

DEVELOPING SUSTAINABLE MEASURES TO RESTORE FLY ASH CONTAMINATED LANDS: CURRENT CHALLENGES AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

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Abstract

Land degradation is one of the major global environmental issues that need serious attention. The land itself is a complex system regulating myriads of processes and perturbation in anyone these would certainly lead to the stimulation of land degradation. Among these, fly ash (FA) dumping is one of the common-practices, which has been adopted to overcome land-use disruption and other health hazards. However, this practice has become a driving factor for FA-induced land degradation. Therefore, in purview to tackle this issue, the present article is aimed to identify and suggest plausible sustainable practices to restore and manage FA contaminated sites. It preliminarily deals with the systematic exploration and identification of FA-based and associated contaminated lands via geospatial technology with a brief focus on monitoring its different contaminant profiles in the FA and soil systems. Moreover, the article emphasizes identifying the potential local plant species in the FA-contaminated regions to understand the local people's demands. Following this, it would suggest the major sustainable approaches to expedite the restoration of FA contaminated lands along with the key highlights of their bottlenecks, while the ground implementation. Nevertheless, the article aimed to unravel the recommended prospects to

26 address those bottlenecks to develop an efficient restoration enterprise during the Decade on
27 Ecosystem Restoration (2021-2030).

28

29 Keywords: Land degradation, Ecological restoration, Fly ash management, Sustainable measures,
30 UN-SDGs.

31

32 **1. INTRODUCTION**

33 With the advent of industrial revolution, human beings has escalated the exploitation of fossil fuels
34 including the coal extraction from the mother earth. Subsequently, the coal production has been
35 raised from 3.55 billion tons in the 1978 to 7.81 billion tons in 2018 (www.iea.org). Recent
36 updates about coal production by major countries are mention in Figure 1. The demands of
37 growing worldwide human population can be viewed from that around 40% of global electricity is
38 derived via the coal-based combustion process (Smith et al., 2013). As a result, the process leads
39 to flyash (FA) generation, which is aby-product of the coal combustion andits total production is
40 about 750 million tons year⁻¹ globally (Blissett and Rowson, 2012). The composition of FA
41 depends on the mode and stage of coalcombustion, and coal quality (NRC, 2006). Thus, FA
42 contains several types of compounds, which is hazardous to the environment and human health. It
43 contains oxides of metals (i.e., silica, ferric, calcium, zinc, etc.), micro and macro elements (K, P,
44 Mg, Cd, Hg, Pb Se, and As, etc.), and organic compounds such as PAHs and PCBs (Blissett and
45 Rowson, 2012). Besides, toxic heavy metals and organic pollutants, FA also possesses the
46 presence of various radioactive elements, which makes it hazardous at higher levels. Therefore, it
47 has been suggested to utilize the FA to reduce its amount before dumping and land filling.
48 However, only about 26% of FA is utilized via the formation of bricks, road, etc., in few
49 developing and developed nations (Blissett and Rowson, 2012).Subsequently, during its
50 mismanaged disposal, the land gets contaminated thereby raising serious concern at the local,
51 regional as well as national scale. Therefore, it is the need of the hour to remove the noxious

52 nature of FA immediately via suggestive and feasible approaches and developing the FA-
53 contaminated lands (FA-CL) into revitalized state. Moreover, the restoration of degraded and
54 contaminated lands is of prime significance of various international agencies and global initiatives
55 have been formulated such as UN- Sustainable Development Goals (UN-SDGs) and Bonn
56 Challenge. Considering these initiatives, about 350 million ha (Mha) of degraded lands is under
57 target to bring under restoration by 2030 (www.sdg.un.org). Natural grown vegetation and
58 indigenous plant species (IPS) can survive, restore the contaminated land and enable the
59 sustainable management of FA-CL.

