INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF AGRICULTURE & BIOLOGY ISSN Print: 1560–8530; ISSN Online: 1814–9596 20–0478/2020/24–4–987–994 DOI: 10.17957/IJAB/15.1525 http://www.fspublishers.org



Full Length Article

# Physiological and Biochemical Responses of *Calotropis procera* to Traffic Related Cadmium Pollution along Roadside

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Received 25 March 2020; Accepted 15 May 2020; Published 16 August 2020

# Abstract

The vehicles as a source of metal pollution have tremendous adverse effects on flora and fauna. Automobiles have recently increased the concentration of metal pollutants in urban areas and along the highway. This study determined the concentration of cadmium (Cd) released from the transport sector and its negative effects on *Calotropis procera* L. were determined along two major roads with diverse traffic volume *i.e.*, Faisalabad to Gojra Motorway (M-4) and Gojra-Jhang Road (GJR) Punjab, Pakistan. Significant inhibitory changes were noted in the photosynthetic and transpiration rates of *C. procera* leaves along roads. Similarly, chlorophyll *a*, *b*, total chlorophyll and carotenoids were also significantly lower. Whereas, hydrogen peroxide, malondialdehyde, and total phenolic contents exhibited a stimulatory response. The Cd concentration ( $2.26 \pm 0.40$ ) in leaves of *C. procera* and soil ( $5.19 \pm 0.30$ ) remained higher along Gojra-Jhang road compared to Faisalabad-Gojra motorway. The Cd concentration was positively correlated indicative of having a strong contribution of vehicular traffic load. The correlation of different physiological and biochemical characteristics of plant with traffic load was significant that suggested the direct impact of vehicle exhaust on *C. procera* and showed the high tendency of plants to survive under metal-contaminated environment along roads. © 2020 Friends Science Publishers

Keywords: Cadmium; Photosynthetic pigments; Malondialdehyde; Phenolic contents; Traffic load

# Introduction

The transport sector has become a major cause of metal pollution along the roadside (Mori *et al.* 2015) because it has adverse effects on plants and other living beings (Singh and Kalamdhad 2011; Showkat *et al.* 2019). Traffic released pollution influences public health as asthma, lung cancer and pulmonary related respiratory diseases (Marino *et al.* 2015; Kim *et al.* 2018). Traffic-related emissions include hydrocarbons, sulfur dioxide, particulate matter, nitrogen oxides and metal contaminants (Bhandarkar 2013; Deng *et al.* 2018).

These vehicles released pollutants are the primary contributor to pollution in the surrounding environment (Sujatha 2017) and are shown a tremendous impact on the flora and fauna (Khalid *et al.* 2017). Metal pollutants mainly enter the plants through root uptake mechanism. Plants consistently exposed to contamination and the brunt of automobile metal pollution by absorbing it at their foliar surface (Sarma *et al.* 2017; Khalid *et al.* 2018). These metals ultimate uptakes by plants and interrupts the food chain (Butt *et al.* 2018). Moreover, plants suffer deformities triggered by the metal pollutants and show metabolic changes. Hence due

to this ability, plant proves as phytomonitor in the polluted environment and helps to attenuate the pollution (Cox 2003; Verma and Chandra 2014).

Cadmium (Cd) is a non-biodegradable and nonessential metal pollutant that adversely affects the metabolic process of plants even at its low level (Benavides et al. 2005). It is known as an effective contaminant due to its high toxicity and superior solubility in water (Orisakwe 2012). It is released from moving automobiles in and around the roadside (Adedeji et al. 2013). However, the unabated moving of large numbers of vehicles on roads can, therefore, lead to elevated levels of these pollutants in the plants and soil (Wekpe et al. 2019). These metallic Cd precipitated on the soil surrounding roads cause serious ecological hazards (Hashim et al. 2017). Li et al. (2018) found changes in physio-biochemical attributes of turnip leaves under Cd toxicity. Kapoor et al. (2014) also noted changes in physiobiochemical of Brassica juncea leaves under Cd stress. The Cd toxicity induced oxidative stress which damaged photosynthetic pigments and also causes physiological malfunctioning of plant (Irfan et al. 2013). Some plant species have been previously used for phytomonitoring of vehicular pollution along roadside include Juglans regia,

To cite this paper: Batool H, M Hussain, M Hameed, R Ahmad (2020). Physiological and biochemical responses of *Calotropis procera* to traffic related cadmium pollution along roadside. *Intl J Agric Biol* 24:987–994

*Cydonia oblanga*, and *Celtis australis* (Colak *et al.* 2016; Ozturk *et al.* 2017).

