

Utilization of Multi-Tasking Non-Edible Plants for Phytoremediation and Bioenergy Source-A Review

Ibrahim M. Abdelsalam¹, Mostafa Elshobary^{1,3,*}, Mohamed M. Eladawy¹ and Mohammed Nagah²

¹Botany Department, Faculty of Science, Tanta University, Tanta, 31527, Egypt.

²Microbial Chemistry Department, National Research Centre, Dokki, Cairo, 12622, Egypt.

³School of Food & Biological Engineering, Jiangsu University, China.

*Corresponding Author: Mostafa Elshobary. Email: mostafa_elshobary@science.tanta.edu.eg; mostafaelshobary@ujs.edu.cn.

Abstract: Heavy metal contamination of land and freshwater resources is a serious concern worldwide. It adversely affects the health of animals, plants and humans. Therefore, remediation of toxic heavy metals must be highly considered. Unlike other techniques, phytoremediation is a holistic technology and can be used in large scale for soil remediation as it is costless, novel, environmentally-safe and solar-driven technology. Utilization of non-edible plants in phytoremediation is an ingenious technique as they are used to generate new bioenergy resources along with the remediation of contaminated soils. Some nonfood bioenergy crops such as *Salix* species, *Miscanthus* species, *Populus* species, *Eucalyptus* species, and *Ricinus communis* exhibit high capability to accumulate various metals and to grow in contaminated lands. However, there are still sustainable challenges facing coupling phytoremediation with bioenergy production from polluted lands. Therefore, there has long been a need for developing different strategies to resolve such challenges. In this article review, we will discuss the phytoremediation mechanism, the technique of phytoremediation coupling with bioenergy production, sustainable problems facing linking phytoremediation with energy production as well as possible strategies to enhance the efficiency of bioenergy plants for soil decontamination by improving their characteristics such as metal uptake, transport, accumulation, and tolerance.

Keywords: Bioenergy plants; heavy metals; phytoremediation; non-edible plants; mechanism

1 Introduction

Due to rapid industrial development, toxic chemical and metal accumulation indiscreetly increase in the environment posing risks to public health, natural habitat, and ecosystem as a whole [1-3]. Contamination of soil with heavy metals is a serious global problem. More than one-third of the worldwide land resources are heavily contaminated due to anthropogenic activities [4]. Moreover, there are around 200,000 areas in Sweden, France, Hungary, Slovakia, and Austria polluted with heavy metals. Meanwhile, in Greece and Poland, 10,000 sites are listed as heavy metal contaminated areas [5]. Leakage of polluted water into the soil, leading to impurity of surface and benthic water resources [6,7]. Heavy metals decrease stomatal conductance, transpiration rate and leaf water content causing water stress in some plants by decreasing the number and size of xylem vessels and chloroplasts [8]. These metals can accumulate in edible parts of the plant and thus enter into the food chain. Hence, it is requisite to remediate these contaminated sites to reduce health-related risks and conserve available soil for food production.

The traditional physicochemical techniques to decontaminate the polluted soil such as soil washing, soil vapor extraction, solidification, stabilization, vitrification, electro kinetic, etc. have hazardous effects including irretrievably soil quality and biodiversity destruction [9]. Hence, there are strong demands of

effective, economical, and eco-friendly techniques for soil remediation without affecting soil quality and fertility. Phytoremediation could be more accepted technique than others that can be applied to contaminated sites without any noteworthy destruction to the ecosystem. Involvement of non-edible dedicated energy crops in the remediation of heavy metal-impacted soils is a promising approach as these plants can be used to furnish some benefits of ecosystem facilities such as carbon sequestration, biodiversity augmentation, salinity reduction as well as soil and water quality amelioration along with their exploitation for phytoremediation and energy production [10,11]. Potential of bioenergy plants can be developed through different biological and genetic engineering techniques to enhance their ability to remove heavy metals from contaminated sites. In this review, we will comprehensively discuss promising and dedicated non-edible bioenergy plants for phytoremediation and bioenergy production, perspective issues of involvement of such bioenergy plants in phytoremediation as well as the scope of biological and genetic engineering tools to develop efficient bioenergy plants with high potential for phytoremediation of hazardous metals.

2 Heavy Metals: Definition, Origin, and Toxicity

Heavy metals are natural constituents of the earth's crust [12,13]. Some heavy metals are classified as essential such as Fe, Mn, Co, Zn, and Mo as they are required tremendously for carrying out different biological processes [14]. Others including Hg, Pu, Cd, and Pb are classified as non-essential as they do not have any biological function. They are deleterious to the biological system even at lower concentrations [15,16]. Heavy metals originate typically in the soil and water from the natural process of the earth's crust. However, many anthropogenic activities have immensely increased their discharge into the ecosystem such as mining, deposition of industrial wastes urbanization, smelting of ores, and agricultural activities including application of pesticides, sewage sludge, and fertilizers containing heavy metals [17,18].

In contrast to other pollutants, heavy metals cannot be degraded chemically or biologically and are ultimately persistent. Continuous accumulation of toxic metals in food causing oxidative stress which is a critical threat to human health due to over-production of ROS, upper gastrointestinal cancer and many immunological syndromes including carcinogenic effects, teratogenesis, and mutagenesis [19]. Other human health diseases caused by heavy metal contamination include cardiovascular disease, chronic anemia and cognitive impairment [20], nervous system, brain [21], skin, teeth, bone [22], and much more. Some heavy metals and their negative effects have been compiled in Tab. 1. Therefore, it is important to develop efficacious approaches to remove these toxic metals from impacted soils. Different physical, chemical and biological methods utilized for heavy metal remediation are still suffering from many limitations like high cost, long time application, and mechanical complexity. Phytoremediation, meanwhile, is a holistic, promising and universally accepted technology as it is cost-effective, novel and environmentally-friendly approach [2].

Table 1: Some heavy metals and their negative impacts

Heavy metal	Atomic number	Source	Remarks	Negative impacts
Arsenic (As)	33	Industrial activity is the main source of Arsenic that can be transferred by air [23].	As is a very toxic element that presents in different forms such as organic arsenic species, inorganic arsenic compounds, and arsine gas.	As affects crop production and creates human health risks and even death. It can cause DNA breakdown [24,25].
Lead (Pb)	82	Natural sources, industrial sites, leaded fuels and orchards [26].	Pb is a highly toxic element. It is non-biodegradable and remains in the environment for a very	It is harmful to humans, animals, plants, and microbes and causes mental retardation and brain damage [27].

			long time.	
Mercury (Hg)	80	Mining, petrochemical, painting industries, fertilizers, medical instruments, etc. [28].	Hg is a toxic element with a high bioaccumulation potential in living organisms.	Mercury conflicts with electron transport in organelles causing disorder in oxidation reactions and photosynthesis process. In human beings, toxic effects of mercury include neurological and renal disorders [29].
Antimony (Sb)	51	Mining and smelting of metalliferous ores, municipal wastes, fertilizers, pesticides and sewage [30].	Sb is a toxic metal contamination of soil and groundwater poses major environmental and human health problem [31].	Antimony is a toxic trace element of growing interest due to the increased anthropogenic input into the environment [32]. It is known to provoke DNA damage [33], disturb the hematic and gastrointestinal systems [34].
Chromium (Cr)	24	The main source of Cr in leather industry as it can escape in large quantity into the effluent [35].	Cr compounds are highly toxic. They pose serious threats to biological and ecological systems [36].	Cr has a negative effect on growth, development, and reproduction of vascular plants. Cr is responsible for different diseases in human beings such as respiratory disorders, lung Infection, diarrhea/dysentery, and typhoid [37,38].
Nickel (Ni)	28	Industrialization, sewage, chemical fertilizer and pesticide utilization [39].	Nickel is naturally occurring in the soil and water in small amounts.	High concentration of Ni inhibits mitotic activities, reduces plant growth, and nitrogen metabolism [40]. In addition, it has haematotoxic, immunotoxic, neurotoxic, pulmonary toxic, nephrotoxic, hepatotoxic and carcinogenic effects on humans and animals [41].

3 Phytoremediation

Phytoremediation is an emerging technique involves utilization of plants for decontamination of soil and/or water depending on their natural ability to absorb, accumulate and degrade contaminants from the media of interest. Such plants can be used for mineralization and immobilization of toxic compounds in the root zone, and for accumulation and concentration of metals and other inorganic compounds extracted from the soil into their aerial portions as well [16,42]. Generally, plants take up the contaminants without harming topsoil. They are found to conserve its utility and improve its fertility with inputs of organic matter [43]. Phytoremediation approach has emerged recently with research studies carried out, particularly during the last two decades. The idea of phytoremediation is aesthetically appealing and gains public acceptance. It can be applied at large field sites where other remediation techniques are expensive and impractical. Additionally, phytoremediation of contaminated soils has economic importance as it can be used for decreasing risk containments (phytostabilization), phytoextraction of valuable metals such as Hg, Ag and Ni, and efficacious land management [44]. The establishment of green plants for heavy metal remediation is a generally accepted approach as green remediation of hazardous metals and metalloids a convenient of physical and chemical remedial strategies [44].

Mechanism of Phytoremediation

Phytoremediation comprises seven major techniques which are phytoextraction, phytostabilization, phytovolatilization, rhizofiltration, Phytofiltration, Phytodesalination, and phytodegradation.

In general, plant uptake metals according to the bioavailability of heavy metals and plant nutrients in soil solution. Such bioavailability is influenced by several factors such as plant species, root zone, environmental condition, root structure, as well as physical, chemical and biological properties of soil [5]. Absorption of essential and non-essential elements from the soil occurs in response to concentration gradient and selective uptake of ions or by diffusion [45]. Plant root surface adsorbs metals in cationic form as the cell wall contains cellulose, pectins, and glycoproteins that act as specific ion exchangers [46]. Uptake of heavy metal ions from contaminated environments is dominated by specialized transporters such as Zinc Iron Protein (ZIP) family, natural resistance-associated macrophage protein (NRAMP) family and copper transporter (CTR) family. Heavy metals such as Fe, Mn, and Zn are reported to be accumulated by ZIP family [47]. Meanwhile, NRAMP is responsible for the transportation of Cd, Ni, Zn, Fe, Cu inside the root [48,49], and CTR family is specialized for the accumulation of Cu, Co, Ni and many other metals [50,51]. In plant roots, heavy metals may either accumulate in root tissues (phytoimmobilization) or translocated to the shoot via symplastic and/or apoplastic pathways where they are generally accumulated in vacuoles. It is necessary for plants to adopt a tolerance mechanism to keep hazardous metals away from cellular metabolic processes. There are five processes involved in phytoextraction mechanism; metal mobilization in soil and water resources, uptake of metal ions by plant roots, translocation towards aerial plant parts, storage of metals in plant tissues and heavy metal tolerance [44]. Plant tolerance mechanism involves (1) biosynthesis of reactive oxygen scavenger enzymes such as ascorbate peroxidase, catalase, superoxide dismutase, glutathione S-transferase, glutathione reductase, and proline [52-57], (2) biosynthesis of phytochelatins [58,59], (3) biosynthesis of metallothioneins [60,61], and (4) biosynthesis of ferritins [62]. These mechanisms enhance plant tolerance and improve the metal-accumulating ability of plants even at high contamination levels. A brief sketch of the mechanism of phytoremediation of heavy metals is given in Fig. 1.

