

## Escalating Rhizospheric Chromium Pollution Grades as Plant Foes or Friends?–Evaluation by Enzyme Assay, Physiological Growth and Photosynthetic Phytochemicals of Mash [*Vigna mungo* (L.) Hepper] genotypes.

Ghulam Yasin<sup>a,†</sup>, Sundas Mumtaz<sup>a</sup>, Saira Sameen<sup>a</sup>, Ikram ul Haq<sup>b</sup>, Iqra Tabassum<sup>a</sup>, Khalid Hussain<sup>c</sup>, Khalid Nawaz<sup>c</sup>, Ali Noman<sup>d</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Department of Botany, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan, Pakistan

<sup>b</sup>Institute of Biotechnology and Genetic Engineering (IBGE) University of Sindh, Jamshoro, Pakistan.

<sup>c</sup>Department of Botany, University of Gujrat, Gujrat, Pakistan

<sup>d</sup>Department of Botany, Government College University, Faisalabad, Pakistan

### ABSTRACT

The presence of heavy metals in soils may be toxic or beneficial to the environment. The plants may require some of these elements considered as essentials (like Fe, Cu, Zn, Cr or Mo) in trace quantities, but at higher concentrations they may be poisonous. An experiment was conducted on four mash bean (*Vigna mungo* (L.) Hepper) genotypes to evaluate the toxic or beneficial effects of chromium (III) applied in rhizospheric environment of plant. Photosynthetic phytochemicals in the form of Chlorophyll a, Chlorophyll b, total carotenoids, Plant nitrate reductase activity and physiological growth as leaf area index (LAI) were recorded against 10.0, 20.0, 30.0, 40.0, 50.0 and 60.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> chromium (III) concentrations. Seeds of four genotypes sterilized with 10% (V/V) hydrogen peroxide were sown in earthen pots filled with homogenized loamy soil. Chromium was added in soil as CrCl<sub>3</sub> solutions after twenty days of germination. Data were collected on expiry of twenty five days after chromium addition. Increasing amount of chromium (Cr) appeared to be responsible for gradual reduction in Nitrate Reductase Activity (NRA), photosynthetic pigments and physiological growth of leaf in term of Leaf Area Index (LAI). The lowest significantly effective dose was 20 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in this regard. While the most effective proven dose was 60 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> for each attribute. The observations were excluded from the ongoing trend when 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> chromium (Cr) reflected an increase in studied characteristics at the most being 13.59% for Nitrate Reductase Activity (NRA) at this level. Of the genotypes, MASH 80 was the most sensitive while MASH 88 was the least sensitive to chromium stress

**KEY WORDS:** CHROMIUM; MASH; NITRATE REDUCTASE; CHLOROPHYLL ; CAROTENOID; LEAF AREA INDEX.

### ARTICLE INFORMATION

\*Corresponding Author: [alibaggar@hotmail.com](mailto:alibaggar@hotmail.com)

Received 15th May 2020 Accepted after revision 19th June 2020

Print ISSN: 0974-6455 Online ISSN: 2321-4007 CODEN: BBRCBA

Thomson Reuters ISI Web of Science Clarivate  
Analytics USA and Crossref Indexed Journal



NAAS Journal Score 2020 (4.31) SJIF: 2020 (7.728)

A Society of Science and Nature Publication,

Bhopal India 2020. All rights reserved

Online Contents Available at: <http://www.bbrc.in/>

DOI: 10.21786/bbrc/13.2/43

## INTRODUCTION

Chromium (Cr) is an element naturally occurring in rocky soils and volcanic dust. It has been classified as a carcinogen agent according to the International Agency for Research on Cancer. Therefore, this metal needs an accurate understanding and thorough investigation in soil-plant systems. Due to its high solubility, Cr (VI) is regarded as a hazardous ion, which contaminates groundwater and is transferred to food chain through soil plant interaction system. Chromium also has negative impacts on the growth of plants by impairing their essential metabolic processes (Sharma et al. 2020). Many industries like dyeing, electroplating, leather, tanning and steel discharge effluents of chromium causing significant rise in environmental Cr contents (Joutey et al. 2015). Chromium high solubility contaminates groundwater and enters into food chain through soil plant interconnection (Joutey et al. 2015; Kumar et al. 2019; Kumar et al. 2019). The Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (CERCLA, 2019). Chromium is ranked 17th among the most hazardous metals (Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry, 2019).

Its high redox potential enables chromium to change oxidation state easily (Shahid et al., 2017; Prado et al. 2016). Its most common oxidation states are hexavalent and trivalent (Ashraf et al., 2017). These oxidation forms differ in respect of their bioavailability, toxicity and translocation in plants (Shahid et al. 2017). Of these Cr (III) is the most stable form of Chromium, whereas Cr (VI) is the highest noxious one for plants. When enter into the cell, these oxidation states attack proteins, lipids and DNA (Tchounwou et al. 2012; Stambulska et al. 2018).

In plants excess Chromium concentration disrupts many biochemical and physiological phenomenon (UdDin et al. 2015; Kamran et al. 2017). Toxicity of metal rely upon its complex interactions with signal transduction, genetics and macromolecules (Santos et al. 2012; Eleftheriou et al. 2015; Kumari et al. 2016). Chromium toxicity affects growth of plant by many ways including changes in structure of cell membrane, chloroplast, pigments, disturbing water balance, mineral nutrition, enzymes and assimilation process (Reale et al. 2016; Ali et al. 2015; Farooq et al. 2016; Cervantes and Campos-Garcia, 2007; Anjum et al. 2017). The major toxic effects of chromium are due to its role in production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which alters the redox balance in plants (Anjum et al. 2017).

Taking all into consideration, we review the literature that addresses Cr uptake, translocation and sub-cellular distribution in plants. We also discuss different effects of Cr on plant pigments, photosynthetic parameters, enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidative system and various endogenous levels of plant hormones. Roots of some plant secrete organic molecules as acids which act as ligand and can modify solubility of metals in the soil (Khanna et al. 2019; Kaur et al. 2017; Kaur et al. 2018; Kohli et al. 2018). Plant uptake Cr through active and passive mechanism (Shanker et al. 2005;

Cervantes 2001; Appenroth et al. 2008; De Oliveira et al. 2013). Due to it has structural similarity with sulphate and phosphate, uptake of chromium by root cells is through sulphate or phosphate (De Oliveira et al. 2013; De Oliveira et al. 2016). After entry into plant cells, the Cr (VI) is converted to Cr (III) which by binding to the cell walls can block the further transport of Cr within plant (Kabata-Pendias and Szeke, 2015).

