Monitoring, Assessment, and Remediation of Heavy Metal Contamination: Techniques, Strategies, and Policy Frameworks

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Abstract: Heavy metal contamination in ecosystems aquatic poses significant environmental and public health challenges. This manuscript provides a comprehensive review of the sources, pathways, and environmental impacts of heavy metals in water bodies. It examines the intricate interactions between water, sediments, and highlighting aquatic organisms, the bioaccumulation risks to both wildlife and humans. The study also evaluates current and assessment monitoring techniques, including advanced analytical methods and biological indicators, to detect and quantify heavy metal presence. Various remediation strategies are discussed, ranging from traditional methods like chemical stabilization innovative approaches such to as phytoremediation and bioremediation. Additionally, the manuscript reviews existing regulatory frameworks, focusing on Nigerian and international laws aimed at controlling heavy metal pollution. The findings underscore the need for integrated management approaches, combining *effective policy* enforcement with sustainable remediation practices, to mitigate the adverse effects of heavy metal contamination in aquatic environments.

Keywords: Heavy metal contamination, aquatic ecosystems, bioaccumulation, remediation strategies and environmental policy

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1.0 Introduction

metal contamination in aquatic Heavy ecosystems poses a significant threat to environmental and public health, affecting water quality, sediment composition, and organisms. Industrial aquatic effluents. agricultural runoff, mining operations, and urban activities are major contributors to the release of toxic metals such as lead, cadmium, mercury, and arsenic into water bodies. Due to their non-degradable nature, heavy metals persist in the environment, bioaccumulate through the food chain, and cause adverse health effects, including organ damage and neurological disorders in humans (Sinclair et al., 2024). This has prompted increased effective attention toward monitoring. assessment, and remediation strategies.

Recent studies have employed advanced techniques for detecting and quantifying heavy metals in water, sediment, and aquatic organisms. Analytical methods such as Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy (AAS) and Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) have proven effective for the precise measurement of trace metal concentrations in water samples (Ali et al., 2013). Sequential extraction techniques and Xray fluorescence (XRF) are widely applied for sediment analysis, offering insights into the chemical forms and bioavailability of metals (Kadim, & Risjani 2022). Fish tissue analysis, particularly of bioindicator species, has emerged as a critical tool for evaluating the ecological impact of metal pollution, with quantification of metals in gills, liver, and muscle tissues providing valuable data on exposure levels (Varol et al., 2020). Despite advancements in analytical techniques and remediation technologies, significant gaps remain. Many existing studies focus on isolated compartments environmental without integrating assessments across water, sediment, and biota. Additionally, while remediation strategies such as chemical precipitation and nanomaterial-based adsorption have shown promise, their scalability and long-term environmental impact require further investigation (Eddy et al., 2024). Policies and regulatory frameworks also need to be strengthened, with enhanced enforcement mechanisms to address the rising threat of heavy metal contamination.

This study aims to provide a comprehensive evaluation of monitoring and assessment techniques for heavy metal contamination, alongside effective remediation strategies and policy recommendations. By investigating water, sediment, and fish tissue analyses and examining emerging remediation technologies, the study seeks to bridge existing knowledge gaps and offer practical solutions for pollution management.

The significance of this study lies in its potential to inform environmental regulators, policymakers, and industry stakeholders on best practices for mitigating heavy metal pollution. The findings will contribute to developing cost-effective and sustainable remediation approaches, ultimately promoting the protection and restoration of aquatic ecosystems and public health.

2.0 Monitoring and Assessment of Heavy Metal Contamination

Heavy metal contamination in environmental systems, particularly aquatic ecosystems, has emerged as a significant concern due to its persistent nature and detrimental impacts on both ecosystems and human health. Effective monitoring and assessment of heavy metal contamination require a multidisciplinary approach encompassing advanced analytical techniques, comprehensive environmental assessments, and biological monitoring. The



2.1 Water Analysis Techniques

Monitoring heavy metals in water bodies is crucial for understanding contamination dynamics and assessing risks to aquatic organisms and human populations. Several analytical techniques have been employed to achieve precise and accurate metal quantification:

Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy (AAS): AAS is one of the most widely used methods for detecting trace metal concentrations in water samples. Ali et al. (2013) highlighted the effectiveness of AAS in providing accurate and reproducible results for metals such as lead, cadmium, and mercury. However, the technique is limited by its requirement for sample pre-treatment and single-element detection per analysis.