60 There are ample shreds of evidence, which suggest that diversified strategies in the
61 phytoremediation approaches certainly help in the restoration of FA-CL (Gupta and Sinha, 2008;
62 Juwarkar and Jambhulkar, 2008; Rai et al., 2004; Cheung et al., 2000). These strategies are
63 emerging nowadays and attracting the attention of remediation experts. For instance, Gupta and
64 Sinha (2008) identified *Sida cardifolia*, *Chenopodium album* and *Phaseolus vulgaris* as a potential
65 plant species for the remediation of FA-CL. Moreover, Juwarkar and Jambhulkar (2008) utilized
66 apposite organic amendments like farmyard manure for the phytoremediation via *Prosopis*
67 *juliflora*, whereas Rai et al. (2004) used pressmud, sewage sludge and the sludge from the paper
68 mills. Furthermore, efficiency evaluations of *Leucaena leucocephala* and *Acacia* sp. have been
69 performed under different organic amendments (representing N-fixing bacteria). The organic
70 amendments are used to reduce the toxic effects of FA in polluted land (Cheung et al., 2000). Fast
71 growing species like Willow has also attracted the attention of phytoremediation scientists as it can
72 be regularly harvested and yield can be obtained up to 15 dry ton ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Riddel-Black, 1993).
73 Mycorrhizal technology has also gained wider popularization for the reclamation of FA-CL
74 (Pandey et al., 2009). The reclamation of FA-CL area of 3900 m² was done by the exploitation of
75 mycorrhizal technology at the Badarpur Thermal Power Station, Delhi in India (Pandey et al.,
76 2009).

77 In purview to this, the present article is aimed to provide a state-of-the-art related the FA generation
78 and predicting the land area that could be prone towards FA contamination and suggest sustainable
79 measures to overcome this global issue. Therefore, the article focuses on (i) Geospatial assessment
80 of FA prone land areas, (ii) monitoring the noxious nature of FA by considering its inorganic,
81 organic and radioactive contents, (iii) restoration of FA-CL through candidate plant species and
82 suggestive measures and challenges.

83 **2. GEOSPATIAL ASSESSMENT OF FA AND ASSOCIATED CONTAMINATED LANDS**

84 Prior to large-scale FA restoration initiative, an intense and strategic regional geospatial assessment
85 should be conducted to understand the behavior and characteristics of the region. It is influenced by
86 the fact that it helps in making the priorities according to the areas and levels of contamination. If
87 large numbers of area of lands are affected by FA-based contamination, then those areas should be
88 strategically prioritized for overcoming the underlying issues. To this, a concrete understanding of
89 the source of FA generation is necessary as well as the area, which is getting affected by that
90 source. Fundamentally, the FA generation is related directly or indirectly to the coal production or
91 combustion in the region. In purview to this, factors like coal extraction, production, washing of the
92 coal, combustion and dumping of its residues regulate the FA-based land contamination. For the
93 sake of current discussion, this section emphasizes on the coal combustion residues (CCR) or coal
94 ash dumps or FA and associate contaminated lands. Cumulatively, the main coal-producing
95 countries are responsible for generating around 3.7 billion tons coal ash per annum (IEA, 2016).
96 Australia itself produce around 11 million tons coal ash per annum (EJA, 2019) and has more than
97 400 million tons of ash deposited in dumpsites across the country (ADAA, 2018; EJA,
98 2019). Vietnam produces 11.8 million tons of coal ash per annum from its existing 20 coal-fired
99 power plants (Thenepalli et al., 2018). Moreover, burning around 5.4 tons of coal generates 0.9 tons
100 of coal ash (Ritter, 2016). Out of the total generated coal ash, FA contributes to around 75% and
101 rest is the bottom ash (Jarusiripot, 2014). According to analysis, each tons of FA covers around 0.30
102 hectares of land (He et al., 2012). By this, considering the net FA production in China to around

103 171 million tons in 2015 (Ge et al., 2018), it would have occupied around more than 51 Mha of
104 land. United States individually produced around 38 million tons of FA in 2016, which gradually
105 reduced to 29 million tons in 2019 (ACAA, 2019). Figure 1 and 2 explicitly depict that the country
106 with greater coal production and consumption are more prone to contaminate their viable lands via
107 various means. Majority of it includes the mismanaged disposal and dumping. Similarly, a regional
108 analysis must be conducted to assess the severity of the issue according, which the management
109 strategy could be formulated.

