IJCRT.ORG

ISSN: 2320-2882



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CREATIVE RESEARCH THOUGHTS (IJCRT)

An International Open Access, Peer-reviewed, Refereed Journal

A Critical Review On Physicochemical Parameters In Water Quality Management: Key Indicators For Sustainability And Pollution Mitigation

Snehal B. Punde¹, Manisha N. Kulkarni*

Department of Zoology, Dr. Homi Bhabha State University, The Institute of Science, Mumbai,

Maharashtra

Abstract

Physicochemical parameters are critical indicators for assessing water quality and play a key role in determining the suitability of water for various uses, such as drinking, agriculture, industry, and recreation. These parameters encompass both physical properties (e.g., temperature, turbidity) and chemical characteristics (e.g., pH, dissolved oxygen, nutrients and heavy metals). Regular monitoring of these parameters is essential to detect pollution, ensure safe water for human consumption, and protect aquatic ecosystems. Parameters like pH and temperature influence the solubility of gases and the metabolic rates of aquatic organisms, while dissolved oxygen (DO) levels are vital for respiration in aquatic life. The presence of excess nutrients such as nitrates and phosphates can lead to eutrophication, causing harmful algal blooms that deplete oxygen and degrade water quality. Additionally, the concentration of heavy metals, such as mercury and lead, poses significant risks to both aquatic organisms and human health. Other parameters like electrical conductivity (EC), hardness, and Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD) provide valuable information on the ionic strength, organic content, and overall health of the water. By continuously monitoring these physicochemical parameters, we can effectively manage water resources, identify pollution sources, and implement strategies to safeguard water quality and ecosystem health. This review emphasizes the importance of physicochemical analysis in water quality management, highlighting its role in mitigating environmental pollution and ensuring sustainable water usage.

Key Words:

Physicochemical parameters, water quality, dissolved oxygen, eutrophication, heavy metals, water management, environmental pollution, ecosystem health.

Introduction

The physicochemical parameters of water are fundamental to understanding and assessing the quality of water. These parameters encompass both physical properties, such as temperature and turbidity, and chemical characteristics, like pH, dissolved oxygen, and the concentration of pollutants and nutrients. Monitoring these parameters is essential to ensure the suitability of water for different uses, including drinking, agricultural irrigation, industrial processes, and recreation. Singh, S.K. (2014). Water quality can be influenced by both natural factors, such as geology and climate, and anthropogenic activities, including pollution from agricultural runoff, industrial effluents, sewage discharge, and other contaminants. The

physical properties of water, like temperature, can influence the solubility of gases, such as oxygen, and the metabolic rates of aquatic organisms. Water temperature also affects chemical reactions, and changes in temperature can lead to the loss of biodiversity. Turbidity, caused by suspended particles, reduces light penetration, which limits the growth of aquatic plants and disrupts the food chain. High turbidity also affects the clarity of water, making it less suitable for human consumption and recreational activities. The pH of water is another crucial factor, indicating the acidity or alkalinity of water, which affects the solubility and toxicity of various substances. For example, low pH can increase the solubility of toxic metals like mercury and cadmium, making them more dangerous to aquatic organisms (Wetzel, 2001).

Dissolved oxygen (DO) is vital for the respiration of aquatic organisms. Low DO levels often signal pollution or eutrophication, which is caused by excess nutrients, particularly nitrates and phosphates. These nutrients stimulate the growth of algae, which, when decomposed, deplete oxygen levels, leading to hypoxic or anoxic conditions that can be fatal for aquatic species. In addition to organic nutrients, the presence of heavy metals like lead, mercury, and cadmium can have long-term detrimental effects on aquatic ecosystems. These metals are toxic even in low concentrations and can bioaccumulate in the food chain, posing risks to both wildlife and humans (Smith, 2003).

Electrical conductivity (EC) measures the ability of water to conduct electricity, which is related to the concentration of dissolved salts and minerals. High levels of EC or Total Dissolved Solids (TDS) indicate elevated concentrations of dissolved ions, which may affect water quality and ecosystem health. Hardness, caused by the presence of calcium and magnesium, is another important parameter. While these minerals are necessary for aquatic organisms, excessive hardness can cause scaling in pipes and interfere with domestic and industrial water use (Boyd, 2015).

