a significant role in the remediation of heavy metals present in marble waste polluted ecosystems and hence could be used for phytoremediation and mycoremediation purposes. The proline accumulation increases in plant species with the increase in marble waste pollution while chlorophyll decreases with an increase in pollution. The fluctuation in concentration of both proline and chlorophyll was due to the phytoremediation property of the plant species. It is also concluded that the use of GIS technology is an effective approach for the mapping of heavy metals contamination. The results comprehend a significant NDVI difference in the marble polluted and non-polluted areas between 1986-2021. Increase in marble pollution with time decreases the average NDVI of the region. The non-polluted areas have higher NDVI than the marble polluted regions. The overall average NDVI in the marble polluted and non-polluted regions were 0.263 and 0.382, respectively.

Frence in the marble polluted and non-polluted areas be

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ed areas have higher NDVI than the marble polluted re

DVI in the marble polluted and non-polluted regions we

Future Recommendations

In order to continue the the study on marble waste polluted ecosystem following prospects could be worked on in the future. It is recommended that-

- \triangleright Identified indicator plants can further be used for multipurpose including reforestation drives and smart habitat plantation in the MWPE.
- \triangleright The statistical and modeling procedure adopted in the current study could be followed to classify vegetation and identify indicator plants of any geographic region or microhabitat type in any part of the world.
- \triangleright To evaluate molecular mechanisms adopted by these plants and micro fungi for marble waste bio solubilization.
- Environmental Management System should be materialized, and environment friendly Eco Industrial Cluster (EIC) should be developed.
- \triangleright Filter press should be used in MPUs for separation of water and marble powder from slurry.
- Government should regulate and inspect the private sector by enforcing the regulations for collecting waste.
- waste bio solubilization.

Inmental Management System should be materialized,

y Eco Industrial Cluster (EIC) should be developed.

DRSMS should be used in MPUs for separation of water a

urry.

Inment should regulate and Awareness should be created among mine owners and marble processors to manage marble waste effectively and efficiently.
- \triangleright To evaluate the pathogenicity of certain pathogenic strains of fungi.
- To introduce and implement Marble Waste Water Treatments in the region.

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Appendices

Appendices

Appendix table 1 Plant families along with species number and percentage recorded from the studied area.

Appendix table 2 List of plant species reported from Marble waste polluted ecosystem, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

RSM QAU

Appendix table 3 Plant families along with species number and percentage recorded from the Humid, Semi Humid and Dry subtropical Marble Waste Polluted Ecosystem (MWPE).

107.02 7.6524 0.2434 0.01586 202 194.05 4.7325 0.0717 0.0047

Appendix table 4 Summary of Species-area Curves of all the studied quadrats/stations of the MWPE, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

Appendix table 5 Indicator species Analysis indicating the topmost indicator species (with bold font) of each subtropical vegetation zone (1-3) in relation with various environmental factors at 25% threshold level of indicators founded on Monte Carlo Test of significance for the observed maximum IV (percentage of perfect indication established on combining values for the relative abundance and frequency for plant species along with probability value ≤ 0.05 . [Max grp= Maximum group (group identifier for maximum observed IV), IV=Observed indicator values, p^{*}= Probability value (1+number of runs>=observed)/(1+number of randomized runs)].

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Appendix table 6 Soil characteristics at zone wise

Appendix table 7 NDVI at factory /quadrat level

Publications **Publications**

Japanskyl Haranson: Marguilli J.J.A. (969) (3.1845)

Research Paper

Politics of the natural vegetation to balance the hazardous level of elements in marble polluted ecosystem through phytoremediation and physiological responses

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ABSTRACT

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Structural aquation model
Indicator and abundant plant species

The current paper evaluates the phytoremediation ability and physiological responses of selected resistant plant species to the hazardous levels of elements in the marble waste polluted ecosystem. Preliminary results demonstrate that all the indicator/resistant plant species i.e., Ailanthus ahissima, Arundo donax, Cynodon dartylon, Erigeron canaderais, Cannabis sativa, Ficus carica, Lathyrus aphaca, Morus alba, Populus alba, Robinia pseudoacacia and Vitex negando were the best Phyto-extractors and Phyto-stabilizers for most of the heavy metals in general and Mg, Ca. Fe, Co and Na in particular (at $p < 0.05$). Structural Equation Modeling confirmed that marble waste
pollution has a direct and significant (R² =0.80) impact or proline synthesis and hence a role in combatin pollution. Chlorophyll content decreased by 4% in studied plant species when the concentration of pollutants increased. It is concluded that the studied bio-indicators - the abundant plant species of the Marble Waste Polluted Systems (MWPS) have a significant role in its remediation. Increasing proline accumulation and decreasing chlarophyll contents with an increase in pollution in the studied plants show resilience of the ecosystem in response to the external lithospheric toxicities. It is recommended that the recognized plant species could be planted abundantly to remediate the MWPS around the marble processing and other such industries and their catchments.

