

Heavy metal accumulation in Pyrrosia flocculosa (D. Don) Ching growing in sites located along a vehicular disturbance gradient

Alpy Sharma & Sanjay Kr. Uniyal

Received: 22 June 2016 /Accepted: 24 August 2016 /Published online: 3 September 2016 \odot Springer International Publishing Switzerland 2016

Abstract Monitoring of environment is a key contemporary issue that has necessitated search for bio-indicators. The very fact that epiphytes do not have a direct contact with soil and absorb nutrients from the environment puts them among the best indicators of environmental conditions. We, therefore, selected Pyrrosia flocculosa (D. Don) Ching—an epiphytic fern that commonly occurs in the Himalaya for this study. The study focused on analyzing heavy metal concentrations in the fronds of P. flocculosa growing along a disturbance gradient. For this, three sites representing different levels of disturbance viz., least disturbed, moderately disturbed, and highly disturbed, were identified in Kangra district of Himachal Pradesh. From each site, fronds of P. flocculosa were collected, categorized into three growth stages (juvenile, young, and mature), and brought to the laboratory for analyses. After drying and powdering, the samples were analyzed for Pb, Cd, Fe, Ni, Cu, Mn, and Zn using atomic absorption spectrophotometer. The results obtained were statistically compared using the software package Statistica. As expected, concentration of the metals varied among the sites

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (doi[:10.1007/s10661-016-5561-3](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10661-016-5561-3)) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

A. Sharma \cdot S. K. Unival (\boxtimes)

High Altitude Biology Division, CSIR-Institute of Himalayan Bioresource Technology, Palampur, Himachal Pradesh 176061, India e-mail: suniyal@ihbt.res.in

and also among the identified growth stages of the species. In general, concentration of the metals was in the order Fe (639.28 \pm 81.63) > Ni (56.03 \pm 4.97) > Mn (7.54 ± 0.69) > Zn (6.51 ± 0.36) > Cd (4.01 ± 0.86) > Cu (1.93 ± 0.74) . Barring Mn, concentration of all the metals increased with disturbance and was positively correlated to it. However, except for Cd and Fe, none of the metals reported higher than threshold values. Effective monitoring of the environment can thus be done using P. flocculosa.

Keywords Epiphyte · Heavy metals · Bio monitoring · Himalaya . Environment

Introduction

Environmental pollution has considerably risen across the globe (Hauck [2009;](#page-10-0) Bajpai et al. [2014](#page-10-0)). Today, it is a major problem that has serious ecological, economical, and health ramifications (Gajananda et al. [2005;](#page-10-0) Sharma et al. [2011](#page-11-0)). This, therefore, has necessitated initiatives for monitoring the environment (Samecka-Cymerman et al. [2010;](#page-11-0) Loppi [2014\)](#page-11-0). Monitoring by setting up of environmental stations is costly and labor intensive and is therefore well suited for limited areas. On the other hand, plants are easily available, widely distributed, and relatively inexpensive to monitor. Due to their high tolerance capacity to varied pollutants and their availability in remote areas, sampling of plants is relatively easy. Thus, they are well suited for this purpose (Kono and Tomiyasu [2009](#page-10-0); Ashraf et al. [2010](#page-10-0); Ojo et al. [2012;](#page-11-0) Ozturk et al. [2015](#page-11-0)). Consequently, the focus is now on identifying plants that can be used for monitoring and assessing the status of environment (Ozturk et al. [2008\)](#page-11-0). Species such as Salvinia herzogii, S. minima, and S. natans have been used as indicators of water pollution (Wolff et al. [2012\)](#page-11-0). At the same time Athyrium yokoscense, Pteris vittata, and Pityrogramma calomelanos are commonly used for monitoring heavy metal contamination in soil (Nishizono et al. [1987](#page-11-0); Mandal et al. [2014\)](#page-11-0). On the other hand, Diplotaxis tenuifolia, Phaeophyscia hispidula, Opeas pumilum, Lecanora conizaeoides, and Tillandsia caput-medusae have been used to monitor air pollution (Brighigna et al. [1997](#page-10-0); Shukla and Upreti [2007](#page-11-0); Ojo et al. [2012;](#page-11-0) Ozturk et al. [2013;](#page-11-0) Loppi [2014;](#page-11-0) Bajpai et al. [2014\)](#page-10-0).

During the past few years, pollution due to vehicles has also increased in the Himalayan region (Meena et al. [2012](#page-11-0); Ganguly and Thapa [2016](#page-10-0)). Even the interior areas of Himalaya have reported a sharp increase in vehicle density (Shukla and Upreti [2007;](#page-11-0) Uniyal and Singh [2012](#page-11-0); Ganguly and Thapa [2016\)](#page-10-0). The fumes resulting from gasoline combustion in the vehicles leads to addition of lead (Pb) to the environment while vehicle wear and tear adds iron (Fe), copper (Cu), zinc (Zn), cadmium (Cd), etc. to the air (Ojo et al. [2012](#page-11-0); Aksoy et al. [1999\)](#page-10-0). These heavy metals constitute toxic pollutants and their monitoring using native plant species is desired (Kono et al. [2012;](#page-10-0) Ojo et al. [2012\)](#page-11-0). We, therefore, selected Pyrrosia flocculosa (D. Don) Ching (family Polypodiaceae) for analyzing heavy metal concentration along a vehicle disturbance gradient in the Himalayan region. P. flocculosa is an epiphytic fern that commonly occurs in the Himalaya and has a wide altitudinal gradient (Hovenkamp [1986](#page-10-0)). Being an epiphyte, major source of nutrients for the species is air (Brighigna et al. [1997;](#page-10-0) Bhatt et al. [2015\)](#page-10-0). The very fact that epiphytes do not have a direct contact with soil puts them among the best indicators of vehicular air pollution (Brighigna et al. [1997\)](#page-10-0). The species, thus, meets the requirements of an ideal air quality monitoring plant (Aksoy et al. [1999](#page-10-0); Wolterbeek [2002](#page-11-0)).