Of all the non-essential heavy metals, Cd is the metal which has attracted more attention in soil science and plant nutrition due to its potential toxicity to human beings, and also its relative movement in the soil-plant system. Therefore, the objectives were to determine the (1) spatial variation in Cd concentration in leaves of *C. procera* and soil along two roads (2) tremendous adverse effects on physiological and biochemical characteristics of most important bio-indicator plant species *Calotropis procera* (Aiton) W. T. Aiton commonly called apple of sodom.

## **Materials and Methods**

#### **Description of sites**

Two roads viz., (1) a section Faisalabad-Gojra Motorway-4 (M-4) and (2) Gojra-Jhang Road (GJR) connecting Gojra to Jhang were selected for phytomonitoring of vehicular released Cd pollution and its effects on C. procera (Fig. 1). Eight sampling locations were selected on two roads at a distance of ~15 km between them. The roads varying in condition, traffic types and traffic volume. Motorway-4 newly constructed a section (58 km) of the road which directly joined Faisalabad to Gojra however, different types of field crops surrounds this section. Gojra headquarter linked to the Jhang district through Gojra-Jhang Road, the age of this road is about 100 years and have vehicle load about four times higher than that of M-4 road which is only four years old. Control site was also selected (50 m) away from the roads. The research project was conducted during the warm season (32°C).

#### Description of plant and soil samples

The *C. procera* plant was selected for phytomonitoring of metal pollution on the roadside. Triplicate matures leaves randomly were collected from the top, middle and bottom of the plant at each experimental site. Leaves surface was not washed after sampling to arrest all impurities. Three soil samples were collected from 0–10 cm depth at each study site. Control samples (leaves and soil) were also collected from 50 m away from the roads (Subramani and Devaanandan 2015; Khalid *et al.* 2018; Hadayat *et al.* 2019).

## Samples digestion and analysis

Before the analysis the dried plant and soil samples (0.5 g) was processed using HNO<sub>3</sub>/HCLO<sub>4</sub> acid digestion on the hot plate to determine their cadmium (Cd) concentration (USEPA 1996). Atomic absorption spectrophotometer (Hitachi, 8200 Japan) was used to determine Cd concentration. 1,000 mg/L Cd stock solution was used for calibration and quality assurance. Standard and blank were analyzed after every 20 samples to monitor the stability of

the apparatus. Highly pure acids and distilled  $H_2O$  used for making a blank sample.

#### Gas exchange parameters

Transpiration (*E*) and photosynthetic (*A*) rates were noted from the leaves of *C. procera* using infrared gas analyzer (LCA-4, Portable Analytical Development Company (ADC), Hoddeson, England).

## **Chlorophyll contents**

The chlorophyll and carotenoid pigments were determined by using the protocol (Arnon 1949; Davis 1979) respectively. The chlorophyll from leaf sample was extracted with precooled 80% acetone solution. The leaf extract was centrifuged (1000 rpm) and separated the supernatant. Spectrophotometer model IRMECO U2020 was used to measure the optical density at wavelengths 663, 645 and 480 nm.

## Hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)

Hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$  was estimated by the TCA reaction (Velikova *et al.* 2000). The leaves were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen (-210°C) and directly homogenized with trichloroacetic acid (TCA). After centrifugation, the resulting supernatant was rapidly mixed with phosphate buffer 0.5 mL and 1 mL potassium iodide solution. Samples were left to incubate at room temperature. The absorbance was taken at 390 nm on a spectrophotometer. A standard curve obtained with  $H_2O_2$  standard solutions depicted as  $\mu$ mol/g.