110 **3. MONITORING THE CONTAMINANT PROFILES IN FA CONTAMINATED SOIL**

111 ***a. Critically toxic heavy metal elements***

112 Besides, major elements such as aluminum (Al), calcium (Ca), iron (Fe), etc., FA also comprises
113 critical heavy metals like antimony (Sb), arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), chromium (Cr), copper (Cd),
114 lead (Pb), mercury (Hg), nickel (Ni), zinc (Zn), which could potentially affects environment,
115 human health and well-being (Sun et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2006). Escalated Cr (VI) levels are
116 deleterious to circulatory system that may lead to carcinogenicity. Accumulated Cr in plants
117 directly affects the plant growth. Pb content has serious consequences, as it is harmful to both
118 animals and humans especially infants (Jambhulkar et al., 2018). Concentration of As in FA usually
119 lies between 4 and 440 mgkg⁻¹ nevertheless, based on the coal quality the levels may attain to 1000
120 mgkg⁻¹ (Huggins et al., 2007). Similarly, boron (B) levels in FA also differs depending on the coal
121 quality. It varies from 22 to 60 mgkg⁻¹ and can reach maximally to 250 mgkg⁻¹. If its concentration
122 crosses more than 30 mgkg⁻¹, it is considered significantly toxic (Haynes, 2009). From the figure 3 a
123 & b), it can be deduced that, the levels of critically toxic heavy elements are much higher in FA as
124 compared to the soil. Therefore, monitoring the FA contaminated soil and screening the different
125 levels of toxic heavy metals in it is highly needed to adopt strategic measures. It is driven by the
126 fact that if the stakeholders would not be able to identify the strength of contamination, selection of
127 site-specific remediation measures could be implemented effectively.

128 ***b. Organic pollutants***

129 The concentration and types of organic pollutants in FA (OPs-FA) depends on the physico-
130 chemical properties of coal and different operational combustion conditions (Kosnar et al.,
131 2016). OP-FA might be a macro-or micro-molecule. A macromolecule of OPs-FA is a condensed
132 aromatic, hydro-aromatic compounds, where as micro-molecule of organic pollutants belongs to
133 the group of hydrocarbons having the polycyclic or hydroxyl-polycyclic aromatic, aliphatic or
134 aromatic or heterocyclic structure (Sahu et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2013). Usually, OP-FA contains
135 poly-aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and polychlorinated biphenyls(PCBs), generates in coal
136 combustion through radical condensation or cyclisation, and reacts with halo (-Cl) groups,
137 respectively (Liu et al., 2013). Both PAHs and PCBs are carcinogenic at a specific concentration,
138 induce adverse effects on living organisms, and mediate via free radical reactions (Shaheen et al.,
139 2014). Sahu et al., (2009) demonstrated that the PAHs and Benzo-pyrene found in FA range from
140 0.043 to .936 mg kg⁻¹ and 0.82 to 18.14 mg kg⁻¹, respectively. PAHs such as Benzo-pyrene, a rich
141 component of OPs-FA varied with temperatures (Liu et al., 2013). Similarly, PCBs exist with a
142 range from 7.3 to 178.7 kg⁻¹ as OP-FA (Sahu et al., 2009). The significant variation of PAHs
143 concentration was observed in PCBs due to the diversity of coal's-feature reported in literature
144 (Sahu et al., 2009). PCBs such as polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs), polychlorinated
145 dibenzo-p-dioxins (PCDDS) are more common in FA. Liuet al. (2013) illustrated that the poly-
146 chlorinated-dibenzo-furans cover a major percentage, of the persistent organic pollutants in the FA.
147 Liu et al., 2013 also reported about, persistent-organic-pollutants, which belong to the family of
148 polychlorinated compounds such as dibenzofurans, dibenzo-p-dioxins, naphthalenes, Penta, and
149 hexachlorobenzene. Monitoring of PAHs can be based on certified reference material, which uses
150 for combustion in the industrial sector regarding FA-generation, in China, certified value 2.0±0.8,
151 7.1±2.6, 1.3±0.3, 7.0±2.0, 7.4±1.9 µgg⁻¹ for anthracene, phenanthrene, benzopyrene, pyrene, and
152 fluoranthene, respectively reported by Cao et al., (2001). The certified reference value of coal can
153 beminimizing the PAHs level in FA. On the other hand, OPs like PAHs and PCBs in FA-CL can
154 bemonitor and manage through native vegetation or plant species. OPs can be entering in animal