The study specifically targeted (1) analyzing heavy metal concentrations in the fronds of P. flocculosa growing along a disturbance gradient, i.e., at least disturbed, moderately disturbed, and highly disturbed sites; (2) analyzing metal concentration in different growth stages of the fronds; and 3) correlating heavy metal concentration with disturbance.

Methodology

Site selection

Three sites representing different levels of disturbance viz., least disturbed, moderately disturbed, and highly disturbed were identified in Kangra district of Himachal Pradesh (Fig. [1](#page-2-0)). Categorization of the sites was done based on proximity to road and the frequency of vehicles plying on it (Aksoy et al. [1999](#page-10-0); Shukla and Upreti [2007](#page-11-0)). Highly disturbed site represents a state highway that connects Baijnath to Mahakal. Owing to presence of famous Shiv temples, vehicle movement is relatively higher in this site. On the other hand, moderately disturbed site represents a village road that has limited vehicular movement. The least disturbed site lies in the interiors and is a bridle path. An estimate of vehicle density was generated by simultaneously recording the number of vehicles plying in each of these sites. Recordings were done on a single pre-determined date and at three time periods (morning, midday, and evening). Each recording session lasted for 30 min (Table [1](#page-2-0)). At the macro level, all the three sites are similar and lie between 900 and 930 m asl. The coordinates of the sites were recorded using a Trimble Juno SC global positioning system (Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0).

Sample collection

At each site, three common phorophytes were identified. From these, fronds of P. flocculosa were collected on a day when there had been no rainfall during the preceding 15 days. This was done to avoid the affect of leaching (Markert [1994](#page-11-0)). The samples were collected from tree trunks 1.5 to 3 m above the ground level (Kono and Tomiyasu [2009;](#page-10-0) Shukla and Upreti [2007;](#page-11-0) Khairudin et al. [2014](#page-10-0)). Based on frond characteristics, the collected samples were categorized into juvenile, young, and mature growth stages (Mehltreter [2010](#page-11-0)). We define juvenile fronds as the ones that were smaller in size, curled, and soft in texture. Fronds that had attained full dimensions and had a fully open lamina were categorized as young, while the fronds that also had spores were classified as mature (Mehltreter [2010](#page-11-0)). A total of 27 samples

Fig. 1 Location of the study site in the west Himalayan state of Himachal Pradesh

(3 sites \times 3 phorophytes \times 3 growth stages) were collected. Each sample was placed separately in a brown paper bag, labeled, and brought to the laboratory for analyses.

Sample processing

Samples were weighed on a Mettler Toledo ME104 electronic balance and oven dried at 60 °C till constant

weight was achieved (Aksoy et al. [1999;](#page-10-0) Shukla and Upreti [2007\)](#page-11-0). Once dry, the samples were powdered and sieved through a 1-mm sieve.

Heavy metal analyses

The samples were analyzed for total Pb, Cd, Fe, Ni, Cu, Mn, and Zn. For this, the dried samples were weighed (1 g each) and digested in a mixture of $HNO₃$ (15 ml) and $HClO₄$ (3 ml). Digested samples were filtered through Whatman filter paper no 42. To the filtrate, distilled water was added to make 100 ml volume. The samples were then analyzed using atomic absorption spectrophotometer (AAS), AA-6300, Shimadzu, Japan. The detection limits for Pb, Cd, Fe, Cu, Zn, Mn, and Ni were 0.05, 0.005, 0.025, 0.008, 0.002, 0.01, and 0.02 ppm, respectively.

Statistical analyses

The results so obtained were compared using ANOVA and correlated using Pearson's correlation. To test for significant differences between the groups, Tukey's post hoc test was performed. The data was subjected to discriminant analysis to discriminate sites based on the concentration of heavy metals. All statistical analyses have been done using the software package Statistica (StatSoft [2004](#page-11-0)).

Results

Trend of increasing heavy metals across the disturbance gradient is clearly evident in the present study. As expected, the three identified sites differed with respect to vehicular movement. Vehicle movement was higher in the highly disturbed site as compared to the moderately and least disturbed sites (Table [1\)](#page-2-0). Similarly, heavy metal concentration in P. flocculosa also varied among the sites. For majority of the metals, their concentration was higher in the samples collected from the highly disturbed sites and lower in the samples collected from the relatively less disturbed sites. Overall concentration of the metals was in the order Fe (639.28 ± 81.63) > Ni (56.03 ± 4.97) > Mn (7.54 ± 0.69) > Zn $(6.51 \pm 0.36) > \text{Cd}$ $(4.01 \pm 0.86) > \text{Cu}$ (1.93 ± 0.74) . Lead was not detected in any of the samples.

Concentration of Cd varied among the sites and ranged from below detection limit (BDL) to 10.96 ppm (Table 2). It was not detected in the samples collected from the least disturbed site. Mean concentration of Cd was significantly greater in the highly disturbed site $(8.35 \pm 0.84, p < 0.05)$ compared to the moderately disturbed site. Samples from the moderately disturbed site had 56.05 % less Cd with respect to samples from the highly disturbed site. The coefficient of variation (CV (%)) for Cd in P. flocculosa was 104.41 (Table 2). A significant positive correlation was found between Cd and Fe ($r = 0.57$, $p < 0.05$) and Cd and Ni ($r = 0.57$, $p < 0.05$). However, in case of Cd and Mn ($r = -0.75$, $p < 0.05$), this relationship was significantly negative (Fig. [2](#page-4-0)). A non-significant weak positive relationship with