## Malondialdehyde (MDA)

The MDA content was measured in leaf sample extracted with trichloroacetic acid (TCA). After centrifugation, the separated supernatant (1 mL) was mixed with (2.5 mL) thiobarbituric acid (TBA) with TCA and incubated in a water bath (Ali *et al.* 2005). Subsequently, cooled the mixture immediately and the optical density was noted at 532 and 600 nm on a spectrophotometer. The MDA concentration was measured by the following formula, using an absorbance coefficient of extinction (155000 nmol mL<sup>-1</sup>) as.

$$MDA = [A532 - A600)/155000] \times 10^{6}$$

## Total phenolic contents (TPC)

The fresh leaf sample was extracted with 80% aqueous acetone solution. The supernatant (100  $\mu$ L) was mixed immediately with Folin-Ciocalteu reagent 0.5 mL and added 2 mL of 20% sodium carbonate solution (Julkunen-Tiitto 1985). Optical density was taken at 750 nm on a spectrophotometer. The total phenolic content was depicted

as mg of gallic acid/g sample.

$$TPC = C/Vm$$

#### Traffic density

Traffic density was noted to correlate it Cd concentration accumulated in the plant and the soil from toll plaza present on M-4 and GJR roads.

## Statistical analysis

The data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA (Statistix 8.0). For means comparison, LSD (5%) test was used. Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated between Cd concentration and traffic density. Average and standard error values were calculated for graphical presentation by using MS-Excel 2016.

#### Results

The Cd pollution from vehicles origin varied significantly (P < 0.001) both in leaves of C. procera and in the soil of different sites along M-4 and GJR roads (Table 1). Two-way analysis (ANOVA) revealed significant variations for Cd concentration between roads (F = 249.1, P < 0.001; F = 3107.9, P < 0.001) and among sites (F =82.59, P < 0.001; F = 1390.5, P < 0.001) both in leaves of C. procera and soil respectively (Table 1 and Fig. 2a). The higher Cd concentration was accumulated along the roadside compared to control. The leaves and soil along GJR road trapped the highest concentration of Cd compared to M-4 road (Fig. 2a). The higher traffic volume was recorded on GJR road compared to M-4 road (Fig. 2b). The Cd concentration in the roadside plant leaves and the soil were higher at Gojra Interchange (GI) site along with M-4 road and Forest Park (FP) site on GJR road. Strong positive correlation (P < 0.1) was observed between Cd concentration accumulated in the soil and traffic density. Also, strong positive correlation (M-4, P < 0.1; GJR, P < 0.05) was found between Cd concentration get accumulated in leaves of C. procera and traffic volume (Table 2).

According to ANOVA, a significant reduction (roads, P < 0.001; sites, P < 0.001) was observed in photosynthetic and transpiration rates of C. procera leaves at various experimental sites along two roads (Table 1). Along M-4, the highest reduction in photosynthetic  $(7.71 \pm 0.44)$  and transpiration rates  $(1.09 \pm 0.07)$  was recorded at Gojra (GI) site. The highest reduction Interchange in photosynthetic rate  $(2.63 \pm 0.28)$  and transpiration rate (0.53) $\pm$  0.07) was noted at Forest Park (FP) site on GJR road (Fig. 3). Strong negative correlation was analyzed between gas exchange attributes as photosynthetic rate (r = -0.94, P <0.05; r = -0.91, P < 0.05) and transpiration rate (r = -0.781ns; r = -0.93, P < 0.05) in C. procera and traffic volume along M-4 and GJR roads respectively (Table 2).



**Fig. 1:** Map showing **a**). Pakistan **b**). Sites along Faisalabad-Gojra Motorway (M-4) and Gojra-Jhang Road (GJR) roads where, (1) Sargodha Road Intergange (SRI); (2) Amin Pur Interchange (API); (3) Pansara Interchange (PI);(4) Gojra Interchange (GI); (5) Boback Chowk (BC); (6) Chak Adda (CA); (7) Forest Park (FP); (8) Shabir Abad (SA).