Coupled Inductively Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS): ICP-MS offers sensitivity superior and multi-element detection capabilities compared to AAS. Studies by Kadim & Risjani (2022) demonstrated the use of ICP-MS for simultaneous detection of multiple heavy metals in complex water matrices. Its high detection limit and precision make it suitable for environmental monitoring, though the high operational cost remains a limitation.

2.2 Sediment Analysis Techniques

Sediments act as sinks and sources for heavy metals, making their analysis crucial for understanding long-term contamination trends and bioavailability.

Sequential Extraction Techniques: These techniques help partition heavy metals into different chemical fractions, providing insights into their mobility and bioavailability. Markert *et al.* (1999) emphasized that sequential



extraction is valuable for distinguishing between metals bound to organic matter, carbonates, and oxides.

X-ray Fluorescence (XRF): XRF spectroscopy is a non-destructive technique used for rapid and precise metal quantification in sediments. Marguí et al. (2022) demonstrated its effectiveness in large-scale environmental assessments, noting its ability to analyze multiple elements simultaneously without extensive sample preparation.

2.3 Fish Tissue Analysis

Fish are excellent bioindicators for monitoring heavy metal contamination due to their ability to bioaccumulate metals in their tissues.

Metal Quantification in Gills, Liver, and Muscle Tissues: Analysis of these tissues provides comprehensive information on metal exposure and accumulation patterns. Sinclair et al. (2024) found that liver tissues generally exhibit higher metal concentrations due to their role in detoxification.

Bioindicator Species Assessment: Using specific fish species as bioindicators helps assess the ecological impact of metal contamination. Studies by Okwuosa *et al.*(209) highlighted the importance of selecting species with wide habitat distribution and known feeding habits for effective monitoring.

3.4. Emerging Techniques and Approaches

Recent advancements in technology have led to the development of novel methods for monitoring heavy metals.

Sensor-based Monitoring: Electrochemical sensors offer real-time monitoring of heavy metal concentrations in water. These sensors are portable, cost-effective, and provide immediate results, making them suitable for field applications.

Remote Sensing and GIS Applications: Geospatial technologies are increasingly used for large-scale monitoring and mapping of heavy metal contamination. Remote sensing data, combined with GIS, enable spatial and temporal analysis of pollution patterns.

2.5. Biological Monitoring

Biomonitoring involves using living organisms to assess the presence and effects of heavy metals in the environment.

Biomarkers of Exposure and Effect: Biochemical, physiological, and molecular biomarkers are used to detect early signs of metal-induced stress in aquatic organisms. Kadim, *et al.* (2022) emphasized the role of biomarkers in providing early warning signals for environmental pollution.

Bioaccumulation Studies: These studies focus on the accumulation of heavy metals in various trophic levels of the food chain. Nnaji et al. (2023) noted that bioaccumulation data are critical for assessing the ecological and human health risks of metal contamination.

2.6. Challenges and Limitations in Monitoring Heavy Metals

While significant progress has been made in monitoring heavy metal contamination, several challenges remain:

Sample Variability: Environmental samples often exhibit high spatial and temporal variability, complicating the interpretation of monitoring data.

Detection Limits: Although advanced techniques such as ICP-MS offer high sensitivity, the detection limits of some methods may still be inadequate for trace-level monitoring.

Cost and Accessibility: The high cost of analytical instruments and the need for specialized expertise limit the widespread adoption of advanced monitoring techniques in resource-constrained settings.

The table 1 below summarizes various analytical instruments commonly used for the determination of heavy metals, highlighting their respective advantages, disadvantages, detection limits, and references. Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) is renowned for its high sensitivity and rapid multi-element analysis capabilities, making it suitable for detecting trace levels of heavy metals. However, its high operational costs and



the need for skilled operators can be limiting factors. Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy (AAS), while widely used and precise for specific elements, is limited to single-element detection per analysis and often requires sample pre-treatment. X-ray Fluorescence (XRF) offers the advantage of being nondestructive with minimal sample preparation, but it has lower sensitivity compared to ICP-MS and AAS, and is less effective for light elements. Anodic Stripping Voltammetry (ASV) provides high sensitivity at relatively low costs but is time-consuming and susceptible to interferences from other electroactive species. Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectroscopy (ICP-OES) allows for multi-element analysis with good precision, yet it has higher detection limits compared to ICP-MS and may encounter spectral interferences. The choice of instrument depends on various factors, including the specific requirements of the analysis, available resources, and the nature of the samples being tested.