Table 2 Metal concentration (ppm) in *Pyrrosia flocculosa* collected from different sites

| | C _d | Fe | Cu | Zn | Mn | Ni |
|----------------------|-------------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Highly disturbed | $4.38 - 10.96$ (8.35 ± 0.84) | 757.89-1471.34 (1165.21 ± 68.91) | $BDL-18.67$ (3.74 ± 1.96) | $5.26 - 9.79$ (7.30 ± 0.45) | $4.02 - 6.72$ (5.39 ± 0.34) | $11.32 - 104.64$ (72.73 ± 10.17) |
| Moderately disturbed | $BDI = 10.35$ (3.67 ± 1.48) | 123.21-926.97 (447.18 ± 81.82) | $BDI = 7.24$ (2.06 ± 0.84) | $3.65 - 7.37$ (5.71 ± 0.43) | $2.05 - 13.58$ (7.60 ± 1.48) | 30.91-90.57 (55.99 ± 7.30) |
| Least disturbed | BDL | 208.51-414.36 (305.44 ± 22.30) | BDL | $3.18 - 10.14$ (6.53 ± 0.86) | 5.98-14.29 (9.63 ± 1.08) | 26.72–57.51 (39.36 ± 3.83) |
| CV(%) | 104.41 | 72.10 | 96.96 | 12.23 | 28.12 | 29.78 |
| One-way ANOVA | | | | | | |
| p value | $1.6E - 0.5*$ | 0.12 | 0.44 | 0.21 | $0.03*$ | $0.02*$ |

Values outside parentheses represent the range, while those in parentheses are the means

BDL below detection limit

*Significant at 0.05

Fig. 2 Correlation among different metals found in P. flocculosa

Cu $(r = 0.28)$ and almost no relationship with Zn $(r = 0.05)$ was recorded. Mean concentration of the metal varied among the different growth stages of the fern (Table 3). As compared to the mature and young fronds, juvenile fronds reported higher concentration of Cd in both the highly and moderately disturbed sites (Fig. [3\)](#page-6-0).

In case of Fe, its concentration ranged between 123.21 and 1471.34 ppm and declined with reducing disturbance (Table [2](#page-3-0)). Significantly higher concentration of Fe was recorded in samples from the highly disturbed site $(1165.21 \pm 68.91, p < 0.05)$ when compared to samples from the moderately (447.18 ± 81.82) and least disturbed sites (305.44 ± 22.30) (305.44 ± 22.30) (305.44 ± 22.30) (Table 2; see supplementary material). Concentration of Fe was 61.62 % lower in the moderately disturbed site when compared to the highly disturbed site. On the other hand, least disturbed site had 31.70 % less Fe compared to the moderately disturbed site. Its reported CV (%) was 72.10 (Table [2\)](#page-3-0). In addition to Cd, Fe also had a significant positive correlation with Ni $(r = 0.63, p < 0.05)$ (Fig. [2\)](#page-4-0). At the same time, weak positive relationships of Fe with Cu $(r = 0.29)$ and Zn $(r = 0.25)$ and a weak negative relationship with Mn $(r = -0.24)$ were not significant (Fig. [2\)](#page-4-0). Among the stages, the metal reported highest concentration (654.95 ± 112.96) in juvenile fronds as compared to young and mature fronds (Table 3). With respect to site and stages, in moderate and least disturbed sites, the highest concentration of Fe was in the juvenile fronds (Fig. [3](#page-6-0)). However, in the highly disturbed site, mature (1354.10 \pm 68.12) followed by young (1134.36 ± 70.18) and juvenile fronds (1007.18 ± 128.91) was the order (Fig. [3\)](#page-6-0).

Concentration of Cu ranged between BDL and 18.67 ppm (Table [2\)](#page-3-0) and followed a trend similar to Cd and Fe. Cu reported highest mean value (3.74 ± 1.96) in the highly disturbed site and was not detected in the samples from the least disturbed site (Table [2\)](#page-3-0). Samples from the moderately disturbed site had 44.92 % less Cu than the samples from the highly disturbed site. Though Cu had a weak positive correlation with Cd, Fe, and Ni, it had a negative correlation with Mn ($r = -0.23$) and Zn ($r = -0.26$). However, these correlations were not significant (Fig. [2](#page-4-0)). Its CV (%) along the disturbance gradient was 96.96 (Table [2](#page-3-0)). Cu reported highest mean values (3.46 ± 2.08) in mature fronds (Table 3). In all the sites, Cu had higher values in mature fronds followed by young and juvenile fronds (Fig. [3](#page-6-0)).

Zinc, on the other hand, reported values ranging between 3.18 and 10.14 ppm (Table [2\)](#page-3-0). Highest mean concentration of Zn (7.30 ± 0.45) was in the highly disturbed site, while the lowest (5.71 ± 0.43) was in the moderately disturbed site (Table [2](#page-3-0)). Thus, concentration of Zn significantly varied ($p < 0.05$) between the highly and the moderately disturbed sites (see supplementary material). With respect to the highly disturbed site, 21.78 % less Zn was present in the samples from the moderately disturbed site. Samples from the least disturbed site had 14.36 % higher Zn compared to the samples from the moderately disturbed site. Zn had a weak positive and negative correlation with Fe $(r = 0.25)$ and Cu (r = -0.26), respectively (Fig. [2\)](#page-4-0). It had almost no relationship with Cd $(r = 0.05)$, Mn $(r = -0.02)$, and Ni $(r = 0.02)$. These correlations were not significant (Fig. [2](#page-4-0)). Its CV (%) along the disturbance gradient was 12.23 (Table [2\)](#page-3-0). Highest concentration of Zn (7.65 ± 0.58) was in the juvenile fronds when compared to the young and mature fronds (Table 3). In all the three sites, Zn reported highest concentration in juvenile fronds followed by young and mature fronds (Fig. [3\)](#page-6-0).