Mash bean (*Vigna mungo* (L.) Hepper), belonging to family Papilionaceae, is among the most important pulse crops of the world. In Pakistan, it is amongst the least researched pulse crops inspite of its high nutritive and economic value. Chemical analysis of mash bean seed indicates that it contains oil, fats, protein, carbohydrates and a fair amount of vitamin A and B (James, 1981). It fix free atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> for its consumption and enriches with N for next crop (Sen, 1996). Considering the importance of mash bean and considering the ever increasing toxicity of chromium in environment, the present experiment was devised to find out the extent of chromium concentration which could be toxic to plant.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

To find out whether chromium metal is toxic or beneficial element for plant, an experiment was devised to evaluate the Photosynthetic pigments, Nitrate Reductase (EC 1.6.6.1) Activity (NRA) and leaf area index of four mash bean (*Vigna mungo* (L.) Hepper) genotypes under various chromium applied concentrations. After the initial survey, effluents hazards free sandy loam soil was selected. Soil was air-dried ground, passed through 2mm sieve and mixed well. Seeds of four mash genotypes i.e., MASH 80, MASH 88, MASH 97 and MASH ES<sup>-1</sup> were used in the experiment. The genotypes have their origin in Ayub Agricultural Research Institute (AARI), Faisalabad (Pakistan) and National Agricultural Research Centre (NARC) Islamabad (Pakistan). These were obtained from Pulse Section, Ayub Agricultural Research Institute (AARI), Faisalabad (Pakistan). For imposing metal pollution in soil, chloride of chromium of Sigma Aldrich, Japan was used.

Experiment was designed with complete randomization of treatments and genotypes to avoid unequal exposure of environmental factors. Each treatment was repeated four times by pots and plants. Pots of 30 cm diameter were filled with 10 kg sandy loam soils and lined with polyethylene bags ensuring seepage prevention. These were arranged in completely randomized design. Seeds sterilized with 0.1% (V/V) HgCl<sub>2</sub>, similar in size and weight, were germinated and thinning was performed after germination to maintain one seedling in each pot in order to avoid the imbalanced uptake of nutrients by plants. Weeds were uprooted from time to time by hand weeding and hoeing in order to avoid weed crop competition. Insects and pests were control by foliar spray of Thiodon insecticides of Hoechst (Pvt) Ltd, Pakistan. Plants were irrigated with normal irrigation water.

Quantified amounts of chromium chloride were added in soil accordingly to raise the chromium levels of 10.0, 20.0, 30.0, 40.0, 50.0 and 60.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> soil. Metals salts were applied in soil as a water solution of CrCl<sub>3</sub>, method similar to that used by (Stoeva and Bineva, 2003) after twenty days of sowing while the pots without the addition of metals salts acted as control. Photosynthetic phytochemicals in the form of pigments contents were measured by using the formula of Arnon, 1949) after

twenty five days of metal imposition. The leaves were extracted with 80% acetone. By using spectrophotometer (Hitachi Model-U 2001 Japan), the absorbances were measured at 645nm and 663nm for Chl a and b contents respectively and at 480nm for carotenoids. Carotenoids contents were calculated after (Goodwin, 1965) and chlorophylls were calculated according to the (Lichtenthaler, 1987) formulae

Table 1. Chlorophyll a contents (mg g<sup>-1</sup> leaf F. wt) of 45 days old mash (*Vigna mungo* (L.) Hepper) grown in chromium (III) supplemented soil (0, 10, 20, 30, 40 50 and 60mg/kg soil) (Values represent means ± SE). Values in parentheses represent % age increase (+)/decrease (-) over untreated of row#1 or over MASH 80 for genotypes means. Values followed by dissimilar letters, are different at P = 0.05 among means of treatments and genotypes (lower case letter) as well as among interactions (upper case letters).

Chromium (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> soil)	MASH 80	MASH 88 (LSD=0.088 ;n=4)	MASH 97	MASH ES-1	TREATMENTS MEANS (LSD=0.044 ;n=16)
Control	1.204±0.002 (A)	1.055±0.054 (BC)	0.979±0.031 (CD)	0.995±0.085 (BC)	1.058a±0.103
10	1.192±0.115 (0.996) (A)	1.236±0.129 (-17.156) (A)	1.070±0.053 (-9.295) (B)	0.903±0.068 (9.246) (DE)	1.100a±0.159 (-3.969)
20	0.827±0.057 (31.312) (EF)	0.992±0.089 (5.971) (BC)	0.782±0.120 (20.127) (F)	0.508±0.100 (48.944) (GH)	0.777b±0.198 (26.559)
30	0.436±0.061 (63.787) (H)	0.586±0.027 (44.450) (G)	0.449±0.090 (54.136) (H)	0.342±0.035 (65.628) (I)	0.453c±0.104 (57.183)
40	0.241±0.016 (79.983) (JK)	0.331±0.010 (68.625) (I)	0.296±0.091 (69.765) (IJ)	0.167±0.030 (83.216) (KL )	0.259d±0.077 (75.519)
50	0.113±0.028 (90.614) (LM)	0.161±0.02 (84.739) (KLM)	0.153±0.040 (84.371) (LM)	0.087±0.016 (91.250) (LM)	0.129e±0.040 (87.807)
60	0.078±0.013 (93.521) (M)	0.157±0.032 (85.118) (KLM)	0.084±0.004 (91.419) (M)	0.075±0.009 (92.462) (M)	0.098e±0.038 (90.737)
GENOTYPES MEANS →	0.585b±0.462	0.645a±0.427 (-10.256)	0.545c±0.382 (6.837)	0.439d±0.362 (24.957)	0.553±0.412
		(LSD=0.033 ; n=28)			

Carotenoids (mg g<sup>-1</sup> leaf fresh weight) = (Acar/EM) × 1000. Chl a (mg g<sup>-1</sup> leaf fresh weight) = (12.7(OD663) - 2.69 (OD645)) × V/1000 × W. Chl b (mg g<sup>-1</sup> leaf fresh weight) = (22.9(OD645) - 4.68(OD663)) × V/1000 × W. Where Acar = OD480+0.114(OD663)-0.638(OD645); EM (100%) =2500; OD =Optical density; V = Volume of sample; W = Weight of sample.