| Table 1: Analytical Inst | ruments for Heavy | Metal Determination |
|--------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|
|--------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|

| Instrument | Advantages | Disadvantages | Detection Limit | References |
|-----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------------|--------------------|
| Inductively | High sensitivity; | High operational | Typically in the | Han <i>et al</i> . |
| Coupled Plasma | capable of multi- | costs; requires | low parts per | (2020) |
| Mass | element analysis; | skilled operators; | trillion (ppt) | |
| Spectrometry | low detection | potential spectral | range. | |
| (ICP-MS) | limits; rapid | interferences. | | |
| | analysis. | | | |
| Atomic | Widely used; good | Limited to single- | Generally in the | He et al. |
| Absorption | accuracy and | element detection | low parts per | (2024) |
| Spectroscopy | precision; suitable | per analysis; | billion (ppb) | |
| (AAS) | for specific | requires sample pre- | range. | |
| | element analysis. | treatment. | | |
| X-ray | Non-destructive; | Lower sensitivity | Typically in the | Lu <i>et al</i> . |
| Fluorescence | rapid analysis; | compared to ICP- | parts per million | (2023) |
| (XRF) | minimal sample | MS and AAS; less | (ppm) range. | |
| | preparation; | effective for light | | |
| | portable options | elements; potential | | |
| | available. | matrix effects. | | |
| Anodic | High sensitivity; | Time-consuming; | Can detect | Zhang and |
| Stripping | capable of | requires specialized | concentrations | Campton |
| Voltammetry | detecting metals at | equipment and | as low as parts | (2022)n |
| (ASV) | very low | trained technicians; | per trillion (ppt). | |
| | concentrations; | potential | | |
| | relatively low cost. | interferences from | | |
| | | other electroactive | | |
| | | species. | | |
| Inductively | Capable of multi- | Higher detection | Typically in the | Douvris <i>et</i> |
| Coupled Plasma | element analysis; | limits compared to | low parts per | al. (2023) |
| Optical | good precision; | ICP-MS; potential | billion (ppb) | |
| Emission | suitable for high- | spectral | range. | |
| | matrix samples. | interferences; | | |



| Spectroscopy | requires | skilled |
|--------------|------------|---------|
| (ICP-OES) | operators. | |

3.0 Remediation of Heavy Metal

Remediation of heavy metal contamination involves various strategies aimed at reducing the concentration, mobility, or toxicity of heavy metals in the environment. These strategies can be broadly categorized into physical, chemical, and biological methods, each with its own set of advantages and limitations. Physical methods, such as soil involve the extraction washing. of contaminants from soils using washing solutions. This technique can effectively reduce contaminant concentrations to below regulatory standards; however, it often requires the removal of coarse particles and may not be suitable for all soil types.

Chemical remediation techniques include stabilization and solidification, where contaminants are immobilized within the soil matrix to prevent their migration. While these methods can effectively reduce the bioavailability of heavy metals, they do not remove the contaminants from the site and may require long-term monitoring.

Biological approaches, such as phytoremediation, utilize plants to absorb, accumulate, and detoxify heavy metals from contaminated soils and water. This method is cost-effective and environmentally friendly but is generally slower and may be limited by the depth of root systems and the toxicity of contaminants to the plants.

Another emerging biological method is bioremediation, which employs microorganisms to detoxify heavy metals. This approach can be effective for certain metals but may require specific environmental conditions to maintain microbial activity.