Monitoring Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD) is critical for assessing the organic pollution in water. Baron, J. (2004). A high BOD indicates a significant amount of biodegradable organic material, which can deplete oxygen levels, harming aquatic life. The overall water quality is determined by the interaction of these parameters, which can vary based on local environmental conditions and human activities. Mielke, H.W. (1998). Regular analysis of physicochemical parameters is essential for detecting pollution, ensuring safe water for consumption, and protecting aquatic ecosystems. Chemical parameters like pH, dissolved oxygen (DO), and electrical conductivity (EC) are also critical in determining the water's quality. The pH of water measures its acidity or alkalinity, which influences the solubility of minerals and the toxicity of various substances. For instance, an acidic pH can increase the solubility of heavy metals, making them more toxic to aquatic life. Dissolved oxygen (DO) is vital for the respiration of most aquatic organisms, and its concentration can indicate the health of the ecosystem. Low DO levels can be a sign of organic pollution or eutrophication, a process where excess nutrients like nitrates and phosphates promote algal blooms, leading to oxygen depletion. This process can result in fish kills and the collapse of aquatic ecosystems (Smith, 2003).

Regular monitoring of these physicochemical parameters is vital for managing water resources effectively, controlling pollution, and ensuring the protection of aquatic ecosystems. Changes in these parameters can signal environmental degradation, the need for water treatment, or the impact of specific contaminants. In addition to these traditional parameters, newer metrics and technologies, such as emerging contaminants and nanoparticles, are becoming increasingly important in assessing water quality, especially in urban and industrial settings.

Importance of Physicochemical Parameters in Water Quality Management

Physicochemical parameters play a crucial role in understanding and managing water quality, making them essential for the sustainable use and preservation of water resources. The importance of these parameters can be outlined in several key areas:

- 1. **Assessment of water quality**: Physicochemical parameters provide a comprehensive view of the quality of water in both natural and man-made environments. By measuring aspects such as pH, dissolved oxygen, temperature, and turbidity, it is possible to determine whether water is safe for consumption, suitable for agricultural irrigation, or capable of supporting aquatic life. These parameters help in identifying potential water quality issues before they become significant threats to health or ecosystems.
- 2. **Pollution detection and control**: Monitoring changes in physicochemical parameters is vital for detecting pollution sources and understanding their impact on water bodies. Parameters like heavy metals, nitrates, and phosphates can indicate contamination from industrial effluents, agricultural runoff, or sewage. Early detection allows for timely intervention, enabling authorities to mitigate pollution and reduce its long-term impact on both water quality and the surrounding environment.
- 3. **Ecosystem health**: Aquatic organisms are highly sensitive to changes in physicochemical conditions, and shifts in parameters such as dissolved oxygen (DO), temperature, and nutrient levels can lead to reduced biodiversity, fish kills, and imbalanced ecosystems. By tracking these parameters, it becomes possible to assess the health of aquatic ecosystems and take corrective actions when needed to maintain ecological balance.
- 4. **Public health protection**: The physicochemical properties of water directly impact human health. Parameters like pH, hardness, and heavy metal concentrations can influence the safety of drinking water, while turbidity and contaminant levels affect water treatment processes. By monitoring and controlling these parameters, authorities can ensure that water remains safe for consumption, thereby reducing the risk of waterborne diseases and long-term health issues.
- 5. **Regulatory compliance and policy development:** Physicochemical data are essential for setting water quality standards and enforcing environmental regulations. Governments and environmental agencies rely on these parameters to develop guidelines for permissible levels of pollutants in water bodies. By using this data, policies can be formulated to safeguard water quality and public health, as well as guide the development of water treatment systems and pollution control measures.
- 6. Water resource management: Effective management of water resources for drinking, agriculture, and industry relies on understanding the physicochemical characteristics of water. Parameters like electrical conductivity (EC), total dissolved solids (TDS), and hardness are crucial in determining the suitability of water for different uses, such as irrigation or industrial processes. This helps in optimizing water use, ensuring its availability, and reducing waste.
- 7. **Monitoring and sustainable development**: Sustainable development requires careful monitoring of water quality to prevent over-exploitation and degradation of water resources. The continuous monitoring of physicochemical parameters provides the data needed to make informed decisions regarding water conservation, pollution control, and ecosystem protection.



