ISSN: 1815-932X

© Medwell Journals, 2014

# Biomonitoring Agent for Heavy Metals Run off from Acid Sulfate Soil of Aquaculture Industries in Selangor, Malaysia

Rashidi Othman, Farah Ayuni Mohd Hatta and Shahima Shafiai Department of Landscape Architecture, Kulliyyah of Architecture and Environment Design, International Institute for Halal Research and Training (INHART), Herbarium Unit, International Islamic University Malaysia, 53100 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Abstract: The disturbance of acid sulfate soils due to poor wastewater management of aquaculture activities caused a major environmental issue such as metal pollution in coastal regions of many countries over the world. Peninsular Malaysia also challenged the same problem where it lost 18700 ha of coastal lowlands from 1980-1990. This activity caused the oxidation of pyrite which produces high concentrations of ferrous ions and sulfuric acid in turn attacks clay minerals and produces high concentrations of monomeric Aluminum (Al) and other acid-soluble metals. Subsequent leaching of these toxic products into adjacent water bodies is rapidly increasing the stress on ecosystems. Therefore, the research was aimed to monitor heavy metal runoff from acid sulfate soil at shrimp aquaculture areas through phytotechnology approach. The study was conducted at fourteen different sites in Selangor which contains large amount of acid sulfate soil. The result showed that *Pistia stratiotes* was substantially the best phytoindicator for Al, Iron (Fe) and Manganese (Mn) toxicity followed by *Lemna minor*, *Nymphaea stellata* and *Urticulata aurea*. On the other hand, *N. stellata* was observed to be best phytoindicatorfor Nickel (Ni) whereas for Arsenic (As) was *Ludwigia palustris*. Among these six species, the most potential biomonitoring agent to indicate acid-soluble metals are *P. stratiotes* and *N. stellata* stely are presence in low D.O level, high pH, high concentration of ammonium and tolerance to Al, Fe, Mn and Ni.

Key words: Acid sulfate soil, phytotechnology, heavy metals, aquatic plant species, aquaculture

### INTRODUCTION

Shrimp aquaculture has recognized among the important marine industries which produces large amount of waste comprising of shrimp's head, shell and tail (Quan and Turner, 2009). Wastes are produced from uneaten feeds, fecal and other excretory wastes (Ali *et al.*, 2011) that consist of nutrients like nitrogen and phosphorus which are discharged into drains without any or minimal treatment. The destruction of mangrove ecosystem has led to several problems such as may degrade existing natural populations and habitats, expose the coastlines to storm and tidal surges (Azad *et al.*, 2009) cause soil acidification (Mitra and Bhattacharyya, 2003) and water pollution (Martin, 2011).

Globally, the report shown that 1-1.5 million ha of coastal lowlands of the ASEAN countries have been converted for shrimp aquaculture pond and it is estimated that more than one third mangrove forests have been

degraded (Azad et al., 2009). Peninsular Malaysia also challenged the same problem where it lost 18700 ha from 1980-1990 (Chan et al., 1993). The loss is estimated to be increased as the large scale of shrimp aquaculture has boomed, since last two decades (Ronnback et al., 2002). The disturbance of acid sulfate soils due to poor wastewater management of aquaculture activities caused a major environmental issue such as heavymetals toxicity as well others inorganic pollutants. This activity caused the oxidation of pyrite which produces high concentrations of ferrous ions and sulfuric acid in turn attacks clay minerals and produceshigh concentrations of monomeric Aluminum (Al) and other acid-soluble metals. Subsequent leaching of these toxic products into adjacent water bodies is rapidly increasing the stress on ecosystems (Cook et al., 2000). In Peninsular Malaysia, acid sulfate soils probably cover an area of about 141 700 ha, found mainly in the coastal region of Melaka, Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan, Selangor, Terengganu,

Johor and Pahang (Law and Selvadurai, 1968). Previous research has demonstrated that plants are effective in cleaning up contaminated soil (Wenzel *et al.*, 1999). Phytotechnologies employ plants to remediate, stabilize or control toxic contaminants from the environment (Vanek and Schwitzguebel, 2003). These techniques use plants to extract, degrade, contain or immobilize pollutants in soil, groundwater, surface water and other contaminated media (USEPA, 2000).

Therefore, this research aimed to monitor heavy metal runoff from acid sulfate soil using aquatic plant species, as biomonitoring agent.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Site sampling:** This study was conducted in Selangor situated in SabakBernam, SgBesar, TanjongKarang, Kuala Selangor, Kapar, Pulau Indah and Sepang in which the acid sulfate soil most likely formed. Fourteen potential areas of acid sulfate soil were identified as detailed in (Fig. 1) and data was collected to identify best phytoindicator for monitoring heavy metals run off from acid sulfate soil. The site criteria were based on the availability and co-relation between acid sulfate soil, water and aquatic plant species (Fig. 2).