In situ chemical oxidation is a technique that involves injecting oxidizing agents into the contaminated medium to transform heavy metals into less toxic forms. This method can be effective for certain contaminants but may also pose risks of mobilizing heavy metals, potentially increasing their bioavailability. Each remediation method has its own set of advantages and disadvantages, and the selection of an appropriate strategy depends on various factors, including the type and contaminants. concentration of site characteristics, and regulatory requirements. Table 2 presents various remediation measures for heavy metal ions, outlining their principles, advantages, disadvantages, and references. Soil washing involves the use of water, sometimes with additives, to remove heavy metals from contaminated soils. It is effective in reducing contaminant concentrations, can be applied onsite, and is relatively fast. However, it generates secondary waste requiring treatment, is not suitable for all soil types, and may not remove all contaminants. Phytoremediation utilizes plants to absorb, accumulate, and detoxify heavy metals from soils and water. This method is environmentally friendly, costeffective, and can improve soil structure. Nevertheless, it is a slow process, limited to surface soils, and its effectiveness depends on plant species and contaminant type. Chemical stabilization involves the addition of chemical agents to convert heavy metals into less soluble forms, reducing their mobility. It reduces leachability of contaminants and allows for relatively quick implementation. However, it does not remove contaminants, may have potential long-term stability issues, and can alter soil properties. Electrokinetic remediation applies an electric field to mobilize and remove heavy metals from soils. It is effective for finegrained soils and can target specific contaminants. On the downside, it is energyintensive, may require soil pre-treatment, and has the potential for secondary waste generation. Vitrification uses high temperatures to melt contaminated soil, immobilizing heavy metals in a glass-like



matrix. This method permanently immobilizes contaminants and reduces the volume of hazardous material. However, it incurs high energy costs, is not suitable for all soil types, and may result in potential air emissions during process. Bioremediation the employs microorganisms to degrade or transform heavy metals into less toxic forms. It is natural and sustainable, can be applied in situ, and causes minimal disturbance to the environment. Its limitations include being restricted to biodegradable contaminants, its effectiveness depending on environmental conditions, and being a slower process. Adsorption utilizes materials to adsorb heavy metals from contaminated water or soil onto their surfaces. It offers high removal efficiency, is applicable

to a wide range of heavy metals, and is a relatively simple process. However, adsorbent materials may require regeneration or disposal, effectiveness can be influenced by environmental conditions, and there is potential for secondary waste generation.

In summary, each remediation measure has its unique set of advantages and disadvantages. The selection of an appropriate remediation strategy should consider factors such as the specific contaminants present, site characteristics, environmental conditions, and availability. resource thorough Α understanding of these factors is essential to effectively mitigate heavy metal contamination in various environmental settings.

| Remediation | Principle | Advantages | Disadvantages | References |
|------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Measure | | | | |
| Soil Washing | Involves the use of water, | Effective in reducing | Generates secondary waste | Liu <i>et al.</i> (2018) |
| | sometimes with additives, to | contaminant concentrations: | requiring treatment: not | |
| | remove heavy | can be applied | suitable for all | |
| | contaminated soils. | fast process. | not remove all contaminants. | |
| Phytoremediation | Utilizes plants to absorb, | Environmentally friendly; cost- | Slow process; limited to surface | Eddy & Ekop (2007) |
| | accumulate, and detoxify beavy | effective; can | soils; | |
| | metals from soils | structure. | depends on plant | |
| | and water. | | contaminant | |
| Chemical | Involves the | Reduces | Does not remove | Tak <i>et al</i> . |
| Stabilization | addition of | leachability of | contaminants; | (2023) |
| | to convert heavy | relatively quick | term stability | |
| | metals into less | implementation. | issues; may alter | |
| | soluble forms, | | soil properties. | |
| | reducing their mobility. | | | |
| Electrokinetic | Applies an | Effective for fine- | Energy- | Abou-Shady |
| Remediation | electric field to | grained soils; can | intensive; may | <i>et al.</i> (2024) |