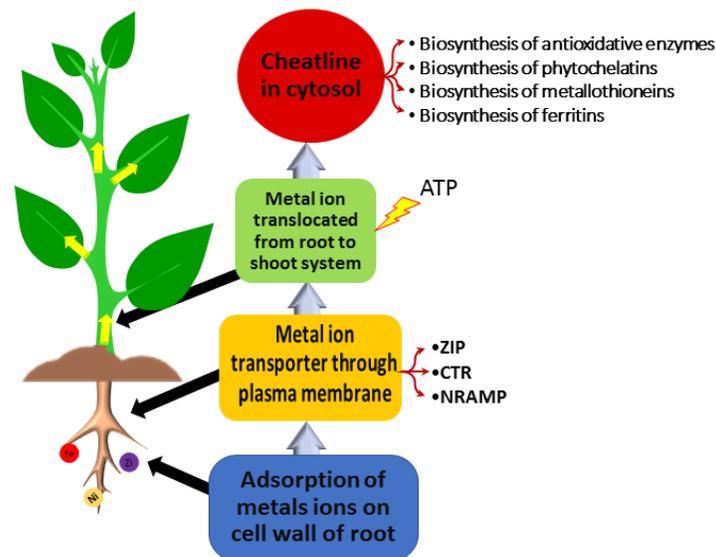


Figure 1: Mechanism of phytoremediation

4 Utilization of Phytoremediation Biomass for Bioenergy Generation

Fossil fuel depletion and fast growth of the global population have led to a rapid increase in energy demand. With present consumption rate, earth oil resources may run out by 2050 [63,64]. In the search for sustainable, biodegradable, and zero-carbon emission fuel, utilization of bioenergy plants in

phytoremediation programs is an innovative approach to produce new economically, and eco-friendly bioenergy resources along with the remediation of metal impacted soils and groundwater [4]. One major problem facing the commercial application of phytoremediation is the disposal of contaminated biomass. After each harvesting, the plant is transformed from the site loaded with huge quantity of contaminants. These contaminants should be stored or disposed safely in order not to cause any risk to our system. In this regard, biomass derived from bioenergy plants can be utilized to produce environmentally safer and more sustainable energy sources of economic value compared to fossil fuels. Bioenergy produced from plants is affected by biomass feedstock and land use that can interfere with food production causing food scarcity. Therefore, it should be noted that land use for bioremediation cannot be used at the same time for edible crop production to ensure food safety. Moreover, large biomass produced from plants during phytoremediation has plenty amounts of high caloric molecules such as hemicellulose, cellulose, lignin and minor amounts of other organic compounds that can be used to produce different types of biofuels when treated thermochemically through gasification or pyrolysis [5,65] (Tab. 2). Some non-edible plants that are cultivated in heavy metal contaminated soils have higher ability to produce oil under heavy metal stress than control that is suitable for biodiesel production.

Besides its utilization as an oil source for biofuel production, these plants can provide other benefits such as prevention of erosion (anti-erosion), and establishment of wildlife habitats [66].

On the other hand, it was observed that the metal(loid) content in pretreated ash recovered from the thermochemical process is more concentrated compared to that in the untreated biomass, due to effective substrate reduction during the thermo-chemical process leading to more easily and cost-less retrieval of these metal(loid). This help avoids the cost of disposal for large quantities of biomass and saves the environment [67]. Consequently, phytoremediation technology satisfies both requirements for cost-less land reclamation, biofuel production and element recovery from biomass tissues. Fig. 2 summarized the integrated phytoremediation concept coupling remediation with bioenergy production from biomass and metal(loid)s recovery.

5 Potential Non-Edible Plants for Phytoremediation and Bioenergy

Non-edible bioenergy plants utilized for bioremediation of contaminated soils are highly diverse. Therefore, current reviews tended to focus on identifying the most potential and dedicated non-edible bioenergy crops that show great ability to remediate metal-impacted soils. This is because utilization of edible crops for soil remediation along with energy production has three main disadvantages. Firstly, they affect food security and increase the cost of food products. Secondly, the edible parts (e.g., grains) are the main accumulators for heavy metals lead to several detrimental effects on human and animal health. Finally, cultivation of edible plants for bioenergy production and bioremediation limits arable land and decreases water availability. Non-edible plants, meanwhile, can be cultivated in unproductive, non-arable lands and degraded forests using waste water. These three disadvantages diminish edible plant potential for phytoremediation. However, these problems can be overcome by cultivating nonedible bioenergy plants that provide high energetic biomass content in short-rotation period. This review takes a closer look at 5 of best nonfood bioenergy plants utilized for phytoremediation and bioenergy production. Other potential non-edible bioenergy plants utilized for such dual purposes are summarized in Tab. 3.

Table 2: Some techniques for contaminated biomass treatment, remarks, and example of non-edible plants

Biomass treatment	Description	Remarks	Examples	References
Anaerobic digestion	This method is depending on anaerobic microorganisms to break down organic complex compounds to simple ones while simultaneously generating biogas as a final product.	Economical technique with low-cost requirement [68].	<i>Salix viminalis</i> , <i>poplar spp.</i> , <i>Miscanthus spp.</i>	[69,70]
Pyrolysis	Pyrolysis is an innovative method of contaminated plant material and waste treatment [71]. It depends on exposing the biomass to high temperatures (< 430°C) under anaerobic and pressurized conditions [72].	Pyrolysis is one of the fastest and most effective methods for the disposal of contaminated biomass [65]. Pyrolysis temperature improves the bioavailability of heavy metals by converting them into more stable oxide forms [73].	<i>Eucalyptus occidentalis</i> , <i>Populus deltoids</i> , <i>Salix schwerinii</i>	[74-76]
Hydrothermal liquefaction	Hydrothermal liquefaction is a thermochemical conversion of wet biomass into bio-oil and gaseous products under the sub-/super-critical water system, high pressure and moderate temperature [77].	It is an effective technique to convert biomass into biofuels with less energy consumption compared to pyrolysis and gasification [78,79].	<i>Poplar spp.</i>	[80]
Gasification	Gasification is the process concluded that biomass feedstock can be subjected to a series of chemical changes to generate clean and combusive gas at high thermal efficiencies [81].	Suitable for recycling wet biomass to produce synthesis gas with a higher percentage of hydrogen [72].	<i>Poplar spp.</i>	[82]

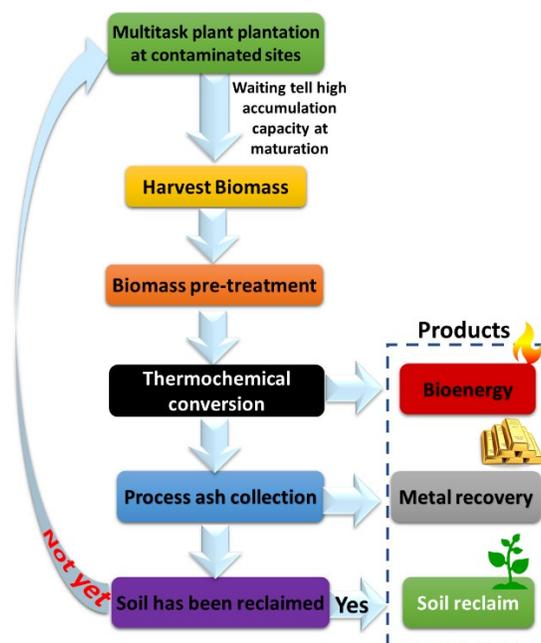


Figure 2: Coupling phytoremediation with bioenergy production from biomass and metal(loid)s recovery

Table 3: Other potential non-edible bioenergy plants utilized for phytoremediation and bio energy production

Bioenergy plants	Metal(s)	Remarks	Plant parts	References
<i>Jatropha curcas</i>	Fe, Al, Cr, Cu, Mn	The plant shows high ability to accumulate Fe and Mn in its root and Cu, Al, and Cr in its shoot.	Shoots and roots	[83]
<i>Helianthus annuus</i>	Cd, Cr, As	<i>H. annuus</i> can be used to remediate soils contaminated with Cd, Cr, and As.	Biomass	[84]
<i>Panicum virgatum</i>	Cd, Cr, Ni, As, Fe	Efficient plant for phytoremediation of metal-polluted sites.	Biomass	[85,86]
<i>Pisum sativum</i>	Pb	<i>P. sativum</i> is a good accumulator of Pb.	Shoots	[87]
<i>Salix matsudana</i>	Pb	<i>Salix matsudana</i> could accumulate a high concentration of Pb.	Roots	[88]
<i>Phragmites australis</i>	Zn, Pb	Moderately accumulator and tolerant species to Zn and Pb.	Roots	[89]
<i>Phalari arundinacea</i>	Cr, Ni, Pb	Phytoremediation of soil contaminated with different heavy metals	Aerial parts and roots	[90,91]
<i>Hibiscus cannabinus</i> L.	Cd, Zn	The plant shows high potential for accumulation of Cd and Zn when grown in lysimetres containing dredging sludge	Shoots	[92]
<i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L.	Cd, Ni, Cu, Fe, Zn	The plant is used for phytoremediation of soil contaminated with Cd, Ni, and	Stems	[93-95]

other heavy metals.				
<i>Arundo donax</i>	Zn, Cr, Pb, Ni	<i>A. donax</i> is suitable for Zn and Ni phytoextraction.	Roots	[96,97]
<i>Azadiractha indica</i>	Zn, Pb, Cd	<i>A. indica</i> accumulates large concentrations of Zn, Pb and Cd especially in leaves.	Leaves and Stems	[98]
<i>Acacia nilotica</i>	Fe, Zn, Mg, Cu, Mn	<i>A. nilotica</i> can be used for accumulation of various heavy metals.	Barks	[99]
<i>Sapiam sebiferum</i>	Pb, Zn	<i>S. sebiferum</i> is a good candidate for phytostabilization of Pb and Zn.	Roots	[100]
<i>Pennisetum purpureum</i>	Cd	<i>P. purpureum</i> has high biomass production and remediation potential.	Roots and Leaves	[101]
<i>Cannabis sativa</i>	Ni, Pb, Zn, Cr, Cd	<i>Cannabis sativa</i> is effectively used for phytoremediation of sites contaminated with Cd, Ni, Pb, Zn, and Cr.	Leaves and Roots	[102,103, 104,105]