food via the first tropic level organism (plants) and induces adverse effects on human health (Fryer and Collins, 2003; Li et al., 2005). Several studies suggest that photo-degradation and rhizomedia-
 tion of selective-plant species can be suitable for minimizing the adverse impact of OPs of FA-CL. Tao et al. (2004) reported the maximum concentration of PAHs in cauliflower (*Brassia oleracea*) as compared with *Festuca arundacea*, *Lolium multiflorum*, *Daucus carota*, etc. This result indicates that PAHs-translocation was more in cauliflower and the rest of the species have a potential phyto-degradation mechanism for PAHs. Similarly, Kolb and Harms (2002) demonstrated that PCBs such as fluoranthene degrades by metabolites of plant root of *Triticum aestivum*, *Lactuca sativa*, and *Lycopersicon*. Rhizomedia-
 tion strategies for PAHs and PCBs can be achieved by native plant species like *Cynodon dactylon*, *Festuca rubra*, *Trifolium preenne*, *Agropyron*, *Metilolus officinalis*, etc. (McCutcheon and Schnoor, 2003). Therefore, the monitoring and management of OPs in FA-CL can be the effective strategies to restore FA-CL through (i) the use of certified material for combustion purposes at a large-scale (ii) screening and selection of phyto-degradation and rhizo-media-
 tion mechanism-based native plant species to grow in FA-CL.

c. **Radioactive elements**

The presence of radio-nuclei in FA is less reported in current scenario (Cujic et al., 2015). The radio-nuclei such as ^{228}Ac , ^{40}K and ^{226}Ra , ^{220}Ru , ^{222}Ru , thorium, Uranium, etc., are found in FA (Mittra et al., 2005, Mathur et al., 2008). The toxic effect of radio nuclei can be observed over high doses of FA, while Basu et al. (2009) reported that radio nuclei of K, Ra, and Ac emit radiation within the permissible limits. Similarly, Mathur et al. (2008) illustrate that radioactivity exists within the limit in FA, and the radioactivity range was 205 to 385 Bq Kg⁻¹ for K and 145 to 610 Bq Kg⁻¹ for radium, respectively. In general, The Indian coal showed fewer radioactivities and found below the permissible limit in FA as compared to other countries (Kant et al., 2010). The radioactivity range from 145 to 188 Bq Kg⁻¹ for ^{232}Th , 92 to 203 Bq Kg⁻¹ for ^{238}U , and 355 to 516 Bq Kg⁻¹ for ^{40}K , 214 to 590 Bq Kg⁻¹ radon, and 317 to 610 Bq Kg⁻¹ for radium in different FA samples (Kant et al., 2010). Ozden et al., (2018) studies radio nuclei in two coal-thermal power-

181 plants (CTPP) in Turkey and reported that the radioactivity of ^{210}Po and ^{210}Pb exists between 56 to
182 1174 Bq Kg^{-1} and 186 to 1153 Bq Kg^{-1} , respectively in the FA. Significant attenuation ^{210}Po and
183 ^{210}Pb radioactivity shown at lowering the temperature of CTPP, and lesser density of FA suggests
184 the application of FA can be safe after a few times with less concentration (Ozden et al., 2018).