Nitrate reductase activity was determined on the expiry of twenty five days after metal imposition using the method of (Sym, 1984).

The leaf area index (LAI) was calculated by using the following formula given by Puttaswamy et al., (1976).

LAI = L × W × N × K Where, L= length of the leaf (cm);W= maximum width of the leaf in cm;N= number of

leaves per plant;K= constant (0.65 for legume crops).

The data collected were analyzed for analysis of variance using COSTAT computer package (CoHort Software, Berkeley, CA). Duncan's New Multiple Range test at 5% level of probability (Duncan, 1955) was used to compare means. Significant F values were tested for mean differences by LSD tests at 0.05% significance level, by using MSTAT-C Computer Statistical Programme (MSTAT Development Team, 1989)

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to Duncan's Multiple Range Test (Table: 1), increasing intensity of metal stress by its escalating levels appeared to be responsible for gradual reduction in chlorophyll a contents. Index of variability in chlorophyll

a revealed that chromium (III) application above the limit of 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> caused statistically marked reduction in the pigment concentration. Maximum effect in all the genotypes was predominantly observed by 60mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. A deviation from the ongoing role of metal was noted when 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> metal was supplemented to soil medium

of MASH 88 and MASH 97 plants which exhibited an increase in chlorophyll a contents by 17.156% and 9.295% respectively from control. Among the genotypes, MASH 88 revealed maximum (0.645) and MASH ES-1 revealed minimum (0.439) values. MASH 97 differed from MASH 80 by a value of 6.837%.

Table 2. Chlorophyll b contents (mg g<sup>-1</sup> leaf F. wt) of 45 days old mash (*Vigna mungo* (L.) Hepper) grown in chromium (III) supplemented soil (0, 10, 20, 30, 40 50 and 60mg/kg soil) (Values represent means  $\pm$  SE). Values in parentheses represent %age increase (+)/decrease (-) over untreated of row#1 or over MASH 80 for genotypes means. Values followed by dissimilar letters, are different at P = 0.05 among means of treatments and genotypes (lower case letter) as well as among interactions (upper case letters).

Chromium (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> soil)	MASH 80	MASH 88 (LSD=0.089 ;n=4)	MASH 97	MASH ES-1	TREATMENTS MEANS (LSD=0.049 ;n=16)
Control	0.639 $\pm$ 0.043 (F)	0.935 $\pm$ 0.135 (BC)	0.915 $\pm$ 0.126 (C)	0.860 $\pm$ 0.170 (CD)	0.837a $\pm$ 0.166
10	0.624 $\pm$ 0.101 (2.347) (F)	1.039 $\pm$ 0.061 (-11.122) (A)	1.008 $\pm$ 0.050 (-10.163) (AB)	0.830 $\pm$ 0.063 (3.488) (D)	0.875a $\pm$ 0.182 (-4.540)
20	0.402 $\pm$ 0.0289 (37.089) (H)	0.896 $\pm$ 0.082 (3.660) (CD)	0.733 $\pm$ 0.114 (19.890) (E)	0.461 $\pm$ 0.093 (46.395) (GH)	0.623b $\pm$ 0.221 (25.567)
30	0.205 $\pm$ 0.031 (67.918) (JK)	0.520 $\pm$ 0.024 (44.385) (G)	0.416 $\pm$ 0.086 (54.535) (H)	0.305 $\pm$ 0.032 (64.534) (I)	0.361c $\pm$ 0.129 (56.869)
40	0.107 $\pm$ 0.007 (83.255) (LM)	0.290 $\pm$ 0.009 (68.983) (IJ)	0.269 $\pm$ 0.087 (70.601) (IJ)	0.142 $\pm$ 0.028 (83.488) (KL)	0.202d $\pm$ 0.091 (75.866)
50	0.042 $\pm$ 0.014 (93.427) (MN)	0.134 $\pm$ 0.022 (85.668) (KL)	0.133 $\pm$ 0.039 (85.464) (KL)	0.063 $\pm$ 0.023 (91.970) (LMN)	0.093e $\pm$ 0.048 (88.888)
60	0.012 $\pm$ 0.013 (98.122) (N)	0.060 $\pm$ 0.029 (35.187) (LMN)	0.032 $\pm$ 0.014 (96.502) (MN)	0.027 $\pm$ 0.009 (96.860) (MN)	0.033f $\pm$ 0.024 (96.057)
GENOTYPES MEANS $\rightarrow$	0.290d $\pm$ 0.254	0.553a $\pm$ 0.387 (-90.689)	0.501b $\pm$ 0.372 (-72.758)	0.384 c $\pm$ 0.335 (-32.413)	0.432 $\pm$ 0.359
(LSD=0.037 ; n=28)					

Chromium (III) stress imposition induced a reduction in chlorophyll b contents and established an inverse correlation between the two (Table: 2). A remarkable and statistically non significant effect of chromium (III) in decreasing pigment concentration was when supplied above 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> concentration. Maximum effect in all the genotypes was by 60mg kg<sup>-1</sup> but in MASH 88 was by 50mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. Metal level of 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in MASH 88 and MASH 97 provided an opposite index of its action and increased the chlorophyll b contents by 11.122% and 10.163% from untreated control plants. Among the genotypes, MASH 88 revealed maximum (0.553) and MASH 80 revealed minimum (0.590) values. Differences of 72.758% and 90.689% were statistically obvious for MASH 97 and MASH 88 respectively from MASH 80. Higher concentrations of chromium (III) induced

reduction in carotenoids contents corresponded to its levels of application (Table: 7).

Carotenoids were affected significantly by chromium (III) concentrations of not less than 20mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. Maximum effect in all the genotypes was by 60mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. Though irregularly, chromium (III) at lower level of its concentration, exhibited enhancement effects as 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> revealed an increase of 16.760 % and 10.606% for plants of MASH 88 and MASH 97 respectively. Similarly 20mg kg<sup>-1</sup> chromium (III) increased the carotenoids contents of MASH 88 by 21.092%. Differences of 69.587% and 78.350% were statistically obvious for MASH 97 and MASH 88 respectively from MASH 80. Genotypes, MASH 88 revealed maximum (0.346) and MASH 80 revealed minimum (0.194) values for total carotenoids contents.