Concentration of Mn ranged from 2.05 to 14.29 ppm. It reported highest mean value (9.63 ± 1.08) in the least disturbed site followed by 7.60 ± 1.48 in the moderately

Table 3 Metal concentration (ppm) in different growth stages of *Pyrrosia flocculosa*

| Metal | Juvenile | Young | Mature | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| Cadmium (Cd) | BDL-10.96 (5.26 ± 1.71) | BDL-8.73 (2.94 ± 1.22) | BDL-10.91 (3.82 ± 1.57) | |
| Iron (Fe) | $316.41 - 1188.78(654.95 \pm 112.96)$ | $244.87 - 1272.18(639.90 \pm 134.23)$ | $123.21 - 1471.34(623.00 \pm 184.98)$ | |
| Copper (Cu) | BDL-4.05 (0.94 ± 0.47) | BDL-4.43 (1.4 ± 0.62) | BDL-18.67 (3.46 ± 2.08) | |
| $\text{Zinc}(\text{Zn})$ | $5.63 - 10.14(7.65 \pm 0.58)$ | $3.18 - 9.46$ (6.58 \pm 0.60) | $3.65 - 8.08$ (5.30 ± 0.49) | |
| Manganese (Mn) | $2.05 - 14.29(6.81 \pm 1.38)$ | $3.47 - 13.58(7.69 \pm 1.14)$ | $3.7-14.26(8.11 \pm 1.12)$ | |
| Nickel (Ni) | $11.32 - 104.64$ (58.39 ± 9.85) | $26.72 - 102.6$ (54.50 ± 8.97) | $28.11 - 85.86(55.18 \pm 7.91)$ | |

Values outside parentheses represent the range, while those in parentheses are the means

BDL below detection limit

Fig. 3 Concentration of studied metals at different sites and in different growth stages (HD highly disturbed, MD moderately disturbed, and LD least disturbed)

disturbed and 5.39 ± 0.34 in the highly disturbed site (Table [2](#page-3-0)). Mn varied significantly ($p < 0.05$) between the highly and the least disturbed sites. Samples from the least disturbed site had 26.71 % higher Mn than those from the moderately disturbed site. On the other hand, samples from the moderately disturbed site had 41.00 % higher Mn compared to the samples from the highly disturbed site. The CV (%) for Mn was 28.12 (Table [2\)](#page-3-0). Interestingly, Mn had a negative correlation with all the metals (Fig. [2](#page-4-0)). This relationship was strong in the case of Cd ($r = -0.75$, $p < 0.05$), moderate for Ni ($r = -0.36$), and weak in the case of Fe $(r = -0.24)$ and Cu $(r = -0.23)$ $(r = -0.23)$ $(r = -0.23)$ (Fig. 2). Mn had almost no relationship with Zn $(r = -0.02)$ $(r = -0.02)$ (Fig. 2). With respect to stages, mature fronds had highest Mn (8.11 ± 1.12) when compared to juvenile and young fronds (Table [3\)](#page-5-0). With respect to stages and sites, mature fronds had highest Mn concentration (6.21 ± 0.42) in the highly disturbed site, while young fronds reported highest Mn concentration (9.05 ± 2.97) in the moderately disturbed site (Fig. 3). In the least disturbed site, juvenile fronds (10.30 ± 2.27) had the highest Mn concentration (Fig. 3).

Value of Ni ranged between 11.32 and 104.64 ppm. Maximum concentration of it was recorded in the samples from the highly disturbed site (72.73 ± 10.17) . In agreement to other metals, Ni declined with declining disturbance. It varied significantly ($p < 0.05$) between the highly and the least disturbed sites. Compared to highly disturbed site, 23.01 % less Ni was recorded in the samples from the moderately disturbed site. From moderately to least disturbed site, the observed decline was 29.70 %. Its reported CV (%) was 29.78 (Table [2\)](#page-3-0). Ni had a strong positive relationship with Cd ($r = 0.57$, $p < 0.05$) and Fe ($r = 0.63$, $p < 0.05$) and a weak positive relationship with Cu $(r = 0.25)$ $(r = 0.25)$ $(r = 0.25)$ (Fig. 2). Strength of this relationship was moderate with Mn $(r = -0.36)$ and almost none with $Zn (r = 0.02)$. These correlations were, however, not significant (Fig. [2\)](#page-4-0). Highest concentration of Ni was in the juvenile fronds (58.39 ± 9.85) as compared to the young and mature fronds (Table [3\)](#page-5-0). With respect to site and stage, young fronds had highest Ni concentration (84.57 \pm 13.04) in the highly disturbed site while in the moderately and least disturbed sites, juvenile fronds had higher Ni concentration (Fig. [3](#page-6-0)).

Overall, with respect to stages and sites, majority of the metals did not report significant differences (see supplementary material). However, Zn showed a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between mature and juvenile fronds in the least disturbed site. The difference in Mn was significant between mature and juvenile fronds in the highly disturbed site only ($p < 0.05$). Ni, on the other hand, reported significant difference between juvenile

and young fronds in the moderately disturbed site only (see supplementary material). Thus, less variation is seen among the stages. Variations in metal concentration were more prominent between the sites. This is also clearly visible in the scatter plot generated using the discriminant analysis (Fig. 4). The scatter plot shows that significant and clear discrimination is possible for the highly disturbed site by the first discriminant function. It is on the right hand side of root 1. It indicates the differences between the sites depending upon vehicle flow and consequent metal concentrations (Chardi [2016](#page-10-0)).

Discussion

The study area and its surroundings are devoid of any major industry, and thus the prime sources of pollution in the area are vehicles and developmental activities. All metals, except Mn, had higher concentration in the highly disturbed site. This is expected as concentration of heavy metals is usually higher in the highly disturbed sites where human and developmental activities lead to more of their emissions (Li et al. [2008;](#page-10-0) Petrotou et al. [2012](#page-11-0)). Here, relatively higher number of vehicles in the highly disturbed site that is located in urban environs could be the reason for this (Table [1\)](#page-2-0). Past studies have also reported a positive correlation between vehicle density and metal concentration (Aksoy et al. [1999;](#page-10-0) Bajpai et al. [2014\)](#page-10-0). This also explains the lower concentration of heavy metals in the least disturbed site. As

Fig. 4 Scatter plot of discriminant analysis

observed by us and also reported by other workers (Demirezen and Aksoy [2004](#page-10-0)), a significant positive correlation between Cd, Fe, and Ni and their relationship with disturbance is noteworthy.