185 4. Identifying the indigenous potential plant species and understanding local demands

186 The introduction of IPS is considered as promising approach to restore soil health even in FA
187 contaminated land (FA-CL) (Jambhulkar et al., 2018). Both essential and toxic elements present in
188 the fly ash, which highly concern for selective plant species for restoration of FA-CL. The IPS has
189 developed coping mechanism against diverse environmental conditions such as toxic hazardous
190 metals (THMs). Naturally, plant species perform nutrient and heavy metal uptake through
191 specialized root-channel system, selection and transportation of nutrient and heavy metal by plant
192 root mediates through root bio-filter mechanism. Root bio-filter mechanism facilitates plant growth
193 and avoid to hazardous metal uptake in plant. Similarly happen, in fly-ash contaminated land with
194 indigenous plant species (Table 1). The adverse grown effect was observed in leafy vegetables due
195 to heavy metal stress in FA-CL, and Singh et al. (2008) similarly observed in *Beta vulgaris* plant.

196 The perfect candidate IPS for restoration of FA-CL should have phytoremediation potential (Qadir
197 et al., 2019; Panda et al., 2020a). Gajic et al., (2018) illustrates that phyto-remediation potentials
198 are based on four criteria such as phyto-stabilization (P-S), phyto-extraction (P-X), phyto-
199 degradation (P-D), and rhizo-degradation (R-D) The P-S mechanism of plants reduces the mobility
200 of toxic hazardous metals (THMs) or organic pollutants (OPs) in the root from rhizospheric soil
201 region. P-S mechanism containing plants capable to limit the uptake of THMs and OPs through
202 avoiding or excluding mechanism mediate complex transport system (Table 2). The P-X
203 mechanism is important for the extraction of THM due to its more accumulation in plant areal part,
204 in the general hyper-accumulator plant have distinguished coping mechanism to survive against
205 high concentration of THM or OPs. THM or OPs enter the vacuole of plant cells via a specialized
206 channel through the root system and accumulate at high concentrations.

207 The P-S and P-X capability of plant play a key role in restoration and adaptation with FA-CL (Table
 208 1), and IPS adaptation with high THM and OPs based on PS and PX potential, which evaluated
 209 through bio-concentration factor (BCF) and translocation factor (TF) (Dwivedi et al., 2014; Panda et
 210 al., 2020a). BCF examine by comparing elemental ratio of plant to soil, and ratio of leaves to plant
 211 root of elements refer to as TF. Suitable P-S mechanism plant exhibits the value of $BCF > 1$ and
 212 $TF < 1$; $BCF < 1$ and $TF > 1$. P-X potential of plant shows greater than one ($>$) for BCF and TF both
 213 (Gajic et al., 2018). Plant P-D is based on components of root exudates, plant root secretes about 5 to
 214 21% of photosynthetic matter, which contains sugars, amino acid, phenolics, secondary
 215 metabolites, and organic acids, etc., commonly known as root exudates (Badri et al., 2013). Root
 216 exudates induce the redox reaction insight the root environment, mediate activation and
 217 transformation of THM and OPs, and triggers conjugation/storage of THM and OPs of
 218 contaminated soil land. The root exudates provide the carbon source as a nutrient for microbes and
 219 rise root-associated microbial population (RAMP). The RAMP and root exudates jointly
 220 participate in the degradation and transformation of THM and OPs called rhizo-degradation.
 221 IPS grows in particular area and has characteristic to adapt local condition, do not require human
 222 intervention for growth, which help restoring and landscaping studies (Doner, 2002). Literatures
 223 suggested for successful restoration achieved by self-sustain mixed vegetation with grass and
 224 legumes followed by herbs, shrubs and tree (Gajic et al., 2016). Legumes are the key species in
 225 nitrogen deficient FA-CL for restoration. Soil health restoration in FA-CL should be suitable for
 226 economic concern. The application of FA-CL for the growth of plants that belong to agriculture,
 227 forestry, economic yield tree, and ornamental purposes covers major thrust area to attain SDG.
 228 Miati and Prasad, (2016) illustrated that growth of *Dendrocalamus strictus*, *Eucalyptus*, *Leucaena*
 229 *leucocephata* in FA-CL can achieve economic benefits. Similarly, economic benefits obtained by the
 230 plant such as *Tectona grandis*, *Dalbergia sissoo*, *Populus euphratica* grown in FA-CL (Juwakar
 231 and Jambhulkar, 2008; Miati and Prasad, 2016).