Water sampling: Five replicates of water samples were collected in 2 L water capacity polyethylene containers at identified station using standard methods of APHA or standard methods for the examination of water and waste water for analyzing polluted freshwater bodies (APHA, 1995). All samples were brought to the laboratory and stored at 4°C. Preservation of samples was done by the addition of 2.5 mL chloroform in 500 mL of water for further analysis.

Heavy metal analysis: Each replicates were sequentially divided into ten samples for heavy metal analysis in order to evaluate the variations (Iamchaturapatr et al., 2007). The analysis of heavy metals which are Al, Fe, Mn, Ni and as were determined using ICPMS (Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry). Samples were acidified with 1 mL of concentrated nitric acid. Samples were then aspirated for 30 sec prior to the collection of data. Samples having concentrations higher than the established linear dynamic range should be diluted into range and reanalyzed. The sample was analyzed for the trace elements, protecting the detector from the high concentration elements. Statistical analyses were performed for analysis of variance and data significance.



Fig. 1: Location of study area and sampling station



Fig. 2: Unhealthy freshwater bodies dominated by 6 type of aquatic plant species at fourteen different sites in Selangor; a) *Pistia stratiotes*, b) *Ludwigia palustris*; c) *Ipomea aquatica*; e) *Nymphaea stellata*; f) *Lemna minor* 

Table 1: Mean (±SD, n = 10) value (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) of Al, Mn, Fe, Ni and as water samples dominated by *P. stratiotes*, *L. minor*, *L. palustris*, *N. stellata*, *I. aquatica*, *U. aurea* and *L. minor* at fourteen different sites in Selangor with analysis

Stations	Species	Al $(mg L^{-1})$	Fe $(\text{mg L}^{-1})$	$Mn (mg L^{-1})$	Ni (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	As $(mg L^{-1})$
(BaganNakhoda Omar)	P. stratiotes	1.10-1.45	0.87±0.63	0.30±0.30	NA	NA
(Sg. Air Tawar)	L. minor	0.44-0.92	$0.17 \pm 0.16$	0.07-0.10	NA	NA
(Batu 9)	L. palustris	NA	$0.01\pm0.01$	0.01-0.02	NA	0.01-0.02
(Batu 10)	I. aquatica	NA	0.03-0.04	NA	NA	NA
(Parit 9)	N. stellata	0.09-0.10	$0.16\pm0.12$	0.05-0.08	0.08-0.27	NA
(Parit 13)	N. stellata	0.09-0.12	$0.17\pm0.15$	NA	NA	NA
(Batu 6)	L. minor	$0.09\pm0.12$	$0.12\pm0.11$	NA	NA	NA
(Kg Dungun)	I. aquatica	0.08-0.10	0.14-0.22	NA	NA	NA
(SgTengi)	L. minor	0.05-0.10	0.12-0.15	0.05-0.10	NA	NA
(Kg Sepakat)	L. palustris	$0.12\pm0.09$	$0.16\pm0.13$	0.03-0.06	NA	NA
(Parit 1)	P. stratiotes	$0.17\pm0.09$	$0.16\pm0.12$	0.05-0.08	NA	NA
(Kg UluTris)	L. palustris	$0.09\pm0.11$	$0.09\pm0.12$	NA	NA	NA
(Kg Perigi)	U. aurea	0.06-0.08	$0.13\pm0.08$	0.03-0.07	NA	NA
(Kg Batu 39)	N. stellata	0.06-0.08	$0.09\pm0.08$	0.06-0.08	NA	NA

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Heavy metal concentration:** Results established that the presence of Al, Mn and Fe are highly significant to indicate type of heavy metals contaminant at 14 selected types. As shown in Table 1, the accumulation of Al, Mn and Fe were found higher in Station 1 with the presence and abundance of P. stratiotes. Al might be naturally mobile within the unhealthy environment, however anthropogenic activities and acid sulfate soil disturbance might also contribute considerable quantities of Al toxicity. The concentration of Al in the drainage water samples was ranging from 0.09-1.10 mg L<sup>-1</sup> which exceeded the acceptable limits of  $0.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  for raw water. Thus, high concentration of Al showed a great potential for P. stratiotes as phytoindicator for Al toxicity. As for Mn, the concentration range for all samplings were also exceeded the standard required for raw water supply (0.2 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). In short, the result indicated that P. stratiotes was substantially the best phytoindicator for Al, Fe and Mn toxicity followed by L. minor, N. stellata and U. aurea. On the other hand, N. stellata was

observed to be best phyto indicator for Ni whereas for as was *L. palustris*. Among these six species, the most potential biomonitoring agent to indicate acid-soluble metals are *P. stratiotes* and *N. stellata* as they are capable growing in low D.O level, high pH, high concentration of ammonium and tolerance to Al, Fe, Mn and Ni. Results of these studies clearly showed that acid sulfate soil is a main source of contamination of Al, Fe, Mn, Ni and As as well as main contributor to heavy metals pollutant in shrimp aquaculture.