5.1 *Salix* Species

Salix is a diversified genus with respect to biomass productivity and ability to absorb and tolerate heavy metal ions [106-108]. *Salix* species are fast-growing plants that produce high biomass content [108,109,110], and sequester more carbon compared to softwoods during the growing season. Hence, they are considered one of the most promising biofuels in many countries [111]. Erect stems, capability of rapid growth, and extensive root development are the main characteristics that make *Salix* species suitable for biomass coppice [112]. *Salix* species not only have high biomass content but also exhibit significant ability to remediate various metals from contaminated soils. They are considered as efficient bioindicators of heavy metal pollution. They have the potency for high Cd and Zn accumulation when cultivated in sites of low metal content [113]. Kuzovkina & Quigley [114] grew five different *Salix* species under Cu and Cd to estimate their phytoremediation efficiency and concluded that these species could highly tolerate Cu and Cd, and *S. nigra* was the most tolerable to both metals. Additionally, it was reported that *Salix alba*, *S. viminalis*, and *S. schwerinii* are potential species used for phytoextraction of Zn, Cd, Cu, Hg, Pb, Cd from contaminated soils [115,116]. *Salix petersiana* accumulated high concentrations of Cd in its leaves and bark that accounted for 50-80% of absorbed Cd [108], and showed maximum proficiency of Cd accumulation when harvested every two years. *Salix subfragilis* is used as a bioindicator for Cd, Pb, Mn, Cu, and Zn. Cd, Pb, and Mn were observed in the leaves, whereas Cd, Pb, and Zn were generally higher in stems than in leaves [113]. These findings suggest the potential role of *Salix* species for the remediation of numerous heavy metals from contaminated soils and groundwater.

5.2 *Miscanthus* Species

Miscanthus is a C4-perennial rhizomatous grass. The genus *Miscanthus* is known to originate in the tropics and subtropics, while other species are found throughout a wide climatic range in East Asia [117,118]. The genus *Miscanthus* includes around 17 species of perennial rhizomatous tall grasses native to subtropical and tropical regions originating from Asia. Among them, *M. tinctorius*, *M. sinensis* and *M. sacchariflora* are key biomass energy crops [117,119]. *Miscanthus* species are characterized by high biomass production with relatively low maintenance and high yield/energy content. Therefore, they are considered as excellent candidates for the production of renewable fuels and chemical materials via thermochemical conversion processes [120,121]. In addition, it has been believed that by 2050 *M. giganteus* may supply up to 12% of the European Union's energy demand [122]. One key aspect of research is the management of *Miscanthus* to stabilize or remove heavy metals and other pollutants at excellent levels besides its high biofuel productivity. *Miscanthus* species have proven to be excellent phytoremediators for different heavy

metals such as As, Cu, Pb, Ni, Cd, and Zn from polluted soils and water [123]. They exhibit a complete accumulation capacity for Cd, Pb, and Zn from polluted water samples. In case of the soil, meanwhile, maximum absorption around 97.7% has been reported.

The most common species of *Miscanthus* is *Miscanthus giganteus* L. This grass is well suited for phytoremediation of soils contaminated with Cr [124,125], and Zn [126]. Korzeniowska & Stanislawska-Glubiak [127] reported that *M. giganteus* is a tolerant plant to soils contaminated with Cu, Ni, and Zn. Recently, it has been reported that *M. giganteus* can also successfully stabilize the soil near closed coal, Pb, Zn and Cd mines [128].

5.3 *Populus* Species

Populus L. (*Salicaceae*) comprises about 30 species [129] widely dispersed in the forests of temperate and cold regions of the Northern Hemisphere. *Populus* species are distinguished by high yield production, high rates of transpiration, extensive roots, and easy propagation [130]. Therefore, they are widely used for remediating metal-impacted sites. Kubátová et al. [131] tested the ability of *Populus* clones for the phytoextraction process using *Populus maximowiczii* × and *Populus nigra* and revealed that these plants are capable of accumulating high amounts of Cd, Pb and Zn when cultivated in contaminated sites especially during Summer harvesting. Recently, *Populus alba* has proven successfully its phytoremediation potential for As, Cd, Cu, and Zn [132]. *Populus* species not only open up new possibilities for phytoextraction but also for stabilizing contaminated sites to limit the release of toxic metals into the soil profile (i.e., phytostabilization) [133,134]. Furthermore, *Populus* species derived from phytoremediation systems are environmentally accepted biomass sources for bioenergy and wood production [107,135]. Hybrid poplar can produce up to 22 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ of above ground biomass at certain sites [136]. Recently, sequencing of *poplar* genome has been proven to be a promising technique for tailoring new clones optimized for biofuels production [137].

5.4 *Eucalyptus* Species

Eucalyptus is an aromatic plant belongs to *Myrtaceae* Family and of more than 700 species widely distributed throughout the world. *Eucalyptus* species are capable of providing foresters and farmers with a resource of fast-growing species able to grow under a wide range of climatic factors according to the type of species being used [138,139]. Several features including rapid growth rate, propagation by stem and tolerance to adverse environmental conditions have contributed to the success of *Eucalyptus* in phytoremediation programs [140]. In this regard, *E. camadulensis* shows high tendency to concentrate lead (Pb) in its shoots and to dissolve metals in the soil [141]. In addition, *E. camaldulenses* is known to tolerate high soluble Cd concentrations that were affected by changes in both anatomical and physiological features of this plant [142,143]. Moreover, Arriagada et al. [140] found that *Eucalyptus globulus* assimilates 9.9 mg kg⁻¹ Cd in its shoots, suggesting that it can be a promising candidate for phytoremediation. [143] concluded that *Eucalyptus globulus* is suitable for phytoremediation of Fe, Cr, Mn, Ni, Cd, Pb, Zn and Cu from contaminated sites. In fact, *Eucalyptus* species can also be utilized as a source for energy production. According to Green [144], Lemon or lemon-scented *Eucalyptus* (*E. citriodora*), Tasmanian blue gum (*E. globulus*), blue mallee (*E. polybractea*), and River red gum (*E. camaldulensis*) are considered as the most common *Eucalyptus* oil yielding species. Additionally, several indirect services can be obtained from *Eucalyptus* species such as fuel production as well as reduction of atmospheric carbon dioxide levels [145,146].

5.5 *Ricinus Communis*

Ricinus communis (castor oil plant) (*Euphorbiaceae*) is a flowering plant grown in sandy soils, creek banks, and gullies. *Ricinus communis* is characterized by growth under salinity and drought stress and is able to produce twelve-fold higher biomass [147]. It can be utilized for phytoremediation and bioenergy

production as it has an excellent ability to grow on heavily polluted soils together with its high capacity for metal ion accumulation and fast growth rate [54,102,147]. Also, castor plant has other multiple uses such as utilization for the production of industrial, pharmaceutical and cosmetic commodities [147]. *R. communis* can remediate area polluted with high concentrations of Cu, Zn, Mn, Pb and Cd [148]. It is reported that *R. communis* has a good phytoremediation potential for soils contaminated with Cd, Co, Ni and Pb [149]. In addition, castor bean seedlings are able to accumulate high amounts of Cu, Cd, and Pb in their roots and shoots [150-152]. Other studies have documented that *R. communis* plant has the ability to extract various heavy metals such as Cd, Zn, Cr, CU, Pb, Mn and Fe when cultivated in fly ash contaminated lands [153,154]. Regarding bioenergy, *R. communis* is used for bioethanol and biogas production due to its rapid growth and high cellulosic biomass yield. In addition, *R. communis* is considered as a promising source for biodiesel production [155]. Castor oil has high concentrations of ricinoleic acid (12-hydroxy-9-octadecenoic acid) that constitutes 89% of oil used for biodiesel production [156], as it has a double bond close to OH group that enhances its physical and chemical properties [157].

6 Strategy for Enhancing Phytoremediation Potential of Bioenergy Plants

There are two feasible strategies for enhancing the phytoremediation potential of bioenergy plants.