**Fig. 2:** (a). Box and whisker plot for Cd concentrations in *C. procera* leaves and in the soil along M-4 and GJR roads. (b). Traffic density (no. of vehicles per/day) at various sites on M-4 and GJR roads

The highly significant reduction between roads (F = 38.70, P < 0.001; F =15.95, P < 0.001; F = 66.23, P < 0.001; F = 30.24, P < 0.001) and among sites (F = 173.7, P < 0.001; F = 88.68, P < 0.001; F = 313.4, P < 0.001; F = 25.76, P < 0.001) was noted for chlorophyll *a*, *b*, total chlorophyll and carotenoids respectively on both roads (Table 1). Along GJR road, chlorophyll *a*, *b*, total chlorophyll and carotenoid contents in leaves of *C. procera* were significantly lower (Fig. 4a–d). However, along GJR road minimum chlorophyll *a* (0.314 ± 0.000), *b* (0.287 ± 0.004) and total chlorophyll

**Table 1:** Two way-ANOVA (F-ratio) for cadmium (Cd) concentration (mg/kg) in leaves, soil and phytochemicals in leaves of *C*. *procera* along both M-4 and GJR roads

Source	Cd-Leaves	Cd-Soil	Chl. a (mg	Chl. b (mg	T. Chl. (mg	Car. (mg g <sup>-1</sup>	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (µmol	MDA (mmolml <sup>-1</sup>	TPC (mg	$A (\mu mol$	E (mmol
	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	g <sup>-1</sup> f. wt.)	g <sup>-1</sup> f. wt.)	g <sup>-1</sup> f. wt.)	f. wt.)	g <sup>-1</sup> f. wt.)	f. wt.)	g <sup>-1</sup> f. wt.)	$CO_2 m^{-2} S^{-1}$ )	$H_2O m^{-2} S^{-1}$ )
Road	249.1***	3107.6***	38.70***	15.95***	66.23***	30.24***	0.11ns	2.03ns	18.85 ***	133.05***	18.72***
Site	82.59***	1390.5***	173.7***	88.68***	313.4***	25.76***	49.10***	2.92*	28.58 ***	34.50***	40.72***
Road×site	25.13***	203.8***	29.49***	3.601*	31.97***	6.759**	7.76***	2.95 *	9.052***	9.64***	1.58ns
Non significant $= ns$ significant $* = P < 0.05$ significant $** = P < 0.01$ significant $** = P < 0.001$ Attributes presented as Cd Leaves: cadmium concentration in leaves: Cd											

Non-significant =  $n_s$ , significant \* = P < 0.05, significant \*\* = P < 0.01, significant \*\* = P < 0.001. Authoutes presented as Ca-Leaves; cadmium concentration in leaves, Ca-Soil; cadmium concentration in soil, Chl. *a*; chlorophyll *a*, Chl. *b*; chlorophyll *b*, T. Chl.; total chlorophyll, Car.; carotenoids, TPC; total phenolics content, MDA; malondialdehyde,  $H_2O_2$ ; hydrogen peroxide

Tabl	e 2:	Correlati	on of t	raffic v	olume	on M-	4 and	GJR	roads v	vith	Cd	content	and	phyto	chemical	İs
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Traffic volume	Cd-leaves	Cd-soil	Chl. a	Chl. b	T. Chl.	Car.	$H_2O_2$	MDA	TPC	Α	Ε
M-4	0.834*	0.857*	-0.923**	-0.767ns	-0.875*	-0.897**	0.844*	0.799ns	0.845*	-0.948**	-0.781ns
GJR	0.880 **	0.833*	-0.948**	-0.744ns	-0.878*	-0.474ns	0.729ns	0.900**	0.815*	-0.917**	-0.932**

Significant \* = P < 0.1, significant \*\* = P < 0.05. Attributes presented as Cd-Leaves; cadmium concentration in leaves, Cd-Soil; cadmium concentration in soil, Chl. *a*; chlorophyll *a*, Chl. *b*; chlorophyll *b*, T. Chl.; total chlorophyll, Car.; carotenoids, TPC; total phenolics content, MDA; malondialdehyde, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>; hydrogen peroxide



**Fig. 3:** Gas exchange parameters **a**). Photosynthetic rate (*A*) **b**). Transpiration rate (*E*) at various sites on M-4 and GJR roads. Abbreviations: Faisalabad-Gojra Motorway (M-4) and Gojra-Jhang Road (GJR) roads where, Control (Con), Sargodha Road Intergange (SRI), Amin Pur Interchange (API), Pansara Interchange (PI), Gojra Interchange (GI), Boback Chowk (BC), Chak Adda (CA), Forest Park (FP), Shabir Abad (SA)