232 The presence and grown vegetation of IPS indicate natural succession. IPS has an inherent coping
233 mechanism against adjacent environments and established suitable micro-environmental conditions
234 between the root and rhizospheric soil. Plant root and rhizospheric soil interaction have complex
235 mechanisms mediate through microbes and root exudates. Root-associated microbes enhance plant
236 growth and adaptation in an adverse environment, through phyto-stimulation and bio-control
237 activity. Root-associated beneficial microbes are plant growth-promoting microbes (PGPM) such
238 as plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria, and plant growth-promoting fungi. PGPM releases
239 phytohormones such as indole-3-acetic acids, gibberellins, etc., and produces organic acids,
240 siderophore, ACC-deaminase and other antibiotics. (Upadhyay et al., 2009, 2019). In spite of that,
241 PGPM can survive under heavy metal stress (Bhojiya et al., 2021). The microbial population and
242 soil enzymes activities hampered at high concentration of FA (Singh and Pandey, 2012), while the
243 growth of optimum bacterial population and soil dehydrogenase activity maintained at the level of
244 10t/ha FA application in soil (Jala and Goyal, 2006; Kohli and Goyal, 2010). The bacterial species
245 such as *Azospirillum*, *Azotobacter*, *Bacillus*, etc., are reported by several workers in old FA-CL
246 (Jambhulkar et al., 2018).

247 **5. SUGGESTIVE SUSTAINABLE APPROACHES TO FACILITATE RESTORATION OF** 248 **FA CONTAMINATED LANDS**

249 Natural vegetation growth observed in FA-CL usually takes about at least a decade (Pandey et al.,
250 2012). Long-duration helps to rise the free elemental interaction of FA and land with the help of
251 climatic factors (temperature, rainfall, wind, etc.) and leads to microbial development. Once the
252 microbial growth is established, the soil-biochemical function would be triggered, and nutrient
253 would become available to the plant (Ram et al., 2008; Rajkumar et al., 2010). This condition can
254 be suitable for the growth of first vegetation in FA-CL. Generally, fresh FA does not support
255 microbial growth however, microbial population is observed after a time in FA-CL (Singh and
256 Pandey, 2012). Initial vegetation covers are the key step of restoration of FA-CL, and grasses are
257 reported as initial vegetation under nutrient-poor soil (Maiti and Prasad 2016). The growth of the

258 grasses is observing the versatile nature of the environment even in FA-CL(Gajic et al.,
 259 2016).Grasses have an adventitious root system with the fast-growing ability and cover a large
 260 surface area of contaminated land, which could be harnessed for the application in soil restoration
 261 (Gupta et al., 2013). This initial vegetation raises the soil fertility for the next vegetation. However,
 262 with the absence of nitrogen content in FA, the growth of the higher plant is a major bottleneck.
 263 Naturally occurring legume-plants can be a better option to address the aforesaid issue in FA-CL.
 264 Therefore, the application of grass cover in FA-CL can be considered as one of the promising first
 265 step followed by application of legumes and economic yielding plants (Brindle, 2003; Jambhulkar
 266 and Juwarkar, 2009). The fulfilment of nitrogen content in grasses induces nitrogen fixation by
 267 legumes; grasses can use 3 to 102 kg N/ha/yr of fixed nitrogen (Milcu et al., 2008). Both grass and
 268 legumes vegetation raising the soil nutrient cycling, maintain C:N ratio, and restoring soil health for
 269 next plant species (Mati and Maiti, 2015).Legume-grass can fix nitrogen from about 13 to 682 kg N/
 270 ha/yr in FA-CL (Maiti and Prasad , 2016) and similarly lemon grass (*Crotalaria juncea*) can
 271 potentially fix 1.1 kg/ha N in just 9 to 12 week (Akhila, 2010).
 272 Jambhulkar and Juwarkar (2009) reported that *Cassia siamea* can adopt and grow in field of FA-
 273 CL, and after three-year restoration of FA-CL following further flourishing. Similarly, Qadir et.
 274 al., (2019) illustrates that *Pithecellobium dulce* can fit for growing in FA-CL and can induce
 275 reclamation of FA-CL due to enhanced ability of antioxidant mechanism against free radicals and
 276 stress conditions. Sustainable restoration initiatives for FA-CL through the application of
 277 vegetation can be estimated via mathematical models for selecting the suitable plant species
 278 (Mendez and Maier, 2008). Maiti and Prasad, (2016) illustrated the mathematical models such as
 279 BAF (Bioaccumulation factor), BCF, TF, MPI (Metal pollution index), Ef (Enrichment factor), Ei
 280 (Enrichment index) and Igeo (Geo-accumulation index). Singh et al., (2010) earlier applied
 281 mathematical models such as MCI, EF, and TF in FA-CL for screening suitable restoration
 282 correlation among the grown plant root-shoot. Kishu et al., (2018) illustrate mathematically to
 283 screening the efficient candidate restoration plant species for restoration in FA-CL, FA-CL heavy