Table 1: Remediation Measures for Heavy Metal Ions



| | mobilize | targat aposifia | maguina cail mna | |
|-----------------|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| | modifize and | target specific | require son pre- | |
| | remove neavy | contaminants. | treatment; | |
| | metals from | | potential for | |
| | soils. | | secondary waste | |
| | | | generation. | |
| Vitrification | Uses high | Permanently | High energy | Xu <i>et al</i> . |
| | temperatures to | immobilizes | costs; not | (2024) |
| | melt | contaminants; | suitable for all | |
| | contaminated | reduces volume | soil types; | |
| | soil. | of hazardous | potential air | |
| | immobilizing | material | emissions during | |
| | heavy metals in a | | process | |
| | glass-like matrix | | p1000055. | |
| Rioromodiation | Employs | Natural and | Limited to | Eddy and |
| Diorenteuration | microorganisms | sustainable: can | biodegradable | Even (2007) |
| | to degrade or | be emplied in situ | oontominanta | Екор (2007) |
| | to degrade of | be applied in situ, | containinaints, | |
| | transform neavy | minimai | enectiveness | |
| | metals into less | disturbance to | depends on | |
| | toxic forms. | environment. | environmental | |
| | | | conditions; | |
| | | | slower process. | |
| Adsorption | Utilizes | High removal | Adsorbent | Eddy <i>et</i> al. |
| | materials to | efficiency; | materials may | (2024)Sharma |
| | adsorb heavy | applicable to a | require | <i>et al.</i> (2023) |
| | metals from | wide range of | regeneration or | |
| | contaminated | heavy metals; | disposal; | |
| | water or soil onto | relatively simple | effectiveness can | |
| | their surfaces. | process. | be influenced by | |
| | | | environmental | |
| | | | conditions; | |
| | | | potential for | |
| | | | secondary waste | |
| | | | generation. | |

4.0 Strategies for Mitigating Heavy Metal Pollution

Addressing heavy metal pollution necessitates comprehensive strategies and robust policy frameworks at both national and international levels.

Effective mitigation of heavy metal pollution involves a multifaceted approach:

(i) **Regulatory Enforcement**: Strict enforcement of environmental regulations is crucial. In Nigeria, the National Environmental Standards and Regulations Enforcement Agency (NESREA) is responsible for enforcing environmental laws and ensuring compliance to mitigate heavy metal pollution.

(ii) **Pollution Prevention**: Implementing cleaner production techniques and promoting the use of environmentally friendly materials can reduce the introduction of heavy metals into the environment. This includes encouraging industries to adopt best



practices that minimize waste generation.

- (iii)**Public Awareness and Education**: Raising awareness about the sources and dangers of heavy metal pollution is essential. Educational programs can inform the public and industries about the importance of pollution prevention and the health risks associated with heavy metals.
- (iv) **Research and Development**: Investing in research to develop innovative remediation technologies, such as phytoremediation and bioremediation, can offer sustainable solutions for contaminated sites.
- (v) **International** Collaboration: Participating in international agreements and collaborations can enhance the effectiveness of national efforts to control heavy metal pollution.

Policy Frameworks

Robust policy frameworks provide the foundation for strategies aimed at controlling heavy metal pollution:

National Policies: In Nigeria, policies such as the National Policy on the Environment outline the country's commitment to sustainable development and pollution control. These policies set standards for emissions and waste management, guiding industries and other stakeholders in their operations.

International Conventions: Nigeria is a signatory to several international conventions addressing heavy metal pollution, including the Basel Convention, which regulates the transboundary movements of hazardous wastes and their disposal, and the Minamata Convention on Mercury, which aims to protect human health and the environment from anthropogenic emissions and releases of mercury and mercury compounds.

4.1 Regulatory Framework for Heavy Metal

Heavy metal pollution poses significant environmental and public health challenges globally, necessitating robust regulatory frameworks to mitigate its impacts. In Nigeria, the regulatory landscape comprises several key legislations and agencies dedicated to environmental protection. Internationally, various conventions and protocols have been established to address heavy metal pollution.

4.2 Nigeria's Regulatory Framework

The Nigerian Constitution, under Section 20 of Chapter 2, mandates the State to protect and improve the environment, emphasizing the nation's commitment environmental to stewardship. To operationalize this mandate, the Federal Environmental Protection Agency (FEPA) was established in 1988, providing a comprehensive framework for environmental protection and management. FEPA was instrumental in formulating policies and setting standards to control the discharge of hazardous substances, including heavy metals, into the environment. In 2007, the National Environmental Standards and Regulations Enforcement Agency (NESREA) was established, taking over the responsibilities of FEPA. NESREA is tasked with enforcing environmental laws. regulations, and standards, playing a pivotal role in monitoring and ensuring compliance to mitigate heavy metal pollution. Despite these frameworks, challenges persist in implementation and enforcement, often due to resource constraints and limited capacity.