1. Introduction

Lithosphere pollution has been one of the basic detrimental sources of biosphere pollution affects at landscape as well as species level. An increase in human population coupled with rapid industrialization has worsened pollution problems (this or al., 2020; Las et al., Talking Tim m al., 2014; Vulnan et al., 2020). One example of such industrial pollution is the extraction of marbles and their processing. Marbles consist of recrystallized carbonate minerals i.e., Calcite and Dolomite 2000; Tarak et al., 2011), which generally give rise to Dieglinwin et al. oxides of Ca. Mg, Fe, Si, Ti, P, Al and Na etc. (Rocche et al., 1005). Mining, processing and polishing of marbles results in about 70% waste materials (Gazi or al. 2012). The quarrying operation also causes approximately 40% of marble waste, mostly in the form of rock fragments. Such wastes are discarded in empty pits, roads, agricultural lands and rivers that lead to sedimentation and a wide range of lithospheric, hydrospheric and atmospheric pollution (Aukuur and ALQinn). 2008;

Cimera of al., 2017; Lin and Tail, 2005; 20million et al., 2014). Huge amounts of water are used during marble processing, which directly affects all sorts of water channels. Lack of proper treatments has negative impacts on habitats and aquatic flora and fauna, in particular, Marble wastewater adds heavy metals to neighboring ecosystems due to the lack of primary treatments and detoxification procedures $(E-Mg)min$ $y \equiv 01, 2017$ and consequently levels of pollutants increase in water and soil that in turn adversely affect the natural biotic and abiotic environments. This affects the flora and fauna composition through physical and chemical alterations in the environment (Yu et al. жı

Environmental deterioration is not only dangerous for flora and fauna; it affects humans both directly and indirectly as well. To the contrary, some organisms, especially plants, can survive in such toxic conditions (Nummo Caracteral 2019). Such organisms can be identified as pollution indicators, phytoremediators, phytostabilizers and phytoextractors of these special habitats or biomes (Freeman at al.

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ENTIRE OF EXECUTIVE EXPERIMENTS ASSOCIATES EXTREM

Pollution indicandum and marble waste polluted ecosystem; role of selected indicator plants in phytoremediation and determination of pollution zones

Zeeshan Ahmad[®], Shujaul Mulk Khan[®], Muhammad Ishtiaq Ali[®], Noureen Fatima[®], Shahab Ali

ABSTRACT

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The absence or presence of particular plant species indicates specific level of pollution. It was hypothesized that the marble waste polluted ecosystem also host specific plant indicators that can grow, survive and tolerate more successfully than others and can be utilized in hetter managements of such systems. The current research work was therefore, conducted to determine the indicators of maible polluted region of Buner, Pakistan. Ecological techniques using varying sized quadrats Le., 1×1 m², $5 = 2$ m² and 10 × 2 m² for herbs, shrubs and tree species were used respectively. Standard protocols were used to prepare toil samples and plant parts (root, leaf and shout) for Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometry. Indicator Le., Populas alba L., Arundo donax L., Erigeron canadensis L and Morus alba L. were identified via. Indicator Species Analyses (ISA) in various polluted zones. All the collected data were put in MS Excel for analysies in PCORD through Cluster Analysis (CA). Two Way Cluster Analysis (TWCA) and ISA. CANOCO. software was used to examine the impact of miscellaneous environmental variables in zonation via both direct and indirect gradient rechniques i.e., Derrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA) and Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA). A total of 102 plant species belonging to 95 genera and 48 families were recorded in the marble wante pollused ecosystem. CA and TWCA through Jaccard Distance measurements and Wards Linkage methods gave rise to 3 major polluted zones. These zones were i) Heavily Polluted
Zone (HPZ), ii) Moderate Polluted Zone (MPZ) and iii) Less Polluted Zone (LPZ). The recorded values of Hiological Concentration Factor (BCF), Translocation Factor (TF) and Bioaccumulation Coefficient (BAC) for analyzed heavy metals i.e. fe. Mg. Ca. Na and Cu in root and shoot of P. albo L. A. donox L. and M. albo. L. showed that these species were significant phytostabilizers and E. canadensis L. was phytoextracters and hence best indicandum of marble waste polluted ecosystems. It was concluded that among all the measured environmental variables, higher phosphorus level, higher pH, moderate potassium and lower electrical conductivity (EC) had significant effects $(p < 0.05)$ on the functions of these indicators as phytoremediaters. It is recommended to develop green belts of these indicators around the marble indinitrial areas for the better management and hazardous free environment