(0.602 ± 0.004) were recorded at the Forest Park (FP) site whereas, carotenoid contents (0.690 ± 0.129) was lower at the Chak Aadda (CA) site (Fig. 4a–d). Of all the studied sites along M-4 road, the higher reduction in chlorophyll *a* (0.359 ± 0.03), *b* (0.437 ± 0.046), total chlorophyll (0.797 ± 0.083) and carotenoid contents (0.545 ± 0.08) were found at the Gojra Interchange (GI) site (Fig 4). However, a strong negative correlation was found between traffic volume and chlorophyll a (for both roads P < 0.05), chlorophyll b (M-4, GJR=ns), total chlorophyll (M-4, P < 0.1; GJR, P < 0.05) and carotenoid contents (M-4, P < 0.05; GJR=ns) (Table 2).

Due to Cd toxicity, the levels of ROS increased which damaged the membranes of cellular organelles and enhanced the accumulation of malondialdehyde byproduct in leaves of *C. procera.* In this study, we analyzed the localization of



**Fig. 4:** Photosynthetic pigments **a**). Chlorophyll *a* (Chl. *a*), **b**). Chlorophyll *b* (Chl. *b*) **c**). Total chlorophyll (T. Chl.) and **d**). Carotenoids (Car.) at various sites on M-4 and GJR roads. Abbreviations: Faisalabad-Gojra Motorway (M-4) and Gojra-Jhang Road (GJR) roads where, Control (Con), Sargodha Road Intergange (SRI), Amin Pur Interchange (API), Pansara Interchange (PI), Gojra Interchange (GI), Boback Chowk (BC), Chak Adda (CA), Forest Park (FP), Shabir Abad (SA)

hydrogen peroxide in leaves of *C. procera* growing near the roads (Fig. 5b). The analysis of variance showed insignificant variation for hydrogen peroxide between roads (F =0.108, ns) but we found significant variation among sites (F = 49.10, P < 0.001). Whereas, the level of malondialdehyde also showed insignificant differences for roads (F = 2.030, ns), and significant among sites (F =



**Fig. 5:** Oxidative stress and antioxidant **a**). Total phenolics content (TPC), **b**). Hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$  **c**). Malondialdehyde (MDA) at various sites on M-4 and GJR roads. Abbreviations: Faisalabad-Gojra Motorway (M-4) and Gojra-Jhang Road (GJR) roads where, Control (Con), Sargodha Road Intergange (SRI), Amin Pur Interchange (API), Pansara Interchange (PI), Gojra Interchange (GI), Boback Chowk (BC), Chak Adda (CA), Forest Park (FP), Shabir Abad (SA)

2.916, P < 0.05, Fig. 5c). Due to oxidative state in leaves of *C. procera* total phenolic contents was significantly higher (Table 1). The maximum accumulation of hydrogen peroxide (2.684 ± 0.551) was noted at the Gojra Interchange (GI) site on M-4. Along GJR the highest level of hydrogen peroxide (2.149 ± 0.003) in *C. procera* leaves (Fig. 5b). The highest malondialdehyde accumulation was seen at Gojra Interchange (GI) (1.30 ± 0.551) and Chak Aadda (CA) (1.31 ± 0.527) on M-4 and GJR roads respectively.

The non-enzymatic antioxidant as total phenolic contents (39.20  $\pm$  1.34; 41.98  $\pm$  1.88) was found the maximum at the Gojra Interchange (GI) and Forest Park (FP) sites along both M-4 and GJR roads respectively (Fig. 5a). There was also a positive correlation with traffic density for total phenolics contents (M-4, GJR=P < 0.1), malondialdehyde (M-4, P < 0.1; GJR=ns) and hydrogen peroxide (M-4=ns; GJR, P < 0.05) (Table 2).