4.3 International Regulatory Frameworks

Globally, several conventions and protocols have been established to address heavy metal pollution. The Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution (CLRTAP), adopted in 1979, aims to protect the human environment against air pollution and to gradually reduce and prevent air pollution, long-range transboundary including air pollution. Under CLRTAP, the Protocol on Heavy Metals was adopted in 1998 in Aarhus, protocol Denmark. This targets three particularly harmful metals: cadmium, lead,



and mercury, requiring parties to reduce their emissions below 1990 levels. It sets stringent limit values for emissions from stationary sources and mandates the phase-out of leaded petrol. Another significant international treaty is the Minamata Convention on Mercury, a global, legally binding treaty that aims to protect human health and the environment from anthropogenic emissions and releases of mercury and mercury compounds. Adopted in 2013, the convention addresses the entire life cycle of mercury, including its supply, trade, use in products and processes, emissions, releases, and disposal.

Also, the Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and Their Disposal, which came into force in 1992, seeks to prevent the transportation of hazardous wastes, including heavy metals, to developing countries. Over 170 countries have joined the convention, underscoring its global significance.

4.3 Challenges and Recommendations

While Nigeria has established a robust legislative framework to address heavy metal pollution, challenges in implementation, enforcement, and funding persist. Resource constraints and limited capacity hinder effective monitoring and compliance. To enhance the effectiveness of current policies, periodic reviews, increased funding, and community-based monitoring programs are Internationally, recommended. while conventions and protocols provide comprehensive frameworks for reducing heavy metal emissions, their success largely depends on the commitment and compliance of participating nations. Continuous global cooperation and capacity-building efforts are essential to mitigate the impacts of heavy metal pollution effectively.

| Agency | Jurisdiction | Responsibilities | Reference |
|---------------------------|---------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|
| National Environmental | Nigeria | Enforces environmental laws, | NESREA |
| Standards and | C | regulations, and standards; | Official |
| Regulations | | monitors compliance to mitigate | Website |
| Enforcement Agency | | heavy metal pollution. | |
| (NESREA) | | v 1 | |
| Federal Ministry of | Nigeria | Formulates policies and | Federal |
| Environment | C | supervises activities for | Ministry of |
| | | environmental protection, | Environment |
| | | including control of heavy metal | |
| | | pollution. | |
| Convention on Long- | International | Aims to protect the human | CLRTAP |
| Range Transboundary | | environment against air pollution | Overview |
| Air Pollution | | and to gradually reduce and | |
| (CLRTAP) | | prevent air pollution, including | |
| | | long-range transboundary air | |
| | | pollution. | |
| Minamata Convention | International | A global treaty to protect human | <u>Minamata</u> |
| on Mercury | | health and the environment from | Convention |
| - | | anthropogenic emissions and | |
| | | releases of mercury and mercury | |
| | | compounds. | |

Table 3: Key Regulatory Agencies Addressing Heavy Metal Pollution



| Basel Convention | International | Seeks to prevent the transportation | Basel |
|-------------------------|---------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------|
| | | of hazardous wastes, including | Convention |
| | | heavy metals, to developing | Overview |
| | | countries. | |

5.0 Conclusion and Recommendations

Heavy metal contamination in aquatic ecosystems is a critical environmental concern, primarily driven by industrial activities, agricultural runoff, and urbanization. These pollutants persist in the environment, leading to bioaccumulation in aquatic organisms and posing significant health risks to humans through the consumption of contaminated water and seafood. The detrimental effects on aquatic life include reduced growth. reproductive challenges, organ damage, and behavioral alterations. To address these issues, various remediation strategies have been phytoremediation, explored. such as bioremediation. and chemical treatments. However, the effectiveness of these methods varies based on site-specific conditions and the particular heavy metals involved. Regulatory both within frameworks, Nigeria and internationally, have been established to control and mitigate heavy metal pollution. these efforts. challenges Despite in enforcement and compliance persist, underscoring the need for more robust policies and effective implementation.

In conclusion, while significant strides have been made in understanding and managing heavy metal contamination, ongoing research is essential to develop more efficient remediation technologies and to strengthen regulatory frameworks. It is recommended that future efforts focus on enhancing monitoring systems, promoting sustainable industrial fostering practices. and international collaboration to effectively mitigate the impacts of heavy metal pollution on aquatic ecosystems and human health.

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