While some of the metals originate from fuel combustion, others such as Fe and Cu are a product of abrasion and wear and tear (Bargagli [1998;](#page-10-0) Thomson et al. [1997](#page-11-0)). Among the studied metals, Fe reported highest concentration at all the three sites. Alike Fe, Ni was also present in all the three sites. Concentration of both these metals decreased with increasing distance from the road. Their progressively declining values can be attributed to limited automotive exhaust and abrasion of vehicle (Akhter and Madany [1993;](#page-10-0) Garty [1993](#page-10-0)) in the least disturbed site. Higher Ni values at all the sites could be due to the use of kerosene, agriculture residue, and firewood as fuel. It has been pointed out that oil combustion in many buildings is a major source of ambient Ni (US EPA [1995](#page-11-0), UK NAEI [2008](#page-11-0)). Furthermore, due to developmental activities in terms of construction of buildings and roads that involve welding, Ni may be higher in the area. Owing to heavy rainfall, sloping iron roofs are preferred in the area. This involves welding and thus welding shops are common.

As noted, these release Ni into the environment (Gube et al. [2013;](#page-10-0) Weiss et al. [2013\)](#page-11-0).

Interestingly, Pb was not detected in any of the samples. In recent times, stringent regulations with respect to Pb emission have been put in place (Al-Khashman [2004](#page-10-0); Kar et al. [2010](#page-10-0)). This includes lowering of lead additive limits in gasoline and ban on leaded fuel (Loppi et al. [2004\)](#page-11-0). As a result of EPA's regulatory efforts to remove lead from motor vehicle gasoline, levels of lead in the air have decreased by 89 % between 1980 and 2010 (EPA [2010\)](#page-10-0). Constant improvement in automotive technologies also has a role to play in ensuring minimal Pb emissions (Kar et al. [2010\)](#page-10-0). This along with relatively low traffic density in the study area, when compared to cities in lowland areas (Loppi and Corsini [2003\)](#page-11-0) or religious circuits in Himalaya (Sharma et al. [2015\)](#page-11-0), probably accounts for the absence of Pb in P. flocculosa at the present site.

While Pb was not detected in any of the samples, Cd and Cu were not detected in P. flocculosa samples collected from the least disturbed site. This is quite obvious as this site is the innermost and had minimal disturbance. Cd content apart from the motor vehicle emissions can vary depending upon the intensity of the

Table 4 Comparative account of the present study with studies done elsewhere

| Taxa, study site | Cd (ppm) | Fe (ppm) | Cu (ppm) | Zn (ppm) | Mn (ppm) | Ni (ppm) | Source |
|---|-----------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|
| Brachythecium plumosum, China | 1.44 ± 0.3 | 6159 ± 1240 | 36.6 ± 4.2 | 169 ± 34 | 156 ± 27 | 15.4 ± 6.4 | Chen et al. (2010) |
| Eurhynchium laxirete, China | 0.97 ± 0.2 | 4648 ± 937 | 19.5 ± 3.6 | 114 ± 21 | 111 ± 19 | 11.9 ± 2.8 | Chen et al. (2010) |
| Taxiphyllum taxirameum, China | 1.21 ± 0.3 | 7590 ± 1788 | 139 ± 27 | 229 ± 33 | 170 ± 33 | 16.4 ± 5.4 | Chen et al. (2010) |
| Hygroamblystegium strictulum, China | 1.22 ± 0.4 | 4088 ± 651 | 34.9 ± 5.2 | 124 ± 47 | 109 ± 26 | 11.5 ± 4.3 | Chen et al. (2010) |
| Lichens, New York | | | $9 - 24$ | $20 - 60$ | | | Bowen (1979) |
| Pseudevernia furfuracea, Italy | 0.46 | | 5.42 | 99 | - | | Adamo et al. (2003) |
| Parmelia hypogymnia, Italy | $< 0.1 - 0.3$ | $\overline{}$ | $04 - 10$ | $20 - 90$ | | | Adamo et al. (2003) |
| Evernia prunastri, Italy | $0.05 - 0.09$ | $\overbrace{}$ | 1.94-4.45 | $20.3 - 53.2$ | $\overline{}$ | | Conti et al. (2004) |
| Dirinaria picta, Singapore | $0.14 - 0.28$ | $\overline{}$ | $11.75-$ 45.13 | $44.17-$ 83.15 | | | Ng et al. (2006) |
| Cladonia rangiformis, Argentina | $0.14 - 0.69$ | $\overline{}$ | $1.06 - 5.29$ | $9.15 - 47.6$ | - | | Cayir et al. (2007) |
| Capsella bursa-pastoris, Yorkshire, UK | $0.45 - 1.07$ | $\overbrace{}$ | | $9 - 26$ 53-200 | | | Ross (1994) |
| Poa annua, Yorkshire, UK | $0.27 - 0.84$ | $\overline{}$ | $9 - 26$ | $50 - 151$ | | | Ross (1994) |
| Phaeophyscia hispidula, Uttarakhand | | 4505-10,923 | $24.02 -$ 35.76 | 84.99- 141.8 | | 54-67.9 | Shukla and Upreti (2007) |
| Pyrrosia flocculosa, Himachal Pradesh | BDL -10.96 | $123.21-$ 1471.34 | $BDI = 18.67$ | $3.18 - 10.14$ | $2.05 -$ 14.29 | $11.32-$ 104.64 | Present study |

BDL below detection limit

dust emission containing this element (Abollino et al. 2002; Li et al. [2008;](#page-10-0) Petrotou et al. [2012](#page-11-0)). Similarly, though main source of Cu is combustion of coal (Bargagli [1998](#page-10-0); Anagnostatou [2008](#page-10-0)), variations in Cu have also been related to diesel engines and excessive use of vehicle brake pads (Anagnostatou [2008](#page-10-0)). Potholes in the roads are a common sight in the study area. This calls for frequent use of brakes that subsequently appear to be a source of the same, as has also been reported by other workers (Dietl et al. [1997](#page-10-0); Fujiwara et al. [2011\)](#page-10-0). Zinc is also a prime metal released by vehicle brake shoes (Davis and Williams [1975](#page-10-0)). Thus, its highest concentration in the highly disturbed site is justified. Higher value of Zn in the least disturbed site, as compared to moderately disturbed site, can be linked to the use of pesticides and fossil fuel combustion in the village areas. Studies done elsewhere (Adamo et al. [2003;](#page-10-0) Kar et al. [2010;](#page-10-0) Kord and Kord [2011;](#page-10-0) Loppi and Pirintsos [2003](#page-11-0)) have also reported similar patterns.