## Discussion

Plant respond to environmental stress and environmental pollution is leading factor that exerted stress on plant. In this regard, physio-biochemical characteristics such as photosynthetic, transpiration rates, photosynthetic pigments, hydrogen peroxide, malondialdehyde and total phenolic contents are used as reliable indicators of Cd toxicity in plants. Vehicles as a remarkable source of Cd pollutants near the road environment (Zheng 2017) which drastically changed the physio-biochemical characteristics of flora (Verma and Chandra 2014) and can deposit more metal concentration in the soil through foliar action (Modrzewska and Wyszkowski 2014). Moreover, Cd emission along the roadside is mainly from lubricants and greases used in vehicles and tire wear (Massadeh *et al.* 2004).

The extent of Cd was noted above the allowable limits recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO) for plants (0.02 mg/kg) and according to the Dutch Standard i.e., 0.8 mg/kg for soil (WHO 1996). Ogundele et al. (2015) found Cd pollutants in plants and soil of various sites between (0.028-4.00 mg/kg) and (0.00-0.366 mg/kg)respectively. This may be due to heavy traffic running on both roads which continuously, distributes the Cd toxicity in roadside soil (Zhang et al. 2012; Colak et al. 2016) and plants get accumulate it both through their uptake (Ismael et al. 2019) and foliar mechanisms deposit on the plant leaf surface (Shahid et al. 2017; Sulaiman and Hamzah 2018). The metal contaminants come from various types of activities related to the automobile on roads. For example, abrasion of body parts, wear and tear of tires and vehicles paints etc. (Adamiec et al. 2016). The greater concentration along GJR road compared to M-4 might be related to heavy traffic, uneven road surface and types of vehicles and age of road (~100 years), of GJR. As the age of road has directly linked with metal pollution (Wang and Zhang 2018).

The metals deposited in the soil near roadside suggest the contribution of traffic volume (Wang and Zhang 2018; Szwalec et al. 2020). Likely, metal accumulation differs depending upon traffic volume in some plants have been reported in C. procera (Tiwari 2016; Hadayat et al. 2019) and Tilia tomentosa (Turkyilmaz et al. 2018). Several previous reports are available which indicate the Cd concentration was high near the road edge (Krailertrattanachai et al. 2019). The Cd concentrations found in C. procera plant and roadside soil were affected by vehicular load. The primary source of metal contamination was strongly associated with automobiles (Adedeji et al. 2013; Rozanski et al. 2017; Ahmad et al. 2018; Khalid et al. 2018).

Pearson correlation indicated that Cd contamination was highly correlated with vehicle density of two roads. Previous studies also reported a significant association between metal concentration and vehicles density (Hu *et al.* 2018). Some scientists also found a significant association between metal ions and the number of passing vehicles (Arslan 2001; Alhassan *et al.* 2012). Sulaiman and Hamzah (2018) reported a positive association of metal concentration with traffic load in Malaysia. In this study the physio-phytochemical response of *C. procera* plant under the influence of Cd toxicity related to vehicular emission along both roads was also observed. During this phytomonitoring, a decrease in gas exchange features *i.e.*, photosynthetic and transpiration rates of *C. procera* was found. Some findings in

line with the previous researchers, for example, Nawazish *et al.* (2012) reported transpiration and photosynthetic rates decreased in various wild plant species due to metal toxicity along the roadside. Likewise, Hadayat *et al.* (2019) noted the decreased trend in gas exchange attributes *i.e.*, photosynthetic and transpiration rates of plant due to roadside contamination.

The photosynthetic rate decreased at the roadside because metal pollutants interact with metabolic processes in the leaves of plants (Nawazish et al. 2012). These metal pollutants released from automobiles block the stomata, leading to a shortage of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) thus it arrests photosynthetic carbon assimilation and reduces transpiration rate in the plants (Anjum et al. 2016). The general reduction of physiological attributes was noted in various plant species as a response of vehicular released pollution on roads S. Japonica (Bao et al. 2015), Cenchrus ciliaris (Nawazish et al. 2012), and L. speciose (Singh et al. 2017). The Cd toxicity adversely affected chlorophyll pigments along the roadside compared to a reference plant in this investigation. Photosynthesis is greatly sensitive to any changes in the environment and the reduction of chlorophyll content has a direct link with the growth and vigor of the plant (Kalaji et al. 2018). The main target of Cd toxicity is the inhibition of enzymes involved in photosynthesis (Joshi and Mohanty 2004; Hassan et al. 2016; Song et al. 2019). However, the metal pollutants may destroy chloroplast apparatus by interfering with photosynthetic enzymes and damage the membrane of the chloroplast and therefore can inhibit the photosynthetic process in the plant leaves (Parmar et al. 2013). Considerable decrease in chlorophyll pigments of some plant species, for example, Urginea maritima (Houri et al. 2019) and Mangifera indica (Uka et al. 2019), due to the roadside vehicular metal pollution has been already noted. Previous work supported present study results that chlorophyll contents of various roadside plants were affected with automobiles emission (Iqbal et al. 2015; Shiragave et al. 2015).