Table 1 An overview of the physicochemical parameters of fresh water, their effect and impact

Physico-	Methods for	Ti ee	Impact on	D. C	
Chemical Parameter	analysis	Effect	Freshwater Body	Reference	
Temperature	Thermometer	Affects metabolic rates and oxygen solubility.	Higher temperatures lower dissolved oxygen, promote algal blooms, and harm aquatic life.	Boyd, C.E. (2015). "Water Quality: An Introduction." Springer.	
рН	Digital pH meter	Indicates the acidity or alkalinity of water.	Extreme pH levels harm aquatic organisms, impair nutrient availability, and increase metal toxicity.	Wetzel, R.G. (2001). "Limnology: Lake and River Ecosystems." Academic Press.	
Dissolved Oxygen (DO)	Wrinkler's iodometric method	Essential for respiration in aquatic organisms.	Low DO levels (hypoxia) can cause fish kills and disrupt ecosystems by suffocating aquatic life.	Odum, E.P. (1971). "Fundamentals of Ecology." Saunders College Publishing.	
Turbidity	Turbidimeter	Measures water cloudiness due to suspended particles.	High turbidity reduces light penetration, harming plants and disturbing aquatic ecosystems.	APHA, AWWA, WEF (2017). "Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater." 23rd edition.	
Electrical Conductivity (EC)	Elecctroconducto- meter	Indicates the concentration of dissolved salts and minerals.	High EC suggests pollution or high salinity, which can stress or harm freshwater organisms.	American Public Health Association (APHA) (2012). "Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater."	
Total Dissolved Solids (TDS)	Evaporation method	Represents the total concentration of dissolved substances.	High TDS levels can cause stress to aquatic organisms and reduce water clarity.	Hem, J.D. (1985). "Study and Interpretation of the Chemical Characteristics of Natural Water." USGS.	

Alkalinity and Hardness	Evaporation method	Alkalinity buffers pH changes; hardness due to calcium and magnesium ions.	Low alkalinity makes water prone to pH fluctuations; hardness supports biodiversity.	Wetzel, R.G. (2001). "Limnology: Lake and River Ecosystems." Academic Press.
Nutrient Levels (Nitrogen and Phosphorus)	Kjeldahl method	Essential for plant growth but harmful in excess.	Excess nutrients lead to eutrophication, algal blooms, oxygen depletion, and ecosystem disruption.	Smith, V.H. (2003). "Eutrophication of freshwater and coastal marine ecosystems." Environmental Science & Technology.
Heavy Metals	Atomic absorbtion spectrophotometer	Includes mercury, lead, and arsenic from industrial pollution.	Toxic even at low concentrations, they accumulate in the food chain, harming organisms and polluting the water.	Mielke, H.W., & Reagan, P.L. (1998). "Lead in the environment: A review of toxicological and epidemiological data." Environmental Research.
Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD)	Wrinkler's iodometric method	Measures oxygen required to decompose organic matter.	High BOD indicates organic pollution, leading to oxygen depletion and harm to aquatic organisms.	Amlan, D. et al. (2005). "Biological Oxygen Demand." Environmental Science and Technology.
Chlorine	Titrometric method	Used in water treatment but toxic in high concentrations.	Harmful to fish and other aquatic life, disrupting respiratory and immune functions.	EPA (2005). "Drinking Water Contaminants." U.S. Environmental Protection Agency.
Salinity	Titrometric method	Refers to the concentration of dissolved salts.	High salinity stresses freshwater species, potentially leading to the loss of native species and altered ecosystems.	Sahoo, D., & Kumar, A. (2018). "Effects of salinity on freshwater species." Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology.
Turbidity	Nephalometric method	Measures water cloudiness due to suspended particles.	High turbidity reduces light penetration and disturbing aquatic ecosystems.	APHA, AWWA, WEF (2017). 23rd edition.