From the data for mean values, it could be inferred that the chromium (III) supply impaired the activity of nitrate reductase for its reduction potential. The decrease in Nitrate Reductase Activity (NRA) established an inverse correlation with metal concentration (Table: 4). Nitrate Reductase Activity (NRA) value, when measured under the influence of more than 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> chromium (III), was found to be statistically lower than that of untreated control. Maximum effect (42.382%) was conceived by

metal toxicity of 60mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. A similar pattern of metal stress was extendable to all the genotypes. However, the application of 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> chromium (III) to the plants of MASH 97 and MASH ES-1 stimulated the Nitrate Reductase Activity (NRA) by 1.433 % and 13.593% respectively. Different sensitivity range for chromium (III) was found in genotypes. Among the genotypes, MASH 88 revealed maximum (0.732) and MASH 80 revealed minimum (0.626) values.

Table 3. Total Carotenoids contents (mg g<sup>-1</sup> leaf F. wt) of 45 days old mash (*Vigna mungo* (L.) Hepper) grown in chromium (III) supplemented soil (0, 10, 20, 30, 40 50 and 60mg/kg soil) (Values represent means ± SE). Values in parentheses represent %age increase (+)/decrease (-) over untreated of row#1 or over MASH 80 for genotypes means. Values followed by dissimilar letters, are different at P = 0.05 among means of treatments and genotypes (lower case letter) as well as among interactions (upper case letters).

Chromium (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> soil)	MASH 80	MASH 88	MASH 97	MASH ES-1	TREATMENTS MEANS
		(LSD=0.077 ;n=4)			(LSD=0.041 ;n=16)
Control	0.432±0.57 (FG)	0.531±0.119 (DE)	0.594±0.017 (CD)	0.773±0.164 (A)	0.582a±0.159
10	0.403±0.102 (6.712) (G)	0.672±0.044 (-16.760) (B)	0.657±0.067 (-10.606) (BC)	0.545±0.039 (29.495) (DE)	0.569a±0.126 (2.233)
20	0.197±0.033 (54.398) (I)	0.643±0.076 (-21.092) (BC)	0.480±0.059 (19.191) (EF)	0.275±0.056 (64.424) (H)	0.399 b±0.188 (31.443)
30	0.130±0.023 (69.907) (IJ)	0.285±0.052 (46.327) (H)	0.298±0.062 (49.831) (H)	0.177±0.024 (77.102) (I)	0.222 c±0.083 (61.855)
40	0.059±0.008 (86.342) (JK)	0.186±0.007 (64.971) (I)	0.180±0.068 (69.696) (I)	0.072±0.018 (90.685) (JK)	0.125d±0.069 (78.522)
50	0.069±0.056 (84.027) (JK)	0.079±0.014 (85.122) (JK)	0.081±0.017 (86.363) (JK)	0.036±0.010 (95.342) (K)	0.066 e±0.033 (88.659)
60	0.068±0.064 (84.259) (JK)	0.027±0.017 (94.915) (K)	0.016±0.005 (97.306) (K)	0.019±0.004 (97.542) (K)	0.032 e±0.037 (94.501)
GENOTYPES MEANS	0.194 c±0.159	0.346 a±0.258 (-78.350)	0.329 a±0.242 (-69.587)	0.271 b±0.277 (-39.690)	0.285±0.242
	(LSD=0.031 ; n=28)				

From the data for mean values, it could be inferred that the chromium (III) supply reduced the leaf area index (Table: 8). The decrease in leaf area index (LAI) established an inverse correlation with metal concentration. Leaf area index (LAI) value, when measured under the influence of more than 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> chromium (III), was found to be statistically lower than that of untreated control. Maximum effect (42.036%) was conceived by metal toxicity of 60mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. A similar pattern of metal stress was extendable to all the genotypes. However, the application of 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> chromium (III) stimulated the leaf area index (LAI) in all genotypes Different sensitivity range for chromium (III) was found in genotypes. Among

the genotypes, MASH ES-1 revealed maximum (340.992) leaf area index (LAI) and MASH 88 revealed minimum (297.288) values.

Our results revealed that chlorophyll concentration was decreased by chromium application in a concentration dependent manner (Table and 2). A significant reduction of chlorophyll in chromium treated plant is reported by many researchers (Rai et al. 2014; Rajendran et al. 2019;Sinha et al. 2004;Balal et al. 2017;Islam et al. 2016;Zou et al. 2009; Amin et al. 2013;Tang et al. 2012;Amin et al. 2014). Chlorophyll reduction might be either due to inhibiting biosynthesis of chlorophyll

(Lushchak, 2010; Sharma et al. 2019; Chandra and Kulshreshtha, 2004) or destruction of chlorophyll molecule in Cr treated plants (Valko et al. 2006). Reduction in chlorophyll contents may be due to the increased activity chlorophyllase enzyme and nutrients deficiency because of higher concentration of metal translocation toward shoots (Khan et al. 2016; Shakoor

et al. 2014). Plants exposed to Cr stress showed depleted chlorophyll contents that might be due to the disrupted chlorophyll biosynthesis (Chandra and Kulshreshtha, 2004). Chromium reduces chlorophyll contents by inhibiting activity of  $\delta$ -aminolevulinic acid dehydratase (ALAD) enzyme which is involved in chlorophyll synthesis (Hayat et al. 2012).

Table 4. Nitrate Reductase (EC 1.6.6.1) Activity (NRA) of 45 days old mash (*Vigna mungo* (L.) Hepper) grown in chromium (III) supplemented soil (0, 10, 20, 30, 40 50 and 60mg/kg soil) (Values represent means  $\pm$  SE). Values in parentheses represent %age increase (+)/decrease (-) over untreated of row# 1 or over MASH 80 for genotypes means. Values followed by dissimilar letters, are different at P = 0.05 among means of treatments and genotypes (lower case letter) as well as among interactions (upper case letters).