The trend of increasing Mn with decreasing disturbance can be explained on the basis of land use and not on the basis of vehicular emission. Our least disturbed site is near agricultural fields, where use of fertilizers and pesticides is a common practice. Use of fertilizers and pesticides may have resulted in higher concentration of Mn in the least disturbed site. Pignata et al. [\(2002\)](#page-11-0) also observed Mn enrichment in areas around agricultural field and attributed the same to the use of fertilizers and pesticides. Similar pattern has also been reported by Bermudez et al. ([2009](#page-10-0)). In another study, contamination factor for Mn was found to be positively correlated with agriculture (Wannaz et al. [2006\)](#page-11-0). High value of coefficient of variation reveals particulate nature of these metals and hence their low dispersion. High CV values for heavy metals have also been reported by Shukla and Upreti [2007.](#page-11-0) It indicates nature of the element accumulated and entrapped by plants.

On the other hand, higher concentration of most of the metals in juvenile stage can be linked to higher metal sequestering capacity of the young growing tissues. Actively developing tissues accumulate higher quantity of elements (Pyatt et al. [1999](#page-11-0)). On the other hand, mature plants have a temporal advantage. There are evidences of translocation of elements to older parts of the plant which results in their higher concentration in older plants (Pyatt et al. [1999](#page-11-0); Nishizono et al. [1987](#page-11-0)). In A. yokoscense, significantly higher concentration of Zn and Cu was found in dead leaves as compared to live ones (Nishizono et al. [1987](#page-11-0)).

A comparative account of the present study with studies done elsewhere, using plants as bio-indicators, is presented in Table [4.](#page-8-0) In the present study, concentrations of Cd and Ni are on the higher side and those of Fe, Cu, Zn, and Mn are on the lower side (Table [4](#page-8-0)). However, only Cd and Fe reported values that are higher than the threshold limits (Allen [1989\)](#page-10-0).

Conclusions

The study is among the pioneers from the west Himalayan state of Himachal Pradesh where such studies are meager and much desired. To our knowledge, the present study is the first to demonstrate use of P. flocculosa as an indicator of heavy metal pollution. In addition to vehicular movement, land use practices also play a role in guiding distribution of heavy metals. While increased levels of Cd, Fe, Cu, Zn, and Ni were found to be correlated to vehicular emission and developmental activities, distribution of Mn could be explained on the basis of agriculture land use. Of all the metals analyzed, only Cd and Fe reported values higher than the threshold limits. Thus, P. flocculosa can be effectively used for bio-monitoring of the environment.

Acknowledgments The authors are thankful to the Director CSIR-IHBT Palampur for the facilities and encouragement. Head and members of the High Altitude Biology Division are acknowledged for their valuable help and support. Special thanks are due to Dr. Yogesh Pakade and Mr. Ramdeen Prasad for helping us in metal analyses. We are thankful to the editor and two anonymous reviewers whose comments and suggestions helped us in improving the earlier version of the manuscript. We thank Department of Biotechnology, Government of India for financial assistance via project GAP 0126 and Ministry of Environment, Forests and Climate Change via project GAP 0199. This is IHBT communication number 3919.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Abollino, O., Aceto, M., Malandrino, M., Mentasti, E., Sarzanini, C., & Petrella, F. (2002). Heavy metals in agricultural soils

from Piedmont, Italy. Distribution, speciation and chemometric data treatment. Chemosphere, 49, 545–557.

- Adamo, P., Giordano, S., Vingiani, S., Cobianchi, R. C., & Violante, P. (2003). Trace element accumulation by moss and lichen exposed in bags in the city of Naples (Italy). Environmental Pollution, 122, 91–103.
- Akhter, M. S., & Madany, I. M. (1993). Heavy metals in street dust and house dust in Bahrain. Water, Air and Soil Pollution, 66(1), 111–119.
- Aksoy, A., Hale, W. H. G., & Dixon, J. M. (1999). Capsella bursapastoris (L.) Medic. as a biomonitor of heavy metals. Science of the Total Environment, 226(2–3), 177–186.
- Al-Khashman, O. A. (2004). Heavy metal distribution in dust, street dust and soils from the work place in Karak Industrial Estate, Jordan. Atmospheric Environment, 38, 6803–6812.
- Allen, S. E. (1989). Chemical analysis of ecological materials. Oxford: Blackwell Scientific Publications.
- Anagnostatou, V. A. (2008). Assessment of heavy metals in central Athens and suburbs using plant material, Dissertation, University of Surrey.
- Ashraf, M., Ozturk, M., & Ahmad, M. S. A. (Eds.) (2010). Plant adaptation and phytoremediation. Netherlands: Springer.
- Bajpai, R., Shukla, V., Upreti, D. K., & Semwal, M. (2014). Selection of suitable lichen bioindicator species for monitoring climatic variability in the Himalaya. Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 21(19), 11380–11394.
- Bargagli, R. (1998). Trace elements in terrestrial plants: an ecophysiological approach to biomonitoring and biorecovery. Berlin: Springer.
- Bermudez, G. M. A., Rodriguez, J. H., & Pignata, M. L. (2009). Comparison of the air pollution biomonitoring ability of three Tillandsia species and the lichen Ramalina celastri in Argentina. Environmental Research, 109, 6–14.
- Bhatt, A., Gairola, S., Govender, Y., Baijnath, H., & Ramdhani, S. (2015). Epiphyte diversity on host trees in an urban environment, eThekwini Municipal Area, South Africa. New Zealand Journal of Botany, 53(1), 24–37.
- Bowen, H. J. M. (1979). Environmental chemistry of the elements. New York: Academic Press.
- Brighigna, L., Ravanelli, M., Minelli, A., & Ercoli, L. (1997). The use of an epiphyte Tillandsia caput-medusae morren) as bioindicator of air pollution in Costa Rica. The Science of the Total Environment, 198, 175–180.
- Cayir, A., Coskun, M., & Coskun, M. (2007). Determination of atmospheric heavy metal pollution in Canakkale and Balikesir provinces using lichen (Cladonia rangiformis) as a bioindicator. Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology, 79(4), 367–370.
- Chardi, A. S. (2016). Biomonitoring potential of five sympatric Tillandsia species for evaluating urban metal pollution (Cd, Hg and Pb. Atmospheric Environment, 131, 352–359.
- Chen, Y. E., Yuan, S., Su, Y. Q., & Wang, L. (2010). Comparison of heavy metal accumulation capacity of some indigenous mosses in Southwest China cities: a case study in Chengdu city. Plant Soil Environment, 56(2), 60–66.
- Conti, M. E., Tudino, M., Stripeikis, J., & Cecchetti, G. (2004). Heavy metal accumulation in the lichen Evernia prunastri transplanted at urban, rural and industrial sites in Central Italy. Journal of Atmospheric Chemistry, 49(1–3), 83–94.
- Davis, D. J., & Williams, C. H. (1975). Heavy metals content of soils and plants adjacent to the Hume higway near Marulan,