Ammonia (NH ₃)	Colorimetric method	A toxic nitrogen compound often from sewage or agricultural runoff.	High ammonia levels can disrupt the balance of aquatic ecosystems and be lethal to many aquatic species.	Boyd, C.E. (2015). Water Quality: An Introduction. Springer.
Phosphate (PO ₄ ³⁻)	Spectrophotometry	A key nutrient for plant growth; excessive amounts can lead to eutrophication.	Excessive phosphate promotes algae blooms, reduces oxygen availability, and harms aquatic biodiversity.	Vollenweider, R.A. (1968). Scientific Fundamentals of Eutrophication of Lakes and Flowing Waters. OECD.
Sulphate (SO ₄ ²⁻)	Gravimetric method	Common in both natural water and industrial waste.	High sulphate concentrations can lead to acidification and affect the solubility of other harmful substances.	Drever, J.I. (1997). The Geochemistry of Natural Waters. Prentice Hall.
Calcium (Ca ²⁺)	EDTA method	A major component of water hardness.	Calcium supports aquatic organisms' physiological functions and shell formation but excessive levels can harm them.	Wetzel, R.G. (2001). Limnology: Lake and River Ecosystems. Academic Press.
Magnesium (Mg ²⁺)	EDTA method	A major component of water hardness and necessary for aquatic life.	Magnesium supports enzyme functions and plant growth; too much can stress aquatic life.	Hem, J.D. (1985). Study and Interpretation of the Chemical Characteristics of Natural Water. USGS.
Silica (SiO ₂)	Spectrophotometry	Found in natural waters, often from geological sources.	Silica is a key nutrient for some aquatic plants, but excess can lead to algae dominance and ecosystem imbalances.	Wetzel, R.G. (2001). Limnology: Lake and River Ecosystems. Academic Press.

				High levels	EPA (2005).
				indicate	"Water Quality
CLI	1 . 11	Considerable to make a	A measure of	eutrophication,	Criteria for
Chlorophyll- a		Spectrophotometry	pnytopiankton	where excessive nutrients cause	Eutrophication." U.S.
	а		biomass.	algal blooms and	Environmental
				oxygen	Protection
				depletion.	Agency.
				These chemicals	Gauthier, J.M., et
			Includes	can	al. (1995).
,	Toxic		pesticides,	bioaccumulate,	"Toxic Organic
0	rganic	Spectrophotometry	herbicides, and	harming aquatic	Chemicals in Water."
Cor	npounds	Spectrophotometry	industriai	potentially	Environmental
			chemicals.	entering the food	Toxicology and
				chain.	Chemistry.
				High sodium	Hem, J.D.
				levels may be	(1985). Study
		Flame photometric	Found naturally or from road salts	toxic to freshwater	and Interpretation of
Sodi	ium (Na+)	method	and industrial	organisms, alter	Interpretation of the Chemical
		memod	processes.	plant life, and	Characteristics of
				affect salinity	Natural Water.
				levels.	USGS.
				Excess	Schlesinger,
		Eleme photometric	Essential for	potassium can disrupt plant and	W.H. (1997).
Po	tassium	Flame photometric	aquatic plant and	algal growth,	Biogeochemistry:
	(K ⁺)		animal life.	affecting overall	An Analysis of
				ecosystem	Global Change. Academic Press.
				balance.	Academic Press.
				Low	W C D C
			A vital nutrient for aquatic	concentrations are essential, but	Wetzel, R.G. (2001).
	Iron	AAS Method		excessive iron	Limnology: Lake
	e^{2+}/Fe^{3+})			can lead to	and River
	,		organisms.	anoxia and	Ecosystems.
				affect water	Academic Press.
				clarity.	Couthing IM
				Excess manganese can	Gauthier, J.M., et al. (1995).
			A micronutrient	disrupt	"Toxic Organic
Ma	nganese	Spectrophotometry		respiratory	Chemicals in
((Mn^{2+})		but can be toxic	functions and	Water."
			at high levels.	affect aquatic	Environmental
				species'	Toxicology and
				development.	Chemistry. Mielke, H.W., &
				*** 1	Reagan, P.L.
				High	(1998). "Lead in
Zinc (Zn ²⁺)		A trace metal	concentrations of zinc can be	the environment:	
	AAS Method	important for life	toxic to aquatic	A review of	
	AAS Memou	but toxic at high	organisms,	toxicological and	
		levels.	particularly in	epidemiological data."	
				sediments.	Environmental
					Research.