Oxidative stress occurs in response to metal pollution and releases the ROS in plant tissues *i.e.*, hydrogen peroxide, singlet oxygen, hydroxyl radical, etc. which is one of the important responses of the plant to stress condition. So, boost the production of these species from metal toxicity causes oxidative stress (Kohli et al. 2017). ROS play a role as a secondary messenger in various cellular activities (Berni et al. 2019). Higher levels of hydrogen peroxide along both M-4 and GJR roads were found. Cells exposed to oxidative stress show toxicity symptoms. This is because of the interaction with ROS (Shahid et al. 2014). Under metal pollution production of ROS results in lipid peroxidation, damages to protein, DNA and carbohydrates. A well-known secondary product like MDA of lipid peroxidation is produced due to stress of ROS (Muszynska et al. 2019). Significant production of MDA content was recorded in the metal treated plants, indicative of maximal cell membrane

damage (Alfanie *et al.* 2015). As antioxidants in plants play a defense role in oxidative stress under metal pollution (Afzal *et al.* 2014). These defense systems work jointly to control the oxidative stress (Shahid *et al.* 2014; Sharma *et al.* 2019).

Recently, it has been examined that flavonoids, phenylopropanoids and phenolic acids have a potential role in the antioxidative ability of plants as compared to other antioxidants (Michalak 2006). Phenolic compounds acknowledged as metal chelators when exposed to heavy metals. Moreover, phenolics directly scavenge ROS. Phenolics compounds have multiple roles in respect to an adaptive measure of plants to the environmental stress (Boscaiu et al. 2010). Phenolics are the most important secondary metabolites and involved in the physiological process of plants (Kumar et al. 2019). In present work, the phenolic contents were enhanced in C. procera growing around both roads under Cd toxicity. The finding supports our results, for example, Olivares (2003) found the increased level of phenolics compound in Tithonia diversifolia due to metal toxicity along the roadside.

The significant negative correlation found between photosynthetic, transpiration rates, chlorophyll a, total chlorophyll and carotenoids, with traffic volume along both of the studied roads indicated that increase the negative impacts on C. procera probably due to vehicles emission on roads. Similarly, the positive correlation between hydrogen peroxide, malondialdehyde and phenolics contents with traffic volume on both roads. However, the insignificant between physio-biochemical correlations various characteristics of C. procera with traffic density existed on M-4 and GJR might be due to a slight difference in traffic volume resulting to same or different metal concentration at sites over there (Khalid et al. 2017).

# Conclusion

In this study increased level of Cd pollutants were noted in *C. procera* leaves and soil along M-4 and GJR roads. Due to the Cd toxicity, inhibitory effects were noted in photosynthetic pigments, photosynthetic and transpiration rates with an elevated level of hydrogen peroxide, malondialdehyde as well as phenolic contents in *C. procera* at several different sites proximal to the roads. The results show that roadside Cd pollution induces changes in physio-biochemical aspects of *C. procera* which helps it in maintaining stressed conditions, thus, supporting its hyper-accumulating potential.

# Acknowledgments

The work presented here was conducted by the author Ms. Hina Batool for the fulfillment of her PhD. (Botany) Dissertation. Also, acknowledged the Central High-Tech Lab of Agriculture University, Faisalabad, Pakistan for analysis of heavy metal.

## **Author Contributions**

Hina Batool executed the research and made the write-up, Mumtaz Hussain planned the research and analyzed the data, Mansoor Hameed reviewed the article, Rashid Ahmed planned the research.

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