New South Wales. Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, 15(74), 414–418.

- Demirezen, D., & Aksoy, A. (2004). Accumulation of heavy metals in Typha angustifolia (L.) and Potamogeton pectinatus (L.) living in Sultan Marsh (Kayseri, Turkey). Chemosphere, 56(7), 685–696.
- Dietl, C., Reifenhauser, W., & Peichl, L. (1997). Association of antimony with traffic-occurrence in airborne dust, deposition and accumulation in standardized grass cultures. Science of the Total Environment, 205, 235–244.
- Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (2010). Our nation's air: status and trends through 2008. Washington DC: US. Environmental Protection Agency.
- Fujiwara, F., Rebagliati, R. J., Marrero, J., Gomez, D., & Smichowski, P. (2011). Antimony as a traffic-related element in size-fractionated road dust samples collected in Buenos Aires. Microchemical Journal, 97(1), 62–67.
- Gajananda, K., Kuniyal, J. C., Momin, G. A., Rao, P. S. P., Safai, P. D., Tiwari, S., & Ali, K. (2005). Trend of atmospheric aerosols over north western Himalayan region, India. Atmospheric Environment, 39(27), 4817–4825.
- Ganguly, R., & Thapa, S. (2016). An assessment of ambient air quality in Shimla city. Current Science, 111(3), 509–516.
- Garty, J. (1993). Lichens as bio monitors for heavy metal pollution. In: Markert B (ed) Plants as bio monitors. Indicators for heavy metals in the terrestrial environment (pp 193–263). VCH, Weinheim.
- Gube, M., Brand, P., Schettgen, T., Bertram, J., Gerards, K., Reisgen, U., & Kraus, T. (2013). Experimental exposure of healthy subjects with emission from a gas metal arc welding process—part II: biomonitoring of chromium and nickel. International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health, 86, 31–37.
- Hauck, M. (2009). Global warming and alternative causes of decline in arctic-alpine and boreal-montane lichens in North-Western Central Europe. Global Change Biology, 15, 2653–2661.
- Hovenkamp, P. H. (1986). A monograph of the fern genus Pyrrosia. Leiden Botanical Series.
- Kar, S., Maity, J. P., Samal, A. C., & Santra, S. C. (2010). Metallic components of traffic induced urban aerosol, their spatial variation, and source apportionment. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 168(1–4), 561–574.
- Khairudin, N. E., Siong, K. K., & Siong, W. B. (2014). Determination of trace elements in epiphytic lichens from Bandar Baru Bangi, Selangor using INAA method. AIP Conference Proceedings, 1584, 235–239.
- Kono, Y., & Tomiyasu, T. (2009). Biomonitoring of atmospheric mercury levels with the epiphytic fern Lepisorus thunbergianus (Polypodiaceae). Chemosphere, 77(10), 1387–1392.
- Kono, Y., Rahajoe, J. S., Hidayati, N., Kodamatani, H., & Timiyasu, T. (2012). Using native epiphytic ferns to estimate the atmospheric mercury levels in a small-scale gold mining area of West Java, Indonesia. Chemosphere, 89, 241–248.
- Kord, B., & Kord, B. (2011). Heavy metal levels in pine (Pinus eldarica Medw.) tree barks as indicators of atmospheric pollutions. Bio Resources, 6, 927–935.
- Li, C., Kang, S., Wang, X., Ajmone-Marsan, F., & Zhang, Q. (2008). Heavy metals and rare earth elements (REEs) in soil

from the Nam Co Basin, Tibetan Plateau. Environmental Geology, 53(7), 1433–1440.