Copper (Cu ²⁺)	AAS Method	Essential trace element but toxic at elevated concentrations.	Copper toxicity can lead to fish kills, reduced biodiversity, and ecosystem imbalance.	Mielke, H.W., & Reagan, P.L. (1998). "Lead in the environment: A review of toxicological and epidemiological data." Environmental Research.
Aluminum (Al³+)	AAS Method	Common in acidic waters and is toxic at higher concentrations.	High aluminum levels can damage fish gills and impair the respiratory function of aquatic species.	Schlesinger, W.H. (1997). Biogeochemistry: An Analysis of Global Change. Academic Press.
Mercury (Hg)	AAS Method	Highly toxic, bioaccumulates in organisms, and affects neurological systems.	Mercury can contaminate aquatic food chains, leading to fish kills and chronic neurological diseases in aquatic species.	Mielke, H.W., & Reagan, P.L. (1998). "Lead in the environment: A review of toxicological and epidemiological data." Environmental Research.
Lead (Pb)	AAS Method	A potent neurotoxin, affects various physiological processes.	Lead is harmful to aquatic life, reducing reproduction rates, and bioaccumulates in aquatic organisms.	Gauthier, J.M., et al. (1995). "Toxic Organic Chemicals in Water." Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry.
Cadmium (Cd)	AAS Method	Highly toxic, disrupts cellular processes and enzyme activity.	Cadmium exposure leads to organ damage, weakened immune systems, and can cause reproductive failure in aquatic species.	Mielke, H.W., & Reagan, P.L. (1998). "Lead in the environment: A review of toxicological and epidemiological data." Environmental Research.
Arsenic (As)	AAS Method	A carcinogen and toxic to aquatic life, disrupts enzyme activity.	Arsenic can cause developmental problems, reduced growth, and mortality in fish and invertebrates.	Rahman, M., et al. (2009). "Arsenic contamination in water and human health: A review." Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology.

Chromium (Cr)	AAS Method	Toxic to aquatic organisms at high concentrations, affects respiration and growth.	Chromium toxicity leads to respiratory failure, reduced growth, and can be lethal to aquatic organisms at high levels.	Depledge, M.H., et al. (1992). "Toxicology and Environmental Chemistry." Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry.
Nickel (Ni)	AAS Method	Affects enzyme function and metabolic processes.	High nickel levels are toxic to aquatic organisms, disrupting metabolic and enzymatic functions.	Gauthier, J.M., et al. (1995). "Toxic Organic Chemicals in Water." Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry.
Silver (Ag)	AAS Method	Toxic to aquatic life, especially to invertebrates.	Silver exposure leads to the disruption of respiratory and metabolic processes in aquatic species, affecting ecosystem balance. Excess cobalt	Mielke, H.W., & Reagan, P.L. (1998). "Lead in the environment: A review of toxicological and epidemiological data." Environmental Research. Gauthier, J.M., et
Cobalt (Co)	AAS Method	Essential in small amounts, but excess can disrupt metabolism and cause toxicity.	can cause respiratory problems and reduce growth and reproduction in aquatic organisms.	al. (1995). "Toxic Organic Chemicals in Water." Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry.
Vanadium (V)	AAS Method	Toxic to aquatic organisms, affecting enzyme systems and cellular functions.	High vanadium concentrations can result in the loss of aquatic biodiversity and disrupt ecosystem functioning.	Depledge, M.H., et al. (1992). "Toxicology and Environmental Chemistry." Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry.
Microplastics (MP)	FTIR, Raman spectroscopy	Physical Harm to Aquatic Organisms: Ingestion of microplastics by aquatic species leads to physical harm, including blockages in digestive systems and starvation.	Can result in reduced survival rates, growth, and reproduction of aquatic organisms, disrupting aquatic food webs and biodiversity.	Auta et al. (2017)