284 metal concentration (μg^{-1}) of Cd (2.9), Cr (9.5), Ni (13.6), Pb (25.4), Mn (60.6), Zn (134.8) and Fe
 285 (909.4) and soil enrichment factors Zn and Cd was 1.9 and 2.7, respectively. Out of twelve grown
 286 species in this FA-CL sites enrichment factors for all plant root and shoot exhibits 3.8 and 4.3 for
 287 Zn and 3.5 and 3.8 for Cd, respectively, only six plant species (*Saccharum nigrum*, *S. Munja*,
 288 *Parthenium hysterophorus*, *Ipomea carnea* and *Typha Angustifolia*) shows P-S and P-X behavior
 289 for Cd, Cr, Ni, Pb, Cu, Mn, Zn and Fe.

290 Eco-friendly sustainable amendments with FA can be a power full technique to restore FA-CL and
 291 overcome problem of THM and OPs in agriculture field, forestry and growth of other plants. The
 292 application of eco-friendly sustainable amendments restores FA-CL in lesser time as compare with
 293 natural succession process. Spontaneous colonization of *Calamagrostis epigejous* grass in FA-CL,
 294 fall under PS- and P-X (for boron and arsenic) category takes thirteen years to restore the FA-CL
 295 for vegetation (Mitrovic et al., 2008). Similar finding was demonstrate by Pandey et al., 2012, after
 296 eleven year FA-CL restore and fit for vegetation practices through spontaneous colonization of IPS
 297 *saccharum munja*. *Saccharum munja* is an important P-S and P-X category plant and can imply for
 298 restoration in FA-CL (Pandey et al., 2012). Eco-friendly sustainable amendments such as manure,
 299 cow-dung, poultry bio-solid, epigenic earthworm, wheat straw, and PGPM in FA are some of the
 300 suitable components for managing the problems of THM and OPs and restore FA-CL faster
 301 (Reynolds et al., 1999; Gaiind and Gaur, 2002; Pati and Sahu, 2003; Jamil et al., 2009; Lau and
 302 wang, 2001; Upadhyay et al., 2021). Punshon et al., (2002) demonstrated that co-application of fly
 303 ash ($1120 \text{ tons ha}^{-1}$) and poultry bio-solid (10 tons ha^{-1}) significantly influence biomass of
 304 grasses *Panicum amarum*, *Lespedeza cuneata*, and *Eragrostis curvula* over 3-years of the study, and
 305 found that no harmful effects of THM in plant as well as in the aquifer. Upadhyay et al. (2021)
 306 demonstrated that alkaline nature of FA induces significant growth-performance of Chickpea plant
 307 under acidic soil (pH 6.1) followed by neutral and alkaline. However, the maximum concentration
 308 (40%) of FA utilization triggers by eco-friendly augmentation (Upadhyay et al., 2021). Similarly,
 309 Dwivedi et al., (2007) screened for FA tolerance and metal uptake behavior in three rice varieties

310 (Saryu-52, Sabha-5204, and pant-4). Around 25% of FA with garden soil reveled significant plant
311 growth and metal accumulation obtained as Fe>Si>Mn>Zn>Cu>As. Results indicate that Pant-4 is
312 less tolerance as Saryu-52 and Sabha-5204 under high concentration of FA. Saryu-52 and Sabha-
313 5204 plant have sound rhizofilter mechanism as pant-4, which provides coping mechanism against
314 THM and OPs of FA.