Chromium (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> soil)	MASH 80	MASH 88 (LSD=0.0444 ;n=4)	MASH 97	MASH ES-1	TREATMENTS MEANS (LSD=0.026 ;n=16)
Control	0.743 $\pm$ 0.023 (E)	0.963 $\pm$ 0.039 (A)	0.837 $\pm$ 0.030 (D)	0.951 $\pm$ 0.037 (AB)	0.873a $\pm$ 0.097
10	0.844 $\pm$ 0.029 (-13.593) (D)	0.902 $\pm$ 0.026 (6.334) (C)	0.849 $\pm$ 0.036 (-1.433) (D)	0.910 $\pm$ 0.025 (4.3112) (BC)	0.876a $\pm$ 0.040 (-0.343)
20	0.609 $\pm$ 0.012 (18.034) (JK)	0.837 $\pm$ 0.030 (13.084) (D)	0.763 $\pm$ 0.010 (8.841) (E)	0.721 $\pm$ 0.052 (24.185) (EF)	0.733b $\pm$ 0.089 (16.036)
30	0.583 $\pm$ 0.013 (21.534) (KL)	0.658 $\pm$ 0.043 (31.671) (GHI)	0.726 $\pm$ 0.007 (13.261) (EF)	0.616 $\pm$ 0.014 (35.226) (IJK)	0.646c $\pm$ 0.059 (26.002)
40	0.551 $\pm$ 0.014 (25.841) (LM)	0.670 $\pm$ 0.017 (30.425) (GH)	0.692 $\pm$ 0.024 (17.323) (FG)	0.579 $\pm$ 0.009 (42.481) (KL)	0.623c $\pm$ 0.063 (28.636)
50	0.522 $\pm$ 0.002 (29.744) (MIN)	0.634 $\pm$ 0.018 (34.164) (HIJ)	0.640 $\pm$ 0.011 (23.536) (HIJ)	0.547 $\pm$ 0.022 (43.112) (LM)	0.586d $\pm$ 0.055 (32.875)
60	0.533 $\pm$ 0.027 (28.263) (MN)	0.462 $\pm$ 0.060 (52.024) (O)	0.490 $\pm$ 0.032 (42.457) (NO)	0.528 $\pm$ 0.135 (44.479) (MIN)	0.503e $\pm$ 0.0753 (42.382)
GENOTYPES MEANS	0.626c $\pm$ 0.115 (9.668)	0.732a $\pm$ 0.168 (-5.627)	0.714a $\pm$ 0.118 (-3.030)	0.693b $\pm$ 0.171	0.691 $\pm$ 0.149
(LSD=0.020 ; n=28)					

Metal stress reduced carotenoids contents (Table 3). Reduction in carotenoids contents might be attributed to activation of osmotic stress leading the biosynthesis of abscisic acid (ABA) by carotenoid cleavage catalyzed by a 9-cis epoxy carotenoid dioxygenase (NCED). Another possible reason for reduction in carotenoids contents might be biosynthesis of anthocyanins. The anthocyanins are synthesized during stress and interfere with carotenoids (Burger and Edwards, 1996). The experimental results revealed, as a general trend, reduction in nitrate reductase activity by metal stress (Table 4). Inhibition of NRA by metal might be caused either by reduction of biosynthesis enzyme or by suppression of activity of existing enzyme. Depolarization of NR thiol or SH groups by metal also reduces enzyme activity (Jones and Mhuimnechain 1995). It has been suggested that NR activity depends

upon active photosynthesis or products of photosynthesis as it requires photosynthetically generated reductant (NADH) and energy (Raghuram and Sopory 1995).

Reduced NRA may be attributed to reduced N contents availability to plant either due to shortage in soil or consumption by plant (Campbell 1999). Stress mediated decreased cytokinin levels might cause a reduction in nitrate reductase activity (Bueno et al 1994). Through Phosphorus limitation (Gniazdowska and Rychter 2000). Another reason for NRA might be due to reduced chlorophyll contents or reduced rate of photosynthesis (Rai et al 1992; Li et al. 2012; Zhang et al 2018). The experimental results revealed a gradual reduction in leaf area index with increasing concentration of metal (Table 5). Leaf area reduction can be due to growth inhibition

in metal treated plants (Ouariti and Ghorbal, 1997). Leaf growth reduction might be the result of low water

potential due to very negative solute potential in the soil solution (Hayward and Spurr, 1944).

Table 5. Leaf Area Index (LAI) of 45 days old mash (*Vigna mungo* (L.) Hepper) grown in chromium (III) supplemented soil (0, 10, 20, 30, 40 50 and 60mg/kg soil) (Values represent means  $\pm$  SE). Values in parentheses represent %age increase (+)/decrease (-) over untreated of row#1 or over MASH 80 for genotypes means. Values followed by dissimilar letters, are different at P = 0.05 among means of treatments and genotypes (lower case letter) as well as among interactions (upper case letters).

Chromium (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> soil)	MASH 80	MASH 88	MASH 97	MASH ES-1	TREATMENTS MEANS
		(LSD=34.79 ; n=4)			(LSD=17.393 ; n=16)
Control	401.957 $\pm$ 12.967 (ABC)	362.462 $\pm$ 13.717 (CDE)	447.702 $\pm$ 6.819 (AB)	429.642 $\pm$ 6.003 (ABC)	410.441b $\pm$ 34.487
10	381.375 $\pm$ 10.975 (5.369) (BCD)	421.377 $\pm$ 14.754 (-16.254) (ABC)	449.850 $\pm$ 23.829 (-0.479) (AB)	463.490 $\pm$ 6.982 (-7.878) (A)	429.023a $\pm$ 35.276 (-4.527)
20	301.787 $\pm$ 34.864 (25.030) (EFGH)	307.422 $\pm$ 13.670 (15.185) (CDE)	309.630 $\pm$ 19.615 (30.840) (EFG)	418.030 $\pm$ 13.275 (2.702) (ABC)	334.217c $\pm$ 53.842 (18.571)
30	290.52 $\pm$ 21.424 (24.920) (FGHI)	363.897 $\pm$ 33.022 (-0.384) (CDE)	287.690 $\pm$ 27.565 (35.740) (FGHI)	313.842 $\pm$ 28.829 (26.952) (DEF)	288.987d $\pm$ 31.012 (29.591)
40	267.355 $\pm$ 28.422 (7.723) (FGHI)	249.967 $\pm$ 28.425 (31.036) (FGHI)	263.34 $\pm$ 11.829 (41.101) (FGHI)	253.887 $\pm$ 24.070 (40.907) (FGHI)	258.637e $\pm$ 22.787 (36.985)
50	245.197 $\pm$ 14.083 (33.480) (FGHI)	242.267 $\pm$ 19.941 (33.160) (JHI)	251.845 $\pm$ 19.081 (43.747) (FGHI)	260.230 $\pm$ 28.350 (39.430) (FGHI)	249.885ef $\pm$ 20.091 (39.117)
60	243.377 $\pm$ 77.637 (38.999) (GHI)	233.627 $\pm$ 9.060 (35.544) (HI)	226.802 $\pm$ 16.358 (49.340) (I)	247.827 $\pm$ 12.767 (42.317) (FGHI)	237.908f $\pm$ 37.148 (42.036)
GENOTYPES MEANS $\rightarrow$	304.510c $\pm$ 67.758	297.288c $\pm$ 69.293 (2.371)	319.551b $\pm$ 88.408 (-4.939)	340.992a $\pm$ 89.694 (-11.980)	315.585 $\pm$ 80.156
	(LSD=13.148 ; n=28)				