	Chemical Contamination: Microplastics adsorb toxic chemicals like heavy metals, pesticides, and persistent organic pollutants (POPs) from surrounding water.	Toxic substances can enter the food chain, accumulating in organisms and affecting their health and survival. Potential for bioaccumulation and biomagnification in the food web.	Teuten et al. (2009)
	Physical Harm to Aquatic Organisms: Ingestion of microplastics by aquatic species leads to physical harm, including blockages in digestive systems and starvation.	Can result in reduced survival rates, growth, and reproduction of aquatic organisms, disrupting aquatic food webs and biodiversity.	Auta et al. (2017)
	Chemical Contamination: Microplastics adsorb toxic chemicals like heavy metals, pesticides, and persistent organic pollutants (POPs) from surrounding water.	Toxic substances can enter the food chain, accumulating in organisms and affecting their health and survival. Potential for bioaccumulation and biomagnification in the food web.	Teuten et al. (2009)
	Habitat Disruption: Microplastics accumulate in sediment and affect water quality by disrupting light penetration, which impacts plant growth and photosynthesis.	Changes in water quality can affect aquatic ecosystems, reduce oxygen levels, and disrupt habitats, leading to adverse effects on plant and animal life.	Wright et al. (2013)

	Ecosystem Imbalance: Microplastics interfere with the feeding efficiency of organisms such as filter-feeders (e.g., mussels, oysters), causing imbalances in ecosystems. Toxicity of	Disruption of food sources and nutrient cycling in aquatic ecosystems, leading to decreased biodiversity and shifts in species composition.	Nelson et al. (2022)
	Additives: Microplastics contain and release toxic chemicals like phthalates and bisphenol A (BPA), which are endocrine disruptors.	Potential long- term health risks include hormone imbalances, reproductive and developmental issues, and increased risk of cancers.	Rochman et al. (2013)
	Bioaccumulation & Biomagnification: Toxic chemicals associated with microplastics can accumulate in marine organisms and biomagnify through the food chain.	Human consumption of contaminated seafood may lead to exposure to harmful chemicals that have accumulated in the food web, posing health risks.	Smith et al. (2018)
	Respiratory Issues: Airborne microplastics from environmental degradation can be inhaled, leading to respiratory issues.	Inhalation of microplastic particles can lead to lung inflammation, irritation, and long-term damage to lung tissues, increasing respiratory diseases.	Lusher et al. (2015)
	Widespread Environmental Contamination: Microplastics pollute freshwater, marine, and terrestrial ecosystems.	Microplastic pollution harms biodiversity, and cascading effects on human health, aquatic organisms, global ecosystem	Auta et al. (2017), Teuten et al. (2009), Wright et al. (2013), Nelson et al. (2022), Rochman et al. (2013), Smith et al. (2018), Lusher et al. (2015)