6.1 Genetic Engineering

Genetic engineering of plants is a promising technique to improve the adsorption capability of metals via the formation of metal chelators as various genes are required for metal uptake, translocation or even sequestration into plant parts. Gene transfer into candidate plants results in improved metal uptake, translocation, and sequestration. Therefore, it could be a possible technique to develop genetically engineered plants with improved phytoremediation traits [5,158,159]. Genetic engineering technique has been effectively applied to alter biological functions of plants through modifications of primary and secondary metabolism and by adding new traits of different phenotypes and genotypes to enhance the phytoremediation properties of these plants [159]. Several genes can be used for developing transgenic plants with a higher ability to accumulate various heavy metals such as CAD1, CAX-2, GshI, GshII, PCS, Gst, AtPers and AtNramps [160,161]. These genes can also be applied to bioenergy crops to improve their phytoremediation capability. An example of transgenic plants is *Arabidopsis thaliana* that overexpresses AtSAP13 in tolerance response to various toxic metals including As, Cd, and Zn [162]. DNA-protein interaction assays are used to analyze the mode of action of AtSAP13 proteins and their roles in response to multiple abiotic stresses [162]. Furthermore, Shim et al. [163] transformed a sterile line of poplar *Populus alba* X *P. tremula* var. *glandulosa* with a heavy metal resistance gene, ScYCF1 (yeast cadmium factor 1), and found that the transgenic plants accumulated increased amounts of Cd, Zn, and Pb in their roots. Also, bacterial merC gene has been introduced from the Tn 21- encoded mer-operon into *Arabidopsis*. This transgenic *Arabidopsis* has proven greater ability to extract more Cd than the wild-type [164]. Attention has been given to enhance the capability of plants to detoxify heavy metal ions in the cytoplasm through their inactivation via compartmentalization, chelation, or conversion of toxic ions into less toxic molecules. Heavy metal tolerance and phytoremediation potential of plants could be enhanced via modification or overexpression of enzymes involved in GSH and PCs synthesis in these plants. Bioenergy crops to be utilized in phytoremediation, should exhibit high biomass productivity along with high ability for metal accumulation. Scientists have utilized numerous molecular biology technologies to identify factors affecting biomass production such as genetic variation, canopy architecture and carbon allocation patterns. Poplar plants can display improved biomass (6%), increased amount of chlorophylls, proteins, and total sugars, and improved nitrogen utilization efficiency, especially in young leaves compared to non-transformed controls via overexpression of cytosolic glutamine synthetase (GS1) under elevated nitrogen levels [165]. In general, transgenic plants are arisen either to enhance immobilization or increase plant tolerance against heavy metals to facilitate more translocation and accumulation in aboveground plant parts, which lead to developed metal remediation potential of plants. However,

numerous obstacles are still there to overcome. One of them is that the majority of research has not been carried out in the field [166,167]. Therefore, application of risk assessment is necessary before utilizing genetically engineered plants in phytoremediation [168]. There are other risks including humans and wildlife exposure to metals, biotransformation of metals into more bioavailable forms, and unlimited prevalence of genetically engineered plants and restrained genetic diversity in native plants due to cross-pollination or interbreeding [169]. The public acceptance with the use of genetically engineered plants for phytoremediation is another issue. Societal consideration opposing genetically altered organisms is the hypothetical danger to human health and the possible dispersal of the transgene in the environment. Numerous governmental regulations are needed for releasing the genetically modified organism into the environment. Recently, modern approaches have been developed to produce transgenic plants free of marker-genes [170], thus ensure the safety of genetically modified crops and a wider range for their use [5].

6.2 Plant Growth Promoting Microorganisms (PGPMS)

The beneficial flora of microorganisms includes various fungi (arbuscular mycorrhiza fungi-AMF) and bacteria, usually referred to plant growth promoting bacteria (PGPB). PGPMS are beneficial for sustainable environmental conservation since they support plants by providing essential elements and being more tolerant to numerous biotic and abiotic stresses [171]. They also play a vital role in soil protection, biomass and biofuel production, and contaminant uptake [172]. PGPMS produce indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) and ACC deaminase, phosphate solubilizers, siderophore producers, and nitrogen fixers that promote plant tolerance to heavy metals mostly via modifying the bioavailability of these metals in the soil [42]. It is found that *R. communis* inoculated with *Pseudomonas* sp. produced high IAA content and showed an improved accumulation capacity for Ni, Cu, and Zn [173]. It was reported that *Brassica juncea* species grown on Pb-Zn mine tailings promote high rates of growth and biomass production upon inoculation with PGPR consortium containing N₂-fixing *Azotobacter chroococcum* HKN5, P-solubilising *Bacillus megaterium* HKP-1, and K-solubilising *Bacillus mucilaginosus* HKK-1 [174]. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) can also be utilized to enhance the process of phytoremediation and the growth of plants in metal-polluted soils. Sarkar et al. [175] demonstrated that inoculating *Miscanthus sacchariflorus* with AM fungi can improve Zn uptake from Zn-deficient soils and prevent extreme Zn accumulation in contaminated soils. Also, it is revealed that *Miscanthus × giganteus* treated with mycorrhizal inoculum (Solrize) shows enhanced efficiency to phytoremediate soils polluted with Cd-, Pb- and Zn [176,177]. Inoculating *Eucalyptus* species with two AF fungi (*Glomus deserticola* and *Trichoderma koningii*) improved their response to Cd (50 mg L⁻¹ Cd) [178]. Additionally, it is reported that AMF play other vital roles including salinity stress response, CO₂ utilization and plant growth promotion [179,180]. Research is continuing to develop the utilization of fungi and bacteria for the detoxification of polluted sites and for the optimization of the bioremediation and phytoremediation procedures worldwide.

7 Problems Facing the Involvement of Bioenergy Plants in Phytoremediation Approach

There is no doubt that remediation initiatives can improve stakeholder involvement (especially those who are living close to the contaminated and polluted environment). Developmental activities of highly growing population create soils contaminated with heavy metals and thus increase the pressure on the soil. This creates potential irreconcilable situations among the stakeholders [181]. Accordingly, there will be massive pressure on contaminated lands for human habitation due to the restriction of usable land. To avoid these issues, proper participation of respective stakeholders is pivotal for the success of multi-purpose clean-up processes such as site owners, local peoples, farmers, technology providers and consultants, remediation experts and sustainability assessors, regulatory agencies and certification bodies, bio-refineries and financial sponsors, NGOs, and other voluntary organizations [4].

Another problem concerns biomass utilization for bioenergy production due to the issue of contamination transfer and the content of heavy metals in the biomass. Contamination of the crop can

cause serious problems in subsequent stages of biofuel production, and the decision on whether crop capture of heavy metal should be fostered on a case-by-case basis. There must be an administration of crops or crop selections and clones can be performed to block capture of pollutants using excluders instead of hyperaccumulators [182]. Climatic factors affect the accumulation capacity of some plants and in some cases, pests and disease can prohibit the phytoremediation mechanism [183]. Moreover, the safety of phytoproducts should be taken into our consideration as previous research findings reported that these phytoproducts are easily contaminated by heavy metals causing human health issues [181,184-187]. Hence, coupling a strength, weakness, opportunities and threat analysis (SWOT analysis) with a detailed cost-benefit analysis (CBA) and social impact assessment (SIA) must be applied to ensure the sustainability of bioenergy production from polluted lands. These initiatives are necessary for the success of bioenergy production from polluted lands [4]. Other possible problems facing the involvement of bioenergy plants in phytoremediation approach are summarized in Tab. 4.

Table 4: Constraints and problems facing the involvement of bioenergy plants in phytoremediation approach

Constraints and problems	Drawbacks	The bright side
Loss of biodiversity	Anthropogenic activity has a serious impact on species diversity causing several species to be exposed to the danger of extinction. Large scale monoculture for bioenergy and bioremediation also increases this dangerous [188,189], especially if these species have high propagation rate that allows them to be highly invasive [10,188].	Perennial coculturing provides a low-impact, less polluting, and more effectual substitute to annual single-species cultivation. Furthermore, using diverse native perennial grasses such as <i>Miscanthus</i> may be a probable option instead of monoculture [190,191].
Land use change	Land use change is a major disadvantage of the large-scale plantation [191-193]. Changing land use has serious effects on the ecosystem [188,194], and the scarcity of food and fodder [195].	Contaminated lands are inappropriate for agricultural purpose, so it may be used for energy crop production without affecting food production.
Nutrient loss from the soil	Energy crops require large quantity of nutrients such as nitrogen and phosphorus for propagation leading to nutrient loss from the soil [188,189,196].	Firewood combustion residue that contains both micro- and macro-nutrients required for plant growth and development, can be used to minimize nutrient loss from the soil and improve crop yields and soil properties [197].
Seed poisoning	Seeds are the main storage organ for the contaminants in seed oil producing energy crops. Contaminated seeds are highly toxic for wildlife as well as human beings [198].	Using non-edible plants is a good option to reduce this risk, especially if non-edible seedless bioenergy plants.
Much water requirement	Water shortage in agriculture sector reduces productivity in many countries. Most of energy plants require high water content for their propagation [196,199].	In such condition of rainfed agriculture or water scarcity region, it is not acceptable to cultivate high water requiring energy crops [200].

8 Conclusion

Some interesting facts concerning non-edible plants utilized for bioenergy production along with phytoremediation of heavy metal-impacted soils are revealed in this review.

- There is no doubt that phytoremediation is an appropriate approach for the decontamination of metal-impacted sites. Not only this method decreases the pollutants, but also produces biomass and byproduct, which can be utilized for biofuel production.
- Non-edible plants are the most promising multi-tasking species as they exhibit a wide range of advantages such as fast propagation, low competition for arable lands and source for animal and/or human food.
- Deriving biofuel from phytoremediation not only helps in fulfilling the global energy demand but also offers a path for encouraging a biobased economy for feasible development.
- Selection of the non edible plant is a characteristic key for efficient phytoremediation and bioenergy production process.
- As the biomass of such plants consists of noticeable amounts of hazard contaminants, the fate of these toxins should be considered prior to their utilization for various aspects.
- Research is being conducted to develop genetically modified plants with improved phytoremediation potential for heavy metals and other xenobiotics.

References

1. Fahimirad, S., Hatami, M. (2017). Heavy metal-mediated changes in growth and phytochemicals of edible and medicinal plants. In: Ghorbanpourm, M. and Varma, A. (eds), *Medicinal plants and environmental challenges*, 1st edn. pp. 259-277. Springer International Publishing AG, Germany.
2. Sarwar, N., Imran, M., Shaheen, M. R., Ishaq, W., Kamran, A. et al. (2017). Phytoremediation strategies for soils contaminated with heavy metals: modifications and future perspectives. *Chemosphere*, 171, 710-721.
3. Yadav, K. K., Gupta, N., Kumar, V., Choudhary, P., Khan, S. A. (2018b). GIS-based evaluation of groundwater geochemistry and statistical determination of the fate of contaminants in shallow aquifers from different functional areas of Agra city, India: levels and spatial distributions. *RSC Advances*, 8(29), 15876-15889.
4. Tripathi, V., Edrisi, S. A., Abhilash, P.C. (2016). Towards the coupling of phytoremediation with bioenergy production. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 57, 1386-1389.
5. Yadav, K. K., Gupta, N., Kumar, A., Reece, L. M., Singh, N. et al. (2018a). Mechanistic understanding and holistic approach of phytoremediation: a review on application and future prospects. *Ecological Engineering*, 120, 274-298.
6. Venkatachalam, P., Jayalakshmi, N., Geetha, N., Sahi, S. V., Sharma, N. C. et al. (2017). Accumulation efficiency, genotoxicity and antioxidant defense mechanisms in medicinal plant *Acalypha indica* L. under lead stress. *Chemosphere*, 171, 544-553.
7. Antoniadis, V., Levizou, E., Shaheen, S. M., Ok, Y. S., Sebastian, A. et al. (2017). Trace elements in the soil-plant interface: phytoavailability, translocation, and phytoremediation-a review. *Earth-Science Review*, 171, 621-645.
8. Saifullah, Sarwar, N., Bibi, S., Ahmad, M., Ok, Y. S. (2014). Effectiveness of zinc application to minimize cadmium toxicity and accumulation in wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L). *Environmental Earth Sciences*, 71(4), 1663-1672.
9. Baudhdh, K., Singh, B., Korstad, J. (2017). *Phytoremediation potential of bioenergy plants*. Springer.
10. Ehrlich, P. R., Pringle, R. M. (2008). Where does biodiversity go from here? a grim business-as-usual forecast and a hopeful portfolio of partial solutions. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 105(1), 11579-11586.
11. Lal, R. (2008). Carbon sequestration. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 363, 815-830.
12. Jadia, C. D., Fulekar, M. H. (2008). Phytoremediation: the application of vermicompost to remove zinc, cadmium, copper, nickel and lead by sunflower plant. *Environmental Engineering and Management Journal*, 7(5), 547-558.