315 **6. CHALLENGES IN GROUND IMPLEMENTATION: WIDE-SCALE PERSPECTIVE**

316 Though above-mentioned suggestive approaches have promising future, still it may subject to few
317 challenges while implementing on the ground. Addressing these issues would certainly help in
318 achieving efficient remediation and thereby attaining UN-SDGs. Indeed selecting indigenous plant
319 having fast growing traits in harsh condition could have broaden prospects, but growth rate usually
320 slows down during the implementation in the heavily contaminated sites (Patra et al., 2020). The
321 impact of contamination is directly observed in the plant biomass due to the stunted growth.
322 Occurrence of pest attacks further perturbed the restoring ecosystems of contaminated sites, which
323 often affect predicted expectations (Mahar et al., 2016). Importantly, the major concern is the post-
324 harvest efficient utilisation, as the harvested biomass could often reflect low quality (Gerhardt et
325 al., 2009). The burgeoning issue of global warming is yet another challenge for the acclimatization
326 of the planted species for the restoration initiatives. Hence, the restoration of heavily contaminated
327 sites still unravelled. Under seldom instances, if the highly contaminated sites would be
328 mainstreamed into the phytoremediation, there would also be a genuine apprehension of transfer of
329 critically toxic heavy metals in the food chain. Inappropriately adopted agronomic practices or the
330 application of inefficient soil amendments might adversely affects contaminants mobilization here
331 are other technological and funding limitations, which decelerates the process of restoration
332 initiatives. It could be further affected by the inappropriate policies or the lack of strict regulations
333 (Odoh et al., 2019).

334 **7. CONCLUSIONS AND WAY FORWARD**

335 Though our current perception and approaches to restore the FA induced contaminated land is
336 progressively developing, still we are in midst of numerous burgeoning challenges, which needs
337 immediate action to avoid any downfall. Addressing the challenges discussed in the
338 abovementioned section could certainly help in ensuring the success of undertaken initiatives for
339 the reclamation and restoration FA-CL. We have to focus and develop a kind of decentralized and
340 distributed system to counter this global issue at multiple fronts. For example, the technologies of
341 checking the excess FA generation must be adopted immediately across worldwide perspective.
342 Following this the generated FA should efficiently utilised for other multifaceted purposes. In this
343 way, we can reduce the amount of FA that is subjected for dumping into the land systems.
344 Moreover, it will reduce the pressure on the land system and enable it to be less prone for the heavy
345 contamination. Further, the utilisation of sustainable measures discussed in the previous sections
346 could be the promising approaches to restore the contaminated sites successfully. Besides, there are
347 other underestimated challenges, which can appear while the implementation of restoration
348 initiatives, for which the remediation experts and the implementing bodies should prepared
349 accordingly. For example, the societal acceptance and the socio-political issues could be raised in
350 the regions of people with diverse mental attitude. Moreover, the incentivisation should be
351 promoted to enhance public participation, which could be made flexible enough to overcome any
352 shortcomings during the restoration programme.

353 **Acknowledgments:** The first authors are grateful to the Department of Environmental Science,
354 V.B.S. Purvanchal University, Jaunpur, Uttar Pradesh, India and School of Liberal Arts and
355 Sciences, Thapar Institute of Engineering & Technology, Patiala, Punjab, India for providing
356 Institutional support to conduct the work.

357

358 **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest, no competing
359 financial interests or personal relationships that have appeared to influence the work reported in this
360 work.

361

362 **Author contributions:** SAE and SKU: Conceptualization, Visualization, Writing-original draft,
363 and review and editing.

364

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