Conclusion

The physicochemical parameters of water are essential tools for assessing the quality of freshwater bodies and understanding their ecological health. These parameters, including temperature, pH, dissolved oxygen, turbidity, electrical conductivity, hardness, and the presence of heavy metals, provide comprehensive insights into the water's physical and chemical state. Monitoring these parameters is critical for identifying pollution sources, understanding the impacts of human activities, and ensuring the sustainability of water resources for various uses such as drinking, agriculture, and industry. Changes in these parameters, such as increased turbidity, reduced dissolved oxygen, or elevated concentrations of harmful chemicals and heavy metals, often signal pollution or environmental degradation. This underscores the importance of continuous monitoring and regulation to prevent the deterioration of water quality. Eutrophication, caused by excess nutrients, and contamination from industrial discharge or urban runoff are significant challenges that affect water quality and aquatic life. Understanding and managing these physicochemical factors can mitigate risks to public health, protect biodiversity, and promote better water management strategies. As human activities continue to exert pressure on freshwater ecosystems, it becomes increasingly important to adopt comprehensive water quality monitoring systems. Advances in analytical techniques and the inclusion of emerging contaminants in water quality assessments are also necessary to address new environmental challenges. Regular and thorough monitoring of physicochemical parameters, coupled with effective policy frameworks, is essential for safeguarding water resources and ensuring the health of aquatic ecosystems for future generations.

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest

References

- 1. Amlan, D., et al. (2005). "Biological Oxygen Demand." Environmental Science and Technology.
- 2. APHA, AWWA, WEF (2017). Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater. 23rd edition.
- 3. Auta, H.S., Emenike, C.U., & Fauziah, S.H. (2017). "Microplastic pollution in the marine environment: A review." Environmental Pollution, 223, 421-428.
- 4. Baron, J., & McKnight, D.M. (2004). "Water Chemistry and Biogeochemical Cycling in a Shallow, High-Altitude Lake." Hydrobiologia, 513, 19-31.
- 5. Benoit, J.M., & Gauthier, J. (2008). "Effects of urban pollution on the physicochemical quality of water in lakes and rivers in Quebec." Water Science and Technology, 58(10), 1993-2001.
- 6. Besseling, E., et al. (2017). "Methods for the detection and identification of microplastics in aquatic environments." Environmental Pollution, 229, 39-49.
- 7. Boyd, C.E. (2015). Water Quality: An Introduction. Springer.
- 8. Chapman, D. (1996). Water Quality Assessments: A Guide to Use of Biota, Sediments, and Water in Environmental Monitoring (2nd Edition). CRC Press.
- 9. Depledge, M.H., et al. (1992). "Toxicology and Environmental Chemistry." Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry.
- 10. Study and Interpretation of the Chemical Characteristics of Natural Water. USGS.
- 11. Horton, A.A., & Dixon, S.J. (2018). "Plastics and microplastics in the environment: From sources to impact." Science of the Total Environment, 627, 149-159.
- 12. Hughes, J.D., & Gochfeld, M. (2008). "Assessment of heavy metals and persistent organic pollutants in drinking water and sediments from selected lakes in northeastern New York." Journal of Environmental Science and Health, 43(8), 694-702.
- 13. EPA (2005). "Drinking Water Contaminants." U.S. Environmental Protection Agency.
- 14. Eerkes-Medrano, D., Thompson, R.C., & Aldridge, D.C. (2015). "Microplastics in freshwater systems: A review of the emerging threats, identification of knowledge gaps and prioritization of research needs." Water Research, 75, 63-82.
- 15. Fendall, L. S., & Sewell, M. A. (2009). "Contributing to marine pollution by washing your face: Microplastics in facial cleansers." Marine Pollution Bulletin, 58(8), 1225-1228.
- 16. Frère, L., et al. (2019). "Microplastic contamination in the waters of the Southern Ocean." Science of the Total Environment, 666, 352–360.