13. Ismail, S., Khan, F. A. R. I. H. A., Iqbal, M. Z. (2013). Phytoremediation: assessing tolerance of tree species against heavy metal (Pb and Cd) toxicity. *Pakistan Journal of Botany*, 45(6), 2181-2186.
14. Bhattacharya, P. T., Misra, S. R., Hussain, M. (2016). Nutritional aspects of essential trace elements in oral health and disease: an extensive review. *Scientifica*, 1-12.
15. Tchounwou, P. B., Yedjou, C. G., Patlolla, A. K., Sutton, D. J. (2012). Heavy metals toxicity and the environment. *Molecular, clinical and environmental toxicology*, 101, 133-164.
16. Kumar, B., Smita, K., Flores, L. C. (2017). Plant mediated detoxification of mercury and lead. *Arabian Journal of Chemistry*, 10, 2335-2342.
17. Asgari Lajayer, B., Ghorbanpour, M., Nikabadi, S. (2017). Heavy metals in contaminated environment: destiny of secondary metabolite biosynthesis, oxidative status and phytoextraction in medicinal plants. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, 145, 377-390.
18. Feng, N. X., Yu, J., Zhao, H. M., Cheng, Y. T., Mo, C. H. et al. (2017). Efficient phytoremediation of organic contaminants in soils using plant-endophyte partnerships. *Science of the Total Environment*, 583, 352-368.
19. Hédiji, H., Djebali, W., Belkadhi, A., Cabasson, C., Moing, A. et al. (2015). Impact of long-term cadmium exposure on mineral content of solanum lycopersicum plants: consequences on fruit production. *South African Journal of Botany*, 97, 176-181.
20. Iqbal, M. P. (2012). Lead pollution-a risk factor for cardiovascular disease in Asian developing countries. *Pakistan Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 25(1), 289-294.
21. Sastre, M., Ritchie, C. W., Hajji, N. (2015). Metal ions in Alzheimer's disease brain. *JSM Alzheimer's Disease and Related Dementia*, 12(2), 2014.
22. Luo, S., Xu, T., Chen, L., Chen, J., Rao, C. et al. (2012). Endophyte-assisted promotion of biomass production and metal-uptake of energy crop sweet sorghum by plant-growth-promoting endophyte bacillus sp. SLS18. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 93(4), 1745-1753.
23. Chung, J. Y., Yu, S. D., Hong, Y. S. (2014). Environmental source of arsenic exposure. *Journal of Preventive Medicine and Public Health*, 47(5), 253.
24. Ampiah-Bonney, R. J., Tyson, J. F., Lanza, G. R. (2007). Phytoextraction of arsenic from soil by *leersia oryzoides*. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 9(1), 31-40.
25. Vaclavikova, M., Gallios G. P., Hredzak S., Jakabsky, S. (2008). Removal of arsenic from water streams: an overview of available techniques. *Clean Technologies and Environmental Policy*, 10(1), 89-95.
26. Tangahu, B. V., Abdullah, S. R., Basri, H., Idris, M., Anuar, N. et al. (2011). A review on heavy metals (as, pb, and hg) uptake by plants through phytoremediation. *International Journal of Chemical Engineering*, 1-31.
27. Cho-Ruk, K., Kurukote, J., Supprung, P., Vetayasuporn, S. (2006). Perennial plants in the phytoremediation of lead-contaminated soils. *Biotechnology*, 5(1), 1-4.
28. Rezaee, A., Derayat, J., Mortazavi, S. B., Yamini, Y., Jafarzadeh, M. T. (2005). Removal of mercury from chlor-alkali industry wastewater using acetobacter xylinum cellulose. *American Journal of Environmental Sciences*, 1(2), 102-105.
29. Ha, E., Basu, N., Bose-O'Reilly, S., Dórea, J. G., McSorley, E. et al. (2017). Current progress on understanding the impact of mercury on human health. *Environmental Research*, 152, 419-433.
30. Picard, C., Bosco, M. (2003). Soil antimony pollution and plant growth stage affect the biodiversity of auxin-producing bacteria isolated from the rhizosphere of *Achillea ageratum* L. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology*, 46(1), 73-80.
31. Tamás, M. (2016). Cellular and molecular mechanisms of antimony transport, toxicity and resistance. *Environmental Chemistry*, 13(6), 955-962.
32. Pierart, A., Shahid, M., Sejalon-Delmas, N., Dumat, C. (2015). Antimony bioavailability: knowledge and research perspectives for sustainable agricultures. *Journal of hazardous materials*, 289, 219-234.
33. Koch, B., Maser, E., Hartwig, A. (2017). Low concentrations of antimony impair DNA damage signaling and the repair of radiation-induced DSB in HeLa S3 cells. *Archives of toxicology*, 91(12), 3823-3833.
34. Shahid, M., Khalid, S., Dumat, C., Pierart, A., Niazi, N. K. (2019). Biogeochemistry of antimony in soil-plant system: Ecotoxicology and human health. *Applied Geochemistry*.

35. Afzal, M., Shabir, G., Iqbal, S., Mustafa, T., Khan, Q. M. et al. (2014). Assessment of heavy metal contamination in soil and groundwater at leather industrial area of Kasur, Pakistan. *Clean - Soil, Air, Water*, 42(8), 1133-1139.
36. Mishra, S., Bharagava, R. N. (2016). Toxic and genotoxic effects of hexavalent chromium in environment and its bioremediation strategies. *Journal of Environmental Science and Health, Part C*, 34(1), 1-32.
37. Syed, M., Saleem, T., Shuja-ur-Rehman, Iqbal, M. A., Javed, F. et al. (2010). Effects of leather industry on health and recommendations for improving the situation in Pakistan. *Archives of Environmental and Occupational Health*, 65(3), 163-172.
38. Tariq, S. R., Shah, M. H., Shaheen, N., Khalique, A., Manzoor, S., et al. (2005). Multivariate analysis of selected metals in tannery effluents and related soil. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 122(1-2), 17-22.
39. Rathor, G., Chopra, N., Adhikari, T. (2014). Nickel as a pollutant and its management. *International Research Journal of Environmental Sciences*, 3, 94-98.
40. Dabrowski A, Hubicki, Z., Podkościelny, P., Robens, E. (2004). Selective removal of the heavy metal ions from waters and industrial wastewaters by ion-exchange method. *Chemosphere*, 56(2), 91-106.
41. Kathal, R., Malhotra, P., Kumar, L., Uniyal, P. L. (2016). Phytoextraction of Pb and Ni from the Polluted Soil by *Brassica juncea* L. *Journal of Environmental and Analytical Toxicology*, 6, 394.
42. Wu, G., Kang, H., Zhang, X., Shao, H., Chu, L. et al. (2010). A critical review on the bio-removal of hazardous heavy metals from contaminated soils: issues, progress, eco-environmental concerns and opportunities. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 174(1-3), 1-8.
43. Mench, M., Schwitzguebel, J. P., Schroeder, P., Bert, V., Gawronski, S. et al. (2009). Assessment of successful experiments and limitations of phytotechnologies: contaminant uptake, detoxification and sequestration, and consequences for food safety. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 16(7), 876-900.
44. Ali, H., Khan, E., Sajad, M. A. (2013). Phytoremediation of heavy metals-concepts and applications. *Chemosphere*, 91(7), 869-881.
45. Peralta-Videoa, J. R., Lopez, M. L., Narayan, M., Saupé, G., Gardea-Torresdey, J. (2009). The biochemistry of environmental heavy metal uptake by plants: implications for the food chain. *The International Journal of Biochemistry & Cell Biology*, 41(8-9), 1665-1677.
46. Arif, N., Yadav, V., Singh, S., Singh, S., Ahmad, P. et al. (2016). Influence of high and low levels of plant-beneficial heavy metal ions on plant growth and development. *Frontiers in Environmental Science*, 4, 69.
47. Guerinot, M. L. (2000). The ZIP family of metal transporters. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-Biomembranes*, 1465(1-2), 190-198.
48. Krämer, U., Talke, I. N., Hanikenne, M. (2007). Transition metal transport. *FEBS Letters*, 581(12), 2263-2272.
49. Nevo, Y., Nelson, N. (2006). The NRAMP family of metal-ion transporters. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-Molecular Cell Research*, 1763(7), 609-620.
50. Chakravarty, P., Baudh, K., Kumar, M. (2017). Phytoremediation: a multidimensional and ecologically viable practice for the cleanup of environmental contaminants. In: Baudh, K., Singh, B. and Korstad, J. (eds), *Phytoremediation potential of bioenergy plants*, pp. 1-46. Springer Nature, Singapore.
51. Li, W., Gao, S., Wu, L., Qiu, S., Guo, Y. et al. (2013). High-density three-dimension graphene macroscopic objects for high-capacity removal of heavy metal ions. *Scientific Reports*, 3, 2125.
52. Baudh, K., Singh, R. P. (2015a). Assessment of metal uptake capacity of castor bean and mustard for phytoremediation of nickel from contaminated soil. *Bioremediation Journal*, 19(2), 124-138.
53. Baudh, K., Singh, R. P. (2015b). Effects of organic and inorganic amendments on bio-accumulation and partitioning of cd in *Brassica juncea* and *Ricinus communis*. *Ecological Engineering*, 74, 93-100.
54. Baudh, K., Singh, R. P. (2012a). Cadmium tolerance and its phytoremediation by two oil yielding plants *Ricinus communis* (L.) and *Brassica juncea* (L.) from the contaminated soil. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 14(8), 772-785.
55. Baudh, K., Singh, R. P. (2012b). Growth, tolerance efficiency and phytoremediation potential of *Ricinus communis* (L.) and *Brassica juncea* (L.) in salinity and drought affected cadmium contaminated soil. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, 85, 13-22.
56. Ni, L. X., Acharya, K., Hao, X. Y., Li, S. Y. (2013). Antioxidant and metabolism responses to polyphenol