Reduced cytokinin contents by metal might be responsible for growth reduction by inhibition of cell division and cell elongation. The results of the experiment indicated that plants could tolerate chromium up to 10 mg/kg soil as no toxicity was recorded at this concentration. These effects of chromium may simply be due to a dose dependent response of the seedlings where the low dose stimulates the growth while high dose suppresses the growth (Shah et al. 2008). The absence of effect at low concentration could be attributed to the fact that low dose of metal accumulates in roots than in the shoot and the effect is restricted to the root but not in the shoot (Selvam and Wong, 2008).

## REFERENCES

Ali, S., Bharwana, S.A., Rizwan, M., Farid, M., Kanwal, S., Ali, Q., Ibrahim, M., Gill, R.A., Khan, M.D. (2015). Fulvic acid mediates chromium (Cr) tolerance in wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) through lowering of Cr uptake

and improved antioxidant defense system. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 22:10601–10609.

Amin, H., Arain, B.A., Amin, F., Surhio, M.A. (2013). Phytotoxicity of chromium on germination, growth and biochemical attributes of *Hibiscus esculentus* L. *Am J Plant Sci* 4:720–726.

Amin, H., Arain, B.A., Amin, F., Surhio, M.A. (2014). Analysis of growth response and tolerance index of *Glycine max* (L.) Merr. under hexavalent chromium stress. *Adv Life Sci* 1:231–241.

Anjum, S.A., Ashraf, U., Khan, I., Tanveer, M., Shahid, M., Shakoob, A., Wang, L. (2017). Phyto-toxicity of chromium in maize: Oxidative damage, osmolyte accumulation, anti-oxidative defense and chromium uptake. *Pedosphere* 27:262–273.

Appenroth, K.J., Luther, A., Jetschke, G., Gabrys, H. (2008). Modification of chromate toxicity by sulphate in duckweeds (Lemnaceae). *Aquat Toxicol* 89:167–171.