- Loppi, S. (2014). Lichens as sentinels for air pollution at remote alpine areas (Italy. Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 21(4), 2563–2571.
- Loppi, S., & Corsini, A. (2003). Diversity of epiphytic lichens and metal contents of Parmelia caperata thalli as a monitor of air pollution in the town of Pistoia (Italy). Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 86(3), 289-301.
- Loppi, S., & Pirintsos, S. A. (2003). Epiphytic lichens as sentinels for heavy metal pollution at forest ecosystems (central Italy). Environmental Pollution, 121(3), 327–332.
- Loppi, S., Frati, L., Paoli, L., Bigagli, V., Rossetti, C., Bruscoli, C., & Corsini, A. (2004). Biodiversity of epiphytic lichens and heavy metal contents of Flavoparmelia caperata thalli as indicators of temporal variations of air pollution in the town of Montecatini Terme (central Italy). Science of the Total Environment, 326(1–3), 113–122.
- Mandal, A., Purakayastha, T. J., & Patra, A. K. (2014). Phytoextraction of arsenic contaminated soil by Chinese brake fern (Pteris vittata): effect on soil microbiological activities. Biology and Fertility of Soil, 50(8), 1247–1252.
- Markert, B. (1994). Plants as biomonitors for heavy metal pollution of the terrestrial environment. VCH, Weinheim.
- Meena, J., Pathak, K., Soni, A., Soni, D., & Kumar, A. (2012). Study of ambient air quality monitoring on Himalayan regions Garhwal and Kumaon, Uttarakhand, India. International Journal of Applied Engineering and Technology, 2(3), 18–22.
- Mehltreter, K. (2010). Ecological insights from the fern population dynamics. Fern Ecology.
- NAEI, National Atmospheric Emission Inventory. (2008). UK emission factor databases. The United Kingdom. Data available at: [http://www.naei.org.uk/emissions/selection.](http://www.naei.org.uk/emissions/selection)
- Ng, O. H., Tan, B. C., & Obbard, J. P. (2006). Lichens as bioindicator of atmospheric heavy metal pollution in Singapore. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 123(1), 63–74.
- Nishizono, H., Suzuki, S., & Ishii, F. (1987). Accumulation of heavy metals in the metal-tolerant fern, Athyrium yokoscense, growing on various environments. Plant and Soil, 102(1), 65–70.
- Ojo, F. P., Oluseye, O. C., & Abiola, O. G. (2012). Mosses as biomonitors of heavy metal deposition in the atmosphere. International Journal of Environmental Sciences, 1, 56–62.
- Ozturk, M., Ashraf, M., Aksoy, A., Ahmad, M. S. A., & Hakeem, K. R. (Eds.) (2015). Plants, pollutants & remediation. Netherlands: Springer.
- Ozturk, M., Sakcali, S., & Celik, A. (2013). A biomonitor of heavy metal on ruderal habitats in Turkey—Diplotaxis tenuifolia (L.) DC. Sains Malaysiana, 42(10), 1371–1376.
- Ozturk, M., Yucel, E., Gucel, S., Sakcali, S., & Aksoy, A. (2008). Plants as biomonitors of trace elements pollution in soil. In M. N. V. Prasad (Ed.), Trace elements: environmental contamination, nutritional benefits and health implications (pp. 723–744). USA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Petrotou, A., Skordas, K., Papastergios, G., & Filippidis, A. (2012). Factors affecting the distribution of potentially toxic elements in surface soils around an industrialized area of north western Greece. Environmental Earth Sciences, 65(3), 823–833.
- Pignata, M. L., Gudino, G. L., Wannaz, E. D., Pla, R. R., Gonzalez, C. M., Carreras, H. A., & Orellana, L. (2002). Atmospheric quality and distribution of heavy metals in Argentina employing Tillandsia capillaries as a biomonitor. Environmental Pollution, 120(1), 59–68.
- Pyatt, F. B., Grattan, J. P., Lacy, D., Pyatt, A. J., & Seaward, M. R. D. (1999). Comparative effectiveness of Tillandsia usneoides L. and Parmotrema praesorediosum (Nyl.) Hale as bioindicators of atmospheric pollution in Louisiana (U.S.A.). Water, Air and Soil Pollution, 111 (1), 317–326.
- Ross, M. S. (1994). Sources and form of potentially toxic metals in soil plant systems. In M. S. Ross (Ed.), Toxic metals in soil plant systems. Chichester: Wiley.
- Samecka-Cymerman, A., Stankiewicz, A., Kolon, K., Kempers, A. J., & Leuven, R. S. E. W. (2010). Market basket analysis: a new tool in ecology to describe chemical relations in the environment—a case study of the fern Athyrium distentifolium in the tatra National Park in Poland. Journal of Chemical Ecology, 36(9), 1029–1034.
- Sharma, V., Joshi, K. K., & Agrawal, R. (2015). Mitigating disasters through community involvement and righteous practices in Himalayan region of Uttarakhand, India. Strategic Disaster Risk Management in Asia (pp 99–114). India: Springer.
- Sharma, N. L., Kuniyal, J. C., Singh, M., Sharma, P., Chand, K., Negi, A. K., Sharma, M., & Thakur, H. K. (2011). Atmospheric ultrafine aerosol number concentration and its correlation with vehicular flow at two sites in the western Himalayan region: Kullu-Manali, India. Journal of Earth System Science, 120(2), 281–290.
- Shukla, V., & Upreti, D. K. (2007). Heavy metal accumulation in Phaeophyscia hispidula en route to Badrinath, Uttranchal, India. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 131, 365–369.
- StatSoft. (2004). STATISTICA (data analysis software system), version 7. www.statsoft.com.
- Thomson, N. R., McBean, E. A., Snodgrass, W., & Monstrenko, I. B. (1997). Highway storm water runoff quality, development of surrogate parameter relationships. Water, Air and Soil Pollution, 94(3), 307–347.
- Uniyal, S. K., & Singh, R. D. (2012). Natural resources assessment and their utilization analyses from a Himalayan state. Environmental Monitoring Assessment, 184(8), 4903–4919.
- US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) (1995). Compilation of air pollutant emission factors. AP-42. Stationary point and area sources, 5th edition, 1st volume.
- Wannaz, E. D., Carreras, H., Perez, C. A., & Pignata, M. L. (2006). Assessment of heavy metal accumulation in two species of Tillandsia in relation to atmospheric emission sources in Argentina. Science of Total Environment, 361(1–3), 267–278.
- Weiss, T., Pesch, B., Lotz, A., Gutwinski, E., Gelder, R. V., et al. (2013). Levels and predictors of airborne and internal exposure to chromium and nickel among the welders—results of the WELDOX study. International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health, 216, 175–183.
- Wolff, G., Pereira, G. C., Castro, E. M., Louzada, J., & Coelho, F. F. (2012). The use of Salvinia auriculata as a bioindicator in aquatic ecosystems: biomass and structure dependent on the cadmium concentration. Brazilian Journal of Biology, 72(1), 71–77.
- Wolterbeek, B. (2002). Biomonitoring of trace element air pollution: principles, possibilities and perspectives. Environmental Pollution, 120(1), 11–21.