- stress in cyanobacterium microcystis aeruginosa. *Environmental Science and Health, Part B*, 48(2), 153-161.
57. Shanmugaraj, B. M., Chandra, H. M., Srinivasan, B., Ramalingam, S. (2013). Cadmium induced physio-biochemical and molecular response in *Brassica juncea*. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 15(3), 206-218.
 58. Cobbett, C.S. (2000). Phytochelatin biosynthesis and function in heavy-metal detoxification. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology*, 3(3), 211-216.
 59. Emamverdian, A., Ding, Y., Mokhberdoran, F., Xie, Y. (2015). Heavy metal stress and some mechanisms of plant defense response. *The Scientific World Journal*, 2015.
 60. Zhigang, A., Cuijie, L., Yuangang, Z., Yejie, D., Wachter, A. et al. (2006). Expression of BjMT2, a metallothionein 2 from *Brassica juncea*, increases copper and cadmium tolerance in *Escherichia coli* and *Arabidopsis thaliana*, but inhibits root elongation in *arabidopsis thaliana* seedlings. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 57(14), 3575-3582.
 61. Sharma, R., Bhardwaj, R., Handa, N., Gautam, V., Kohli S. K., et al. (2016). Chapter 10-responses of phytochelatin and metallothioneins in alleviation of heavy metal stress in plants: an overview. In: Ahmad, P. (ed), *Plant metal interaction*, pp. 263-283. Elsevier.
 62. Ding, H., Zhou, J., Han, Y., Su, X. (2018). Characterization of recombinant phascolosoma esculenta ferritin as an efficient heavy metal scavenger. *Protein and peptide letters*, 25(8), 767-775.
 63. Harun, R., Danquah, M. K., Forde, G. M. (2010). Microalgal biomass as a fermentation feedstock for bioethanol production. *Journal of Chemical Technology & Biotechnology*, 85(2), 199-203.
 64. Ho, S. H., Chen, C. Y., Lee, D. J., Chang, J. S. (2011). Perspectives on microalgal CO₂-emission mitigation systems-a review. In: *Biotechnology Advances*, 29(2), 189-198.
 65. Bridgwater, A. V. (2017). Biomass conversion technologies: fast pyrolysis liquids from biomass: quality and upgrading. *Biorefineries*, pp. 55-98. Springer, Cham.
 66. Misra, A. N., Jha, A. B., Sharma, P. (2017). Phytoremediation of heavy metal-contaminated soil using Bioenergy crops. In: Baudhdh, K., Singh B. and Korstad J. (eds), *Phytoremediation potential of bioenergy plants*, pp. 63-96. Springer Nature, Singapore.
 67. Jiang, Y., Lei, M., Duan, L., Longhurst, P. (2015). Integrating phytoremediation with biomass valorisation and critical element recovery: a UK contaminated land perspective. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 83, 328-339.
 68. Rao, P. V., Baral, S. S., Dey, R., Mutnuri, S. (2010). Biogas generation potential by anaerobic digestion for sustainable energy development in India. *Renewable and sustainable energy reviews*, 14(7), 2086-2094.
 69. Dubrovskis, V., Putnins, K. (2014). Biochemical methane potential of fast growing energy forest. Engineering for rural development. *Jelgava*, 13(29-30), 450-454.
 70. Vasco-Correa, J., Li, Y. (2015). Solid-state anaerobic digestion of fungal pretreated *Miscanthus sinensis* harvested in two different seasons. *Bioresource technology*, 185, 211-217.
 71. Gong, X., Huang, D., Liu, Y., Zeng, G., Wang, R. et al. (2018). Pyrolysis and reutilization of plant residues after phytoremediation of heavy metals contaminated sediments: for heavy metals stabilization and dye adsorption. *Bioresource Technology*, 253, 64-71.
 72. Kaur, M., Kumar, M., Sachdeva, S., Puri, S. K. (2018). Aquatic weeds as the next generation feedstock for sustainable bioenergy production. *Bioresource Technology*, 251, 390-402.
 73. Huang, H., Yao, W., Li, R., Ali, A., Du, J. et al. (2018). Effect of pyrolysis temperature on chemical form, behaviour and environmental risk of Zn, Pb and Cd in biochar produced from phytoremediation residue. *Bioresource Technology*, 249, 487-493.
 74. Pan, W. P., Richards, G. N. (1990). Volatile products of oxidative pyrolysis of wood: influence of metal ions. *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis*, 17, 261-273.
 75. Daniel, D. J., Ellison, C. R., Bursavich, J., Benbow, M., Favrot, C. et al. (2018). An evaluative comparison of lignocellulosic pyrolysis products derived from various parts of *Populus deltoides* trees and *Panicum virgatum* grass in an inductively heated reactor. *Energy Conversion and Management*, 171, 710-720.
 76. Miettinen, I., Kuittinen, S., Paasikallio, V., Mäkinen, M., Pappinen, A. et al. (2017). Characterization of fast pyrolysis oil from short-rotation willow by high-resolution Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometry. *Fuel*, 207, 189-197.

77. Durak, H. (2018). *Trametes versicolor* (L.) mushrooms liquefaction in supercritical solvents: effects of operating conditions on product yields and chromatographic characterization. *Journal of Supercritical Fluids*, 131, 140-149.
78. Zhou, C., Zhu, X. D., Qian, F., Shen W., Xu H. L. et al. (2016). Catalytic hydrothermal liquefaction of rice straw in water/ethanol mixtures for high yields of monomeric phenols using reductive CuZnAl catalyst. *Fuel Processing Technology*, 154, 1-6.
79. Li, Z., Cao, J., Huang, K., Hong, Y., Li, C. et al. (2015). Alkaline pretreatment and the synergic effect of water and tetralin enhances the liquefaction efficiency of bagasse. *Bioresource Technology*, 177, 159-168.
80. Wu, X. F., Zhou, Q., Li, M. F., Li, S. X., Bian, J. et al. (2018). Conversion of poplar into bio-oil via subcritical hydrothermal liquefaction: Structure and antioxidant capacity. *Bioresource technology*, 270, 216-222.
81. Ghosh, M., Singh, S. P. (2005). A review on phytoremediation of heavy metals and utilization of it's by products. *Asian Journal of Energy and Environment*, 6(4), 18.
82. Ancona, V., Caracciolo, A. B., Campanale, C., De Caprariis, B., Grenni, P. et al. (2019). Gasification treatment of poplar biomass produced in a contaminated area restored using plant assisted bioremediation. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 239, 137-141.
83. Jamil, S., Abhilash, P. C., Singh, N., Sharma, P. N. (2009). *Jatropha curcas*: a potential crop for phytoremediation of coal fly ash. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 172(1), 269-275.
84. Cutright, T., Gunda, N., Kurt, F. (2010). Simultaneous hyperaccumulation of multiple heavy metals by *Helianthus annuus* grown in a contaminated sandy-loam soil. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 12(6), 562-573.
85. Fairley, P. (2011). Introduction: Next generation biofuels. *Nature*, 474(7352), 2-5.
86. Graham Rowe, D. (2011). Beyond food versus fuel. *Nature*, 474(7352), 6-8
87. Tariq, S.R., Ashraf, A. (2016). Comparative evaluation of phytoremediation of metal contaminated soil of firing range of four different plant species. *Arabian Journal of Chemistry*, 9(6), 806-814.
88. Tang, C., Song, J., Hu, X., Hu, X., Zhao, Y. et al. (2017). Exogenous spermidine enhanced Pb tolerance in *Salix matsudana* by promoting Pb accumulation in roots and spermidine, nitric oxide, and antioxidant system levels in leaves. *Ecological Engineering*, 107, 41-48.
89. Bernardini, A., Salvatori, E., Guerrini, V., Fusaro, L., Canepari, S. et al. (2016). Effects of high Zn and Pb concentrations on *Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin. Ex. Steudel: photosynthetic performance and metal accumulation capacity under controlled conditions. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 18(1), 16-24.
90. Vymazal, J. (2016). Concentration is not enough to evaluate accumulation of heavy metals and nutrients in plants. *Science of the Total Environment*, 544, 495-498.
91. Kacprzak, M. J., Rosikon, K., Fijalkowski, K., Grobelak, A. (2014). The effect of *Trichoderma* on heavy metal mobility and uptake by *Miscanthus giganteus*, *Salix* sp., *Phalaris arundinacea*, and *Panicum virgatum*. *Applied and Environmental Soil Science*, 2014,10.
92. Arbaoui, S., Evlard, A., Mhamdi, M. E. W., Campanella, B., Paul, R. et al. (2013). Potential of kenaf (*Hibiscus cannabinus* L.) and corn (*Zea mays* L.) for phytoremediation of dredging sludge contaminated by trace metals. *Biodegradation*, 24(4), 563-567.
93. Vrbová, M., Kotrba, P., Horáček, J., Smýkal, P., Šváblová, L. et al. (2013). Enhanced accumulation of cadmium in *Linum usitatissimum* L. plants due to overproduction of metallothionein α -domain as a fusion to β glucuronidase protein. *Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture*, 112(3), 321-330.
94. Amna Masood, S., Syed, J. H., Munis, M. F., Chaudhary, H. J. (2015). Phyto-extraction of nickel by *Linum usitatissimum* in association with *Glomus* intraradices. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 17(10), 981-987.
95. Rastogi, A., Mishra, B. K., Singh, M., Mishra, R., Shukla, S. (2014). Role of micronutrients on quantitative traits and prospects of its accumulation in linseed (*Linum usitatissimum* L.). *Archives of Agronomy and Soil Science*, 60(10), 1389-1409.
96. Barbosa, B., Boléo, S., Sidella, S., Costa, J., Duarte, M. P. et al. (2015). Phytoremediation of heavy metal-contaminated soils using the perennial energy crops *Miscanthus* spp. and *Arundo donax* L. *Biological Research*, 8(4), 1500-1511.
97. Papazoglou, E. G., Karantounias, G. A., Vemmos, S. N., Bouranis, D. L. (2005). Photosynthesis and growth