- Arnon, D.I. (1949). Copper enzymes in isolated chloroplast. Polyphenoloxidase in *Beta vulgaris*. *Plant Physiol* 24: 1-15.
- Ashraf, A., Bibi, I., Niazi, N.K., Ok, Y.S., Murtaza, G., Shahid, M., Kunhikrishnan, A., Li, D., Mahmood, T. (2017). Chromium (VI) sorption efficiency of acid-activated banana peel over organo-montmorillonite in aqueous solutions. *Int J Phytorem* 19:605-613.
- Balal, R.M., Shahid, M.A., Vincent, C., Zotarelli, L., Liu, G., Mattson, N.S., Rathinasabapathi, B., Martinez-Nicolas, J.J., Garcia-Sanchez, F. (2017). Kinnow mandarin plants grafted on tetraploid rootstocks are more tolerant to Cr-toxicity than those grafted on its diploids one. *Enviro Exp Bot* 140:8-18.
- Bueno, M.S., Alonso, A., Villalobos, N. (1994). Nitrate reduction in cotyledons of *Cicer arietinum* L., regulatory role of cytokinins. *Plant Sci* 95: 117-124.
- Burger, J., Edwards, G.E. (1996). Photosynthetic efficiency, and photodamage by UV and visible radiation, in red versus green leaf coleus varieties. *Plant Cell Physiol* 37: 395-399.
- Campbell, W.H. (1999). Nitrate reductase structure, function and regulation: bridging the gap between biochemistry and physiology. *Ann Rev Plant Physiol Plant Mol Biol* 50: 277-303.
- CERCLA (2019). Priority List of Hazardous Substances Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry, USA. [(accessed on 20 September 2019)]; Available online: <https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/spl/>
- Cervantes, C., Campos-Garcia, J. (2007). *Molecular Microbiology of Heavy Metals*. Springer; Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: Reduction and efflux of chromate by bacteria; pp. 407-419.
- Cervantes, C., Campos-Garcia, J., Devars, S., Gutierrez-Corona, F., Loza-Tavera, H., Torres-Guzman, J.C., Moreno-Sanchez, R. (2001). Interactions of chromium with microorganisms and plants. *FEMS Microbiol Rev* 25:335-347.
- Chandra, P., Kulshreshtha, K. (2004). Chromium accumulation and toxicity in aquatic vascular plants. *Bot Rev* 70:313-327.
- De Oliveira, L.M., Gress, J., De, J., Rathinasabapathi, B., Marchi, G., Chen, Y., Ma, L.Q. (2016). Sulfate and chromate increased each other's uptake and translocation in As-hyperaccumulator *Pteris vittata*. *Chemosphere* 147:36-43.
- De Oliveira, L.M., Ma, L.Q., Santos, J.A., Guilherme, L.R., Lessl, J.T. (2014). Effects of arsenate, chromate, and sulfate on arsenic and chromium uptake and translocation by arsenic hyperaccumulator *Pteris vittata* L. *Environ Pollut* 184:187-192.
- Duncan, D. B. (1955). Multiple Range and Multiple F-Test. *Biometrics* 11: 1-42.
- Eleftheriou, E., Adamakis, I.D., Panteris, E., Fatsiou, M. (2015). Chromium-induced ultrastructural changes and oxidative stress in roots of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Int J Mol Sci* 16:15852-15871.
- Farooq, M., Ali, S., Hameed, A., Bharwana, S., Rizwan, M., Ishaque, W., Farid, M., Mahmood, K., Iqbal, Z. (2016). Cadmium stress in cotton seedlings: Physiological, photosynthesis and oxidative damages alleviated by glycinebetaine. *S. Afr J Bot* 104:61-68.
- Gniazdowska, A., Rychter, A.M. (2000). Nitrate uptake by bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) roots under phosphate deficiency. *Plant Soil* 226: 79-85.
- Hayat, S., Khalique, G., Irfan, M., Wani, A.S., Tripathi, B.N., Ahmad, A. (2012). Physiological changes induced by chromium stress in plants: An overview. *Protoplasma* 249:599-611.
- Hayward, H.E., Spurr, W.B. (1944). Effect of isosmotic concentrations of inorganic and organic substrates on entry of water into corn roots. *Bot Gaz* 106: 131-139.
- Islam, F., Yasmeen, T., Arif, M.S., Riaz, M., Shahzad, S.M., Imran, Q., Ali, I. (2016). Combined ability of chromium (Cr) tolerant plant growth promoting bacteria (PGPB) and salicylic acid (SA) in attenuation of chromium stress in maize plants. *Plant Physiol Biochem* 108:456-467.
- Jackson, M.L. (1962). *Soil Chemical analysis*. Constable and company, Ltd. England.
- James, A.D. (1981). *Legumes in United States*. Department of Agriculture, Beltsville, Maryland Plenum press New York.
- Jones, P., Mhuimhneachain, M.N. (1995). The activity and stability of wheat nitrate reductase in vitro. *Phytochem* 24: 385-392.
- Joutey, N.T., Sayel, H., Bahafid, W., El Ghachtouli, N. (2015). *Reviews of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*. Volume 233. Springer; Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: 2015. Mechanisms of hexavalent chromium resistance and removal by microorganisms. pp. 45-69.
- Kabata-Pendias, A., Szteke, B. (2015). *Trace Elements in Abiotic and Biotic Environments*. CRC Press; Boca Raton, FL, USA:
- Kamran, M., Eqani, S., Katsoyiannis, A., Xu, R., Bibi, S., Benizri, E., Chaudhary, H. (2017). Phytoextraction of chromium (Cr) and influence of *Pseudomonas putida* on *Eruca sativa* growth. *J Geochem Explor* 182:269-274.
- Kaur, R., Yadav, P., Sharma, A., Thukral, A.K., Kumar, V., Kohli, S.K., Bhardwaj, R. (2017). Castasterone and citric acid treatment restores photosynthetic attributes in *Brassica juncea* L. under Cd (II) toxicity. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* 145:466-475.
- Kaur, R., Yadav, P., Thukral, A.K., Sharma, A., Bhardwaj, R., Alyemini, M.N., Wijaya, L., Ahmad, P. (2018). Castasterone and citric acid supplementation alleviates cadmium toxicity by modifying antioxidants and organic acids in *Brassica juncea*. *J Plant Growth Regul* 37:286-299.
- Khan, I., Iqbal, M., Ashraf, M.Y., Ashraf, M., Ali, S.