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1. Introduction

Abbreviations: CA, Cluster Analysis; ISA, Indicator Species Analysis; TWCA, Two Way Cleary Analysis; DCA, Detrembel Correspondence Analysis; CCA, Canonica
Deterspondence Analysis; TF, Translocation Factor; BAC, Bessexumalation coeffi cient: BCF, Budagizal Concentration Factor: KP, Khyber Pakhoanldwar (K. Electrical
Conductivity: ST, Soil Texture, OM. Organic Matter; K. Potassum, P, Phosphurus. * Corresponding author
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Environmental pollution is a substantial issue of the modern world, causing huge damages to the natural ecosystems. Approximately, 2.01 billion metric tons waste per annum is produced worldwide (Bilgen et al. 2008). According to the World Bank's estimates, waste generation will increase up to 3.4 billion metric tons by 2050. Only 13.5% of the today's waste is recycled and 5.5% is

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Plants predict the mineral mines - A methodological approach to use indicator plant species for the discovery of mining sites

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HIGHILGHTS

- · Plant species predict presence of specific mineral reserves.
- These plants can be used as indicators for economically important mineral reserves.
- Indicator Species and modelling approaches were used for indicators
of mineral mines.
- · Coal indicators were Olea ferruginea, Gymnosporia royleana and few more.
• These approaches could potentially
- be applied for exploration of mineral reserves.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: There has been limited research conducted on the identifications/methodological approaches of using plant species as indicators of the presence of economically, important mineral resources

Objectives: This study set out to answer the following questions (1) Do specific plant species and species assemblages indicate the presence of mineral deposits? and (2) if yes, then what sort of ecological, experimental, and statistical procedures could be employed to identify such indicators?

Methods: Keeping in mind these questions, the vegetation of subtropical mineral mines sites in northern
Pakistan were evaluated using Indicator Species Analysis (ISA), Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

Results: A total of 105 plant species belonging to 95 genera and 43 families were recorded from the three mining regions. CA and TWCA classified all the stations and plants into three major mining zones, corresponding to the presence of marble, coal, and chromite, based on Jaccard distance and Ward's linkage

Abbreviations: ISA, Indicator Species Analysis; CCA, Canonical Correspondence Analysis; SEM, Structural Equation Model: KPK, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa; CA, Cluster Analysis; CCA, Canonical Correspondence Analysis; INCA, Two-way C Fe, Iron; Cr, Chromnum; Co, Cobalt; Na, Sodium; Mg, Magnesium; Ca, Calcium. Peer review under responsibility of Cairo University.

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Microbial Flora of Marble Waste-Polluted Environment in the Phylogenetic Perspectives

Zeeshan Ahmad and Shujaul Mulk Khan Quaid-i-Azam University

CONTENTS

1.1 Introduction

Microbial flora is one of the most diverse and abundant forms of life on the earth (Dawson et al. 2017; Lu et al. 2013; Reshi et al. 2015). Microbes are present in every type of natural habitat, i.e., water, soil, air, hot springs, rocks, deep in the ocean and up to high in the atmosphere (Brock 2012; Sterflinger et al. 2012). According to a study, 10 million microorganisms were present in 1 mm of ocean water and 40 million in 1g of soil (Richardson and Jones 1958). Microbes make up 10% of human dry weight. Microbes are the first living organisms on the earth's surface. Majority of them are beneficial. They keep natural ecosystems clean by removing toxins from soil, water, and degraded organic remnants of animals and plants. Microbes are crucial in the nutrient recycling of an ecosystem as they act as decomposers. They are also used as an indicator of landmines and build radioactive metals inert. Microorganisms help in the digestion process and prevent humans from harmful effects. In short, one can say that life could not be possible without microbes. Biogeographic patterns of an ecosystem provide evidences of

1.