- responses of giant reed (*Arundo donax* L.) to the heavy metals Cd and Ni. *Environmental International*, 31(2), 243-249.
98. Akan, J. C., Inuwa, L. B., Chellube, Z. M., Lawan, B. (2013). Heavy metals in leaf, stem bark of Neem tree (*Azadirachta indica*) and roadside dust in Maiduguri Metropolis, Borno State, Nigeria. *Environment and Pollution*, 2(1), 88.
 99. Shinde, K., Bharati, K. T., Gujarathi, D. B. (2015). *Comparative heavy metal assessment of Acacia nilotica growing in polluted and non-polluted area*. Science College, Sangmaner, Maharashtra, India.
 100. Tang, C., Chen, Y., Zhang, Q., Li, J., Zhang, F. et al. (2019). Effects of peat on plant growth and lead and zinc phytostabilization from lead-zinc mine tailing in Southern China: screening plant species resisting and accumulating metals. *Ecotoxicology and environmental safety*, 176, 42-49.
 101. Zhang, X., Zhang, X., Gao, B., Li, Z., Xia, H. et al. (2014). Effect of cadmium on growth, photosynthesis, mineral nutrition and metal accumulation of an energy crop, king grass (*Pennisetum americanum* × *P. purpureum*). *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 67, 179-187.
 102. Shi, G., Cai, Q. (2009). Cadmium tolerance and accumulation in eight potential energy crops. *Biotechnology Advances*, 27(5), 555-561.
 103. Mihoc, M., Pop, G., Alexa, E., Dem, D., Militaru, A. (2013). Microelements distribution in whole Hemp seeds (*Cannabis sativa* L.) and in their fractions. *Revista De Chimie*, 64, 776-780.
 104. Linger, P., Mussig, J., Fischer, H., Kobert, J. (2002). Industrial hemp (*Cannabis sativa* L.) growing on heavy metal contaminated soil: fibre quality and phytoremediation potential. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 16(1), 33-42.
 105. Ahmad, R., Tehsin, Z., Malik, S. T., Asad, S. A., Shahzad, M. et al. (2016). Phytoremediation potential of hemp (*Cannabis sativa* L.): identification and characterization of heavy metals responsive genes. *CLEAN-Soil, Air, Water*, 44(2), 195-201.
 106. Kocik, A., Truchan, M., Rozen, A. (2007). Application of willows (*Salix viminalis*) and earthworms (*Eisenia fetida*) in sewage sludge treatment. *European Journal of Soil Biology*, 43, 327-331.
 107. Laureysens, I., Blust, R., De Temmerman, L., Lemmens, C., Ceulemans, R. (2004). Clonal variation in heavy metal accumulation and biomass production in a poplar coppice culture: i. seasonal variation in leaf, wood and bark concentrations. *Environmental Pollution*, 131(3), 485-494.
 108. Shikawa, Y., Yabuki, S., Nagasawa, S., Sugimoto, H., Aoki, Y. et al. (2018). Study on phytoextraction of heavy metal contaminated soil by fast-growth willow (*Salix* spp.). *Journal of Arid Land Studies*, 28, 193-196.
 109. Kuzovkina, Y. A., Quigley, M. F. (2005). Willows beyond wetlands: uses of *Salix* L. species for environmental projects. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 162(1-4), 183-204.
 110. Volk, T. A., Abrahamson, L. P., Nowak, C. A., Smart, L. B., Tharakan, P. J. et al. (2006). The development of short-rotation willow in the Northeastern United States for Bioenergy and bioproducts, agroforestry and phytoremediation. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 30(8-9), 715-727.
 111. Lamloom, S. H., Savidge, R. A. (2003). A reassessment of carbon content in wood: variation within and between 41 North American species. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 25(4), 381-388.
 112. Smart, L. B., Cameron, K. D. (2008). Genetic improvement of willow (*Salix* spp.) as a dedicated bioenergy crop. In: Vermerris, W. (ed), *Genetic improvement of bioenergy crops*, pp. 347-376. Springer-Verlag, New York.
 113. Kim, H., Geun, J. (2018). Science of the Total Environment Seasonal variations of metal (Cd , Pb , Mn , Cu , Zn) accumulation in a voluntary species, *Salix subfragilis*, in unpolluted wetlands. *Science of the Total Environment*, 610, 1210-1221
 114. Kuzovkina, Y. A., Quigley, M. F. (2004). Cadmium and copper uptake and translocation in five willow (*Salix* L.) species. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 6(3), 269-287.
 115. Delplanque, Collet, M. S., Del Gratta, F., Schnuriger, B., Gaucher, R. et al. (2013). Combustion of *Salix* used for phytoextraction: the fate of metals and viability of the processes. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 49, 160-170.
 116. Mleczek, M., Rutkowski, P., Rissmann, I., Kaczmarek, Z., Golinski, P. et al. (2010). Biomass productivity and phytoremediation potential of *Salix alba* and *Salix viminalis*. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 34(9), 1410-1418.
 117. Greef, J. M., Deuter, M. (1993). Syntaxonomy of *Miscanthus X Giganteus* GREEF et DEU. *Angewandte Botanik*, 67, 87-90.

118. Iqbal, Y., Lewandowski, I. (2019). Lignocellulosic Energy Grasses for Combustion, Production, and Provision. *Energy from Organic Materials (Biomass) A Volume in the Encyclopedia of Sustainability Science and Technology, Second Edition*, 89-99.
119. Deuter, M. (2000). Breeding approaches to improvement of yield and quality in miscanthus grown in Europe. *European Miscanthus Improvement-Final Report*, 28-52.
120. Sørensen, A., Teller, P. J., Hilstrøm, T., Ahring, B. K. (2008). Hydrolysis of miscanthus for bioethanol production using dilute acid presoaking combined with wet explosion pre-treatment and enzymatic treatment. *Bioresource Technology*, 99, 6602-6607.
121. Abdelaziz, A. E. M., Leite G. B., Hallenbeck, P. C. (2013). Addressing the challenges for sustainable production of algal biofuels: II. Harvesting and conversion to biofuels. *Environmental Technology*, 34(9), 1807-1836.
122. Fruhwirth, P., Liebhard, P. (2006) Miscanthus sinensis Giganteus. produktion, inhaltsstoffe und verwertung. In: Fruhwirth P, A. Graf, M. Humer, F. Hunger, H. Koppl, P. Liebhard, K. Thumfart (eds), *Miscanthus sinensis Giganteus*, pp. 34-38. Wien: Chinaachilf als nachwachsender Rohstoff; Landwirtschaftskammer Osterreich, Landliches Forbildungsinstitut.
123. Bang, J., Kamala-kannan, S., Lee, K. J., Cho, M., Kim, C. H. et al. (2015). Phytoremediation of heavy metals in contaminated water and soil using miscanthus sp. *goedae-uksae* 1. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 17(6), 515-520.
124. Arduini, I., Masoni, A., Mariotti, M., Ercoli, L. (2004). Low cadmium application increase miscanthus growth and cadmium translocation. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, 52(2), 89-100.
125. Lyubun, Y. V., Tychinin, D. N. (2007). Phytoremediation in Russia. In: Willey, N. (ed), *Phytoremediation methods and reviews*, pp. 423-434. Humana Press Inc, NJ, Totowa.
126. Andrejić, G., Gajić, G., Prica, M., Dželetović, Ž., Rakić, T. (2018). Zinc accumulation, photosynthetic gas exchange, and chlorophyll a fluorescence in Zn-stressed Miscanthus × giganteus plants. *Photosynthetica*, 56(4), 1249-1258.
127. Korzeniowska, J., Stanisławska-Glubiak, E. (2015). Phytoremediation potential of Miscanthus x giganteus and Spartina pectinata in soil contaminated with heavy metals. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 22(15), 11648-11657.
128. Peng, K., Li, X., Luo, C., Shen, Z. (2006). Vegetation composition and heavy metal uptake by wild plants at three contaminated sites in Xiangxi area, China. *Journal of Environmental Science and Health. Part A, Toxic/hazardous Substances & Environmental Engineering*, 41(1), 65-76.
129. Dickmann, D. I., Stuart, K. W. (1983). *The culture of poplars in eastern North America*. Michigan State University.
130. Guerra, F., Gainza, F., Perez, M., Zamudio, F. (2011). Phytoremediation oh heavy metals using poplars (*Populus* spp.): a glimpse of the plant responses to copper, cadmium and zinc stress. In: Golubev, I.A. (ed.), *Handbook of phytoremediation*, pp. 387-413.. Nova Science, New York.
131. Kubátová, P., Száková, J., Břendová, K., Kroulíková-Vondráčková, S., Mercl, F. et al. (2018). Effects of summer and winter harvesting on element phytoextraction efficiency of *Salix* and *Populus* clones planted on contaminated soil. *International journal of phytoremediation*, 20(5), 499-506.
132. Di Lonardo, S., Capuana, M., Arnetoli, M., Gabbrielli, R., Gonnelli, C. (2011). Exploring the metal phytoremediation potential of three *Populus alba* L. clones using an *in vitro* screening. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 18(1), 82-90.
133. Di Baccio, D., Tognetti, R., Sebastiani, L., Vitagliano, C. (2003). Responses of *Populus deltoides* X *Populus nigra* (*Populus* X *Euramericana*) Clone I-214 to high zinc concentrations. *New Phytologist*, 159(2), 443-452.
134. Tognetti, R., Sebastiani, L., Minnocci, A. (2004). Gas exchange and foliage characteristics of two poplar clones grown in soil amended with industrial waste. *Tree Physiology*, 24(1), 75-82.
135. Zalesny, R. S., Stanturf, J. A., Gardiner, E. S., Perdue, J. H., Young, T. M. et al. (2016). Ecosystem services of woody crop production systems. *BioEnergy Research*, 9(2), 465-491.
136. Guo, X. Y., Zhang, X. S. (2010). Performance of 14 hybrid poplar clones grown in Beijing, China. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 34(6), 906-911.
137. Tuskan, G. A., Torr, P. (2007). The genome of black cottonwood. *Science*, 313(5793), 1596-1604.