- (2016). Organic chelants-mediated enhanced lead (Pb) uptake and accumulation is associated with higher activity of enzymatic antioxidants in spinach (*Spinacea oleracea* L.). *J Hazard Mater* 317:352–361.
- Khanna, K., Jamwal, V.L., Sharma, A., Gandhi, S.G., Ohri, P., Bhardwaj, R., Al-Huqail, A.A., Siddiqui, M.H., Ali, H.M., Ahmad, P. (2019). Supplementation with plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) alleviates cadmium toxicity in *Solanum lycopersicum* by modulating the expression of secondary metabolites. *Chemosphere* 230:628–639.
- Kohli, S.K., Handa, N., Sharma, A., Gautam, V., Arora, S., Bhardwaj, R., Alyemeni, M.N., Wijaya, L., Ahmad, P. (2018). Combined effect of 24-Epibrassinolide and salicylic acid mitigates lead (Pb) toxicity by modulating various metabolites in *Brassica juncea* L. seedlings. *Protoplasma* 255:11–24.
- Kumar, V., Parihar, R.D., Sharma, A., Bakshi, P., Sidhu, G.P.S., Bali, A.S., Karaouzas, I., Bhardwaj, R., Thukral, A.K., Gyasi-Agyei, Y. (2019). Global evaluation of heavy metal content in surface water bodies: A meta-analysis using heavy metal pollution indices and multivariate statistical analyses. *Chemosphere* 236:124364.
- Kumar, V., Sharma, A., Kaur, P., Sidhu, G.P.S., Bali, A.S., Bhardwaj, R., Thukral, A.K., Cerda, A. (2019). Pollution assessment of heavy metals in soils of India and ecological risk assessment: A state-of-the-art. *Chemosphere* 216:449–462.
- Kumari, V., Yadav, A., Haq, I., Kumar, S., Bharagava, R.N., Singh, S.K., Raj, A. (2016). Genotoxicity evaluation of tannery effluent treated with newly isolated hexavalent chromium reducing *Bacillus cereus*. *J Environ Manag* 183:204–211.
- Li, Y.C., Liang, L.L., Wang, Q.C. (2012). Influence of Pb on photosynthesis and chlorophyllorophyll fluorescence characteristics in *Pyrus ussuriensis* and *Malus baccata*. *J Northwest Forest Univ* 27: 21–25.
- Lichtenthaler, H.K. (1987). Chlorophyll and carotenoides; Pigments of photosynthetic biomembranes. *Methods in Enzymol* 148: 350 - 385.
- Lushchak, V.I. (2011). Adaptive response to oxidative stress: Bacteria, fungi, plants and animals. *Comp. Biochem. Physiol. Part C Toxicol. Pharmacol* 153:175–190.
- Ouariti, H. , Ghorbal, M.H. (1997). Responses of bean and tomato plants to cadmium, growth, mineral nutrition and nitrate reduction. *Plant Physiol Biochem* 35: 347 354.
- Prado, C., Chocobar, Ponce, S., Pagano, E., Prado, F.E., Rosa, M. (2016). Differential physiological responses of two *Salvinia* species to hexavalent chromium at a glance. *Aquat Toxicol* 175:213–221.
- Puttaswamy, S.S., Timmagowda, S., Krishnamurthy, K. (1976). Determination of leaf area in pulses. *Current Research* 5: 47
- Raghuram, N., Sopory, S.K. (1995). Light regulation of nitrate reductase gene expression mechanism and signal response coupling. *Physiol Mol Biol Plants* 1: 103–104.
- Rai, V., Tandon, P.K., Khatoon, S. (2014). Effect of chromium on antioxidant potential of *Catharanthus roseus* varieties and production of their anticancer alkaloids: Vincristine and vinblastine. *BioMed Res Int* pp:1–10.
- Rai, U.N., Tripathi, R.D., Kumar, K. (1992). Bioaccumulation of chromium and toxicity on growth, photosynthetic pigments, photosynthesis in vivo nitrate reductase activity and protein content in a chlorococcalean green alga *Glaucocystis ostochinearum*. *Chemosphere* 25, 721–732.
- Rajendran, M., An, W.H., Li, W.C., Perumal, V., Wu, C., Sahi, S.V., Sarkar, S.K. (2019). Chromium detoxification mechanism induced growth and antioxidant responses in vetiver (*Chrysopogon zizanioides* (L.) Roberty). *J Cent South Univ* 26:489–500.
- Reale, L., Ferranti, F., Mantilacci, S., Corboli, M., Aversa, S., Landucci, F., Baldisserotto, C., Ferroni, L., Pancaldi, S., Venanzoni, R. (2016). Cyto-histological and morpho-physiological responses of common duckweed (*Lemna minor* L.) to chromium. *Chemosphere* 145:98–105.
- Richards, L.A. (1954). Diagnosis and improvements of saline and alkali soils. *USDA Hand book No 60*, US Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC. p, 160.
- Santos, C., Rodriguez, E. Botany. (2012). InTech; Rijeka, Croatia Review on some emerging endpoints of chromium (VI) and lead phytotoxicity; pp. 61–82.
- Selvam, A., Wong, J.W.C. (2008). Phytochelation and synthesis and Cadmium uptake by *Brassica napus*. *Environ Technol* 29:765–773.
- Sen, S., (1996). *Economic Botany*. New Central Book Agency (Pvt.) Ltd. Calcutta, India. pp, 42–43.
- Shah, F.R., Ahmad, N., Masood, K.R., Zahid, D.M., (2008). The influence of Cd and Cr on the biomass production of *Shisham* (*Dalbergia sissoo* Roxb.) seedlings. *Pak J Bot* 40:1341–1348.
- Shahid, M., Shamshad, S., Rafiq, M., Khalid, S., Bibi, I., Niazi, N.K., Dumat, C., Rashid, M.I. (2017). Chromium speciation, bioavailability, uptake, toxicity and detoxification in soil-plant system: A review. *Chemosphere* 178:513–533.
- Shakoor, M.B., Ali, S., Hameed, A., Farid, M., Hussain, S., Yasmeen, T., Najeeb, U., Bharwana, S.A., Abbasi, G.H. (2014). Citric acid improves lead (Pb) phytoextraction in *Brassica napus* L. by mitigating Pb-induced morphological and biochemical damages. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* 109:38–47.
- Shanker, A.K., Cervantes, C., Loza-Tavera, H., Avudainayagam, S. (2005). Chromium toxicity in plants. *Environ Int* 31:739–753.
- Sharma, A., Kumar, V., Shahzad, B., Ramakrishnan,

- M., Sidhu, G.P.S., Bali, A.S., Handa, N., Kapoor, D., Yadav, P., Khanna, K. (2019). Photosynthetic Response of Plants Under Different Abiotic Stresses: A Review. *J Plant Growth Regul* 38:1–23.
- Sharma, A., Kapoor, D., Wang, J., Shahzad, B., Kumar, V., Bali, AD., Jasrotia, S., B.,
- Sinha, S., Saxena, R., Singh, S. (2005). Chromium induced lipid peroxidation in the plants of *Pistia stratiotes* L.: Role of antioxidants and antioxidant enzymes. *Chemosphere* 58:595–604.
- Stambulska, U.Y., Bayliak, M.M., Lushchak, V.I. (2018). Chromium (VI) toxicity in legume plants: Modulation effects of rhizobial symbiosis. *BioMed Res Int* pp:1–13.
- Stoeva, N., Bineva, T. (2003). Oxidative changes and photosynthesis in oat plants grown in contaminated soil. *Bulg J Plant Physiol* 29: 87–95.
- Sym, G.J. (1983). Optimization of the in vivo assay conditions for nitrate reductase in barley. *J Sci Food Agric* 35: 725–730.
- Tang, J., Xu, J., Wu, Y., Li, Y., Tang, Q. (2012). Effects of high concentration of chromium stress on physiological and biochemical characters and accumulation of chromium in tea plant (*Camellia sinensis*. L.) *Afr J Biotechnol* 11:2248–2255.
- Tchounwou, P.B., Yedjou, C.G., Patlolla, A.K., Sutton, D.J. (2012). *Molecular, Clinical and Environmental Toxicology*. Springer; Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: Heavy metal toxicity and the environment; pp. 133–164.
- UdDin, I., Bano, A., Masood, S. (2015). Chromium toxicity tolerance of *Solanum nigrum* L. and *Parthenium hysterophorus* L. plants with reference to ion pattern, antioxidation activity and root exudation. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* 113:271–278.
- Valko, M., Rhodes, C., Moncol, J., Izakovic, M., Mazur, M. (2006). Free radicals, metals and antioxidants in oxidative stress-induced cancer. *Chem Biol Interact* 160:1–40.
- Yuan, H., Yan, D. (2020). Chromium Bioaccumulation and Its Impacts on Plants: An Overview. *Plants (Basel)* 9: 100
- Zou, J., Yu, K., Zhang, Z., Jiang, W., Liu, D. (2009). Antioxidant response system and chlorophyll fluorescence in chromium (VI) treated *Zea mays* L. seedlings. *Acta Biol Crac Ser Bot* 51:23–33.