## CONCLUSION

High concentrations of metals are usually associated with acidic drainage as the solubility of metals increases with decreasing of pH. The potential and positive relation created between soil properties and the criteria of plants is importance to ensure the phytoremediation technology is effective. Macrophytes were recognized as integrators of environmental conditions and can be used as long-term indicators with high spatial resolution and thus can be effectively used as biological indicators. Continuous

monitoring of chemical parameters of water as well as distribution and abundance of aquatic plant species are important parameters in planning and defining of different cleaning and maintenance programmes to ensure thesustainable development of healthy aquatic ecosystems. In conclusion, all six species which are *P. stratiotes*, *L. minor*, *N. stellata*, *U. aurea*. *L. minor* and *L. palustris* were observed as potential phytoindicator for monitoring heavy metals (Al, Fe, Mn, Ni and As) runoff from acid sulfate soil.

#### REFERENCES

- APHA., 1995. Standard Methods. American Public Health Association, Washington, DC.
- Ali, N.A., N.A. Hanid and A. Jusoh, 2011. The potential of a polysulfone (PSF) nanofiltration membrane as the end stage treatment technology of aquaculture wastewater. Desalination Water Treat., 32: 242-247.
- Azad, A.K., K.R. Jensen and C.K. Lin, 2009. Coastal aquaculture development in Bangladesh: Unsustainable and sustainable experiences. Environ. Manage., 44: 800-809.
- Chan, H.T., J.E. Ong, W.K. Gong and A. Sasekumar, 1993. The Socio-Economic, Ecological and Environmental Values of Mangrove Ecosystems in Malaysia and their Present State of Conservation. In: The Economic and Environmental Values of Mangrove Forests and their Present State of Conservation in the South-East Asia/Pacific Region, Clough, B.F. and A. Abdullah (Ed.). International Society for Mangrove Ecosystems ISME., Okinawa Island, pp. 41-48.
- Cook, E.R., B.M. Buckley, R.D. D'Arrigo and M.J. Peterson, 2000. Warm-season temperatures since 1600 BC reconstructed from Tasmanian tree rings and their relationship to large-scale sea surface temperature anomalies. Clim. Dynamics, 16: 79-91.
- Iamchaturapatr, J., S.W. Yi and J.S. Rhee, 2007. Nutrient removals by 21 aquatic plants for vertical free surface-flow (VFS) constructed wetland. Ecol. Eng., 29: 287-293.

- Law, W.M. and K. Selvadurai, 1968. The 1968 reconnaissance soil map of Malaya. Proceedings of the 3rd Malaysian Soil Conference, May 1968, Kuching, Sarawak.
- Martin, J.L., 2011. Shrimp Aquaculture: From Extensive to Intensive Rearing, the Relationship with the Environment and The Key to Sustainability. In: Global Change: Mankind-Marine Environment Interactions, Ceccaldi, H.J., I. Dekeyser, M. Girault and G. Stora (Eds.). Springer Science and Business Media, New York, pp. 25-30.
- Mitra, A. and D.P. Bhattacharyya, 2003. Environmental issues of shrimp farming in mangrove ecosystems. J. Indian Ocean Stud., 11: 120-129.
- Quan, C. and C. Turner, 2009. Extraction of astaxanthin from shrimp waste using pressurized hot ethanol. Chromatographia, 70: 247-251.
- Ronnback, P., I. Bryceson and N. Kautsky, 2002. Coastal aquaculture development in Eastern Africa and the Western Indian Ocean: Prospects and problems for food security and local economies. AMBIO: J. Human Environ., 31: 537-542.
- USEPA., 2000. Introduction to phytoremediation. EPA 600/R-99/107, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Research and Development, Cincinnati, OH. http://www.cluin.org/download/remed/introphyto.pdf.
- Vanek, T. and J.P. Schwitzguebel, 2003. Plant Biotechnology for the Removal of Organic Pollutants and Toxic Metals from Wastewaters and Contaminated Sites. In: The Utilization of Bioremediation to Reduce Soil Contamination: Problems and Solutions, Sasek, V., J.A. Glaser and P. Baveye (Eds.). Springer Science and Business Media, New York, pp. 285-293.
- Wenzel, W.W., E. Lombi and D.C. Adriano, 1999. Biogeochemical Processes in the Rhizosphere: Role in Phytoremediation of Metal-Polluted Soils. In: Heavy Metal Stress in Plants: From Molecules to Ecosystems, Prasad, M.N.V. and J. Hagemeyer (Eds.). Springer, New York, pp: 273-303.