- 17. Galloway, T.S., Lewis, C.N., & McDonald, S. (2017). "Marine microplastics: The threat to ecosystems and human health." Environmental Science & Technology, 51(21), 13007-13020.
- 18. Gauthier, J.M., et al. (1995). "Toxic Organic Chemicals in Water." Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry.
- 19. Gaur, J.P. (2017). Water Quality Monitoring and Management. Springer.
- 20. Hem, J.D. (1985).). "A comprehensive review on the physicochemical properties of water bodies and their role in water quality management." Environmental Management, 18(2), 215–231.
- 21. Khan, A.M., & Khan, M.A. (2009). "Environmental monitoring of drinking water and its physicochemical analysis." Environmental Earth Sciences, 58, 1079–1087.
- 22. Koelmans, A. A., et al. (2019). "Microplastics in freshwater systems: A review of methods, occurrences, and effects." Science of the Total Environment, 646, 779-791.
- 23. Lusher, A.L., & McHugh, M. (2015). "The impacts of microplastics on human health." Science of the Total Environment, 518-519, 94-102.
- 24. Lusher, A.L., et al. (2017). "Microplastic sampling and analysis: A review of current methods." Environmental Science & Technology, 51(3), 1049–1056.
- 25. Mielke, H.W., & Reagan, P.L. (1998). "Lead in the environment: A review of toxicological and epidemiological data." Environmental Research.
- 26. Michel, S., et al. (2021). "Recent developments in microplastic analysis methods: A comprehensive review." Environmental Science & Technology, 55(5), 2391–2409.
- 27. Nelson, K., Ziegler, S., & Claessen, D. (2022). "Microplastics in freshwater ecosystems: Potential impacts on aquatic species." Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry, 41(5), 1262-1272.
- 28. Odum, E.P. (1971). Fundamentals of Ecology. Saunders College Publishing.
- 29. O'Brien, J., et al. (2017). "A new methodology for the identification and quantification of microplastics in marine water samples using fluorescence microscopy." Marine Pollution Bulletin, 114(1), 445-451.
- 30. Prata, J. C., et al. (2020). "Microplastics in water: Analytical methods and future directions." Science of the Total Environment, 703, 135525.
- 31. Rahman, M., et al. (2009). "Arsenic contamination in water and human health: A review." Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology.
- 32. Raja, P., & Kundu, A. (2012). "Water Quality Parameters and Their Impact on Water Resources." International Journal of Environmental Sciences, 3(4), 1865–1871.
- 33. Rai, L.C., & Sinha, R.K. (1985). "Physicochemical and biological properties of water in the river Ganga and its tributaries." Water Research, 19(9), 1205-1211.
- 34. Rochman, C.M., Browne, M.A., Halpern, B.S., et al. (2013). "Policy: Classify plastic waste as hazardous." Science, 339(6122), 168-169.
- 35. Schlesinger, W.H. (1997). Biogeochemistry: An Analysis of Global Change. Academic Press.
- 36. Said, S., & Hossain, S. (2010). "The assessment of water quality parameters: A study of the Buriganga River, Bangladesh." Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 165, 421–429.
- 37. Shao, S., et al. (2020). "Microplastics in aquatic environments: Detection, fate, and risks." Environmental Pollution, 257, 113427.
- 38. Singh, S.K., & Mishra, V.K. (2014). "Study of Physicochemical Properties of Water of River Ganges at Varanasi." Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 21, 8121–8128.
- 39. Smith, M., Love, D.C., & Shanta, A. (2018). "Human exposure to microplastics and potential health implications." Science Advances, 4(8), eaap0079.
- 40. Smith, V.H. (2003). "Eutrophication of freshwater and coastal marine ecosystems." Environmental Science & Technology.
- 41. Teuten, E.L., Saquing, J.M., Knappe, D.R.U., et al. (2009). "Transport and release of chemicals from plastics to the environment and to wildlife." Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 364(1526), 2027-2045.
- 42. Tchobanoglous, G., & Schroeder, E.D. (1985). Water Quality: Characteristics, Modeling, Modification. Addison-Wesley.
- 43. Trivedi, R.K., & Goel, P.K. (1986). Chemical and Biological Methods for Water Pollution Studies. Environmental Publication.
- 44. United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) (2007). Global Environment Outlook: Water Quality. UNEP.
- 45. Wetzel, R.G. (2001). Limnology: Lake and River Ecosystems. Academic Press.

- 46. Wright, S.L., Thompson, R.C., & Galloway, T.S. (2013). "The physical impacts of microplastics on marine organisms: A review." Environmental Pollution, 178, 483-492.
- 47. Zhao, Z., et al. (2022). "Microplastics in the oceans: Distribution, sources, and potential impacts." Marine Pollution Bulletin, 169, 112548.