138. Drake, J. E., Aspinwall, M. J., Pfautsch, S., Rymer, P. D., Reich, P. B. (2015). The capacity to cope with climate warming declines from temperate to tropical latitudes in two widely distributed *Eucalyptus* species. *Global Change Biology*, 21(1), 459-472.
139. Mora, F., Arriagada, O., Ballesta, P., Ruiz, E. (2017). Genetic diversity and population structure of a drought-tolerant species of *Eucalyptus*, using microsatellite markers. *Journal of Plant Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 26(3), 274-281.
140. Arriagada, C. A., Herrera, M. A., Ocampo, J. A. (2007). Beneficial effect of saprobe and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on growth of *eucalyptus globulus* co-cultured with glycine max in soil contaminated with heavy metals. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 84(1), 93-99.
141. Sallami, K., Coupe, S. J., Rollason, J., Ganjian, E. (2013). Soil amendments to enhance lead uptake by *Eucalyptus camaldulensis* cultivated on metal contaminated soil. *European Journal of Experimental Biology*, 3, 7-13.
142. Gomes, M., Marques, T. C. L. L. S., Carneiro, M. M. L., Soares, Â. (2012). Anatomical characteristics and nutrient uptake and distribution associated with the cd-phytoremediation capacity of *Eucalyptus camaldulensis* Dehnh. *Journal of Soil Science and Plant Nutrition*, 12(3), 481-496.
143. Luo, J., Qi, S., Peng, L., Wang, J. (2016). Phytoremediation Efficiency of Cd by *Eucalyptus Globulus* Transplanted from Polluted and Unpolluted Sites. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 18(4), 308-314.
144. Green, C. (2002). *Export development of essential oils and spices by Cambodia*. CL Green Consultancy Services, UK, Kent.
145. Martin, B. (2003). Eucalyptus: a strategic forest tree. In: Wei, R. P., Xu, D. (eds), *Eucalyptus plantations: research, management and development*, pp. 3-18. World Scientific Publishing Co. Pte Ltd, Singapore.
146. Crow, S. E., Reeves, M., Turn, S., Taniguchi, S., Schubert, O. S. et al. (2016). Carbon balance implications of land use change from pasture to managed eucalyptus forest in Hawaii. *Carbon Management*, 7(3-4), 171-181.
147. Costa, E. T. S., Guilherme, L. R. G., Melo, E. E. C., Ribeiro, B. T., Inacio, E. S. B. et al. (2012). Assessing the tolerance of Castor bean to cd and pb for phytoremediation purposes. *Biological Trace Element Research*, 145(1), 93-100.
148. Olivares, A. R., Carrillo-González, R., González-Chávez, M. D. C. A., Hernández R. M. S. (2013). Potential of castor bean (*Ricinus communis* L.) for phytoremediation of mine tailings and oil production. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 114, 316-323.
149. Yashim, Z., Agbaji, E., Gimba, C., Idris, S. (2016). Phytoremediation potential of *Ricinus communis* L. (castor oil plant) in northern Nigeria. *International Journal of Plant & Soil Science*, 10(5), 1-8.
150. Huang, G., Guo, G., Yao, S., Zhang, N., Hu, H. (2016). Organic acids, amino acids compositions in the root exudates and cu-accumulation in castor (*Ricinus communis* L.) under cu stress. *International Journal of Phytoremediation*, 18(1), 33-40.
151. Kang, W., Bao, J., Zheng, J., Hu, H., Du, J. (2015). Distribution and chemical forms of copper in the root cells of castor seedlings and their tolerance to copper phytotoxicity in hydroponic culture. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 22(10), 7726-7734.
152. Niu, Z., Sun, L., Sun, T. (2009). Response of root and aerial biomass to phytoextraction of cd and pb by sunflower, castor bean, alfalfa and mustard. *Advances in Environmental Biology*, 3(3), 255-262.
153. Coscione, A. R., Berton, R. S. (2009). Barium extraction potential by mustard, sunflower and castor bean. *Scientia Agricola*, 66(1), 59-63.
154. Pandey, V. C. (2013). Suitability of *Ricinus communis* L. cultivation for phytoremediation of fly ash disposal sites. *Ecological Engineering*, 57, 336-341.
155. Silitonga, A. S., Masjuki, H. H., Ong, H. C., Yusaf, T., Kusumo, F. et al. (2016). Synthesis and optimization of Hevea brasiliensis and Ricinus communis as feedstock for biodiesel production: a comparative study. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 85, 274-286.
156. Baudhdh, K., Singh, K., Singh, B., Singh, R. P. (2015). *Ricinus communis*: A robust plant for bio-energy and phytoremediation of toxic metals from contaminated soil. *Ecological Engineering*, 84, 640-652.
157. Echeverri, D. A., Perez, W. A., Rios, L. A. (2013). Synthesis of maleated-castor oil glyce-rides from biodiesel-derived crude glycerol. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 49, 299-303.
158. Pilon-Smits, E., Pilon, M. (2002). Phytoremediation of metals using transgenic plants. *Critical Reviews in*

- Plant Sciences*, 21(5), 439-456.
159. Fasani, E., Manara, A., Martini, F., Furini A., DalCorso, G. (2017). The potential of genetic engineering of plants for the remediation of soils contaminated with heavy metals. *Plant, cell & Environment*, 41(5), 1201-1232.
 160. Heiss, S., Wachter, A., Bogs, J., Cobbett, C., Rausch, T. (2003). Phytochelatin synthase (PCS) protein is induced in *Brassica juncea* leaves after prolonged cd exposure. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 54(389), 1833-1839.
 161. Song, W. Y., Martinoia, E., Lee, J., Kim, D., Kim, D. Y. et al. (2004). A novel family of cys-rich membrane proteins mediates cadmium resistance in *arabidopsis*. *Plant Physiology*, 135(2), 1027-1039.
 162. Dixit, A., Tomar, P., Vaine, E., Abdullah, H., Hazen, S. et al. (2018). A stress-associated protein, AtSAP13, from *Arabidopsis thaliana* provides tolerance to multiple abiotic stresses. *Plant, cell & environment*, 41(5), 1171-1185.
 163. Shim, D., Kim, S., Choi, Y. I., Song, W. Y., Park, J. et al. (2013). Transgenic poplar trees expressing yeast cadmium factor 1 exhibit the characteristics necessary for the phytoremediation of mine tailing soil. *Chemosphere*, 90(4), 1478-1486.
 164. Kiyono, M., Oka, Y., Sone, Y., Tanaka, M., Nakamura, R. et al. (2012). Expression of the bacterial heavy metal transporter merc fused with a plant SNARE, SYP121, in *arabidopsis thaliana* increases cadmium accumulation and tolerance. *Planta*, 235(4), 841-850.
 165. Castro Rodríguez, V., García Gutiérrez, A., Canales, J., Cañas, R. A., Kirby, E. G. et al. (2016). Poplar trees for phytoremediation of high levels of nitrate and applications in bioenergy. *Plant Biotechnology Journal*, 14(1), 299-312.
 166. Abhilash, P. C., Jamil, S., Singh, N. (2009). Transgenic plants for enhanced biodegradation and phytoremediation of organic xenobiotics. *Biotechnology Advances*, 27(4), 474-488.
 167. Bhargava, A., Carmona, F. F., Bhargava, M., Srivastava, S. (2012). Approaches for enhanced phytoextraction of heavy metals. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 105, 103-120.
 168. Wolfenbarger, L. L., Phifer, P. R. (2000). The ecological risks and benefits of genetically engineered plants. *Science*, 290(5499), 2088-2093.
 169. Davison, J. (2005). Risk mitigation of genetically modified bacteria and plants designed for bioremediation. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology & Biotechnology*, 32(11-12), 639-650.
 170. Yau, Y. Y., Stewart, C. N. (2013). Less is more: strategies to remove marker genes from transgenic plants. *BMC Biotechnology*, 13(1), 36.
 171. Philippot, L., Raaijmakers, J. M., Lemanceau, P., van der Putten, W. H. (2013). Going back to the roots: the microbial ecology of the rhizosphere. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, 11(11), 789-799.
 172. Chandra, V., Bajpai, O., Singh, N. (2016). Energy crops in sustainable phytoremediation. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 54, 58-73.
 173. Rajkumar, M., Freitas, H. (2008). Influence of metal resistant-plant growth-promoting bacteria on the growth of *Ricinus communis* in soil contaminated with heavy metals. *Chemosphere*, 71(5), 834-842.
 174. Wu, S. C., Cheung, K. C., Luo, Y. M., Wong, M. H. (2006). Effects of inoculation of plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria on metal uptake by *Brassica juncea*. *Environmental Pollution*, 140(1), 124-135
 175. Sarkar, A., Asaeda, T., Wang, Q., Kaneko, Y., Rashid, M. H. (2017). Response of *Miscanthus sacchariflorus* to zinc stress mediated by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. *Flora*, 234, 60-68.
 176. Leung, H. M., Ye, Z. H., Wong, M. H. (2007). Survival strategies of plants associated with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on toxic mine tailings. *Chemosphere*, 66(5), 905-915.
 177. Firmin, S., Labidi, S., Fontaine, J., Laruelle, F., Tisserant, B. et al. (2015). Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal inoculation protects *Miscanthus x giganteus* against trace element toxicity in a highly metal-contaminated site. *Science of the Total Environment*, 527, 91-99.
 178. Arriagada C. A., Herrera, M. A., García-Romera, I., Ocampo, J. A. (2004). Tolerance to Cd of soybean (*Glycine max*) and eucalyptus (*Eucalyptus globulus*) inoculated with arbuscular mycorrhizal and saprobe fungi. *Symbiosis*, 36(3), 285-299.
 179. Ruiz-Lozano, J. M., Porcel, R., Calvo-Polanco, M., Aroca, R. (2018). Improvement of salt tolerance in rice plants by arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis. In: *Root Biology*, pp. 259-279. Springer, Cham.

180. Elhindi, K. M., El-Din, A. S., Elgorban, A. M. (2017). The impact of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in mitigating salt-induced adverse effects in sweet basil (*Ocimum basilicum* L.). *Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences*, 24(1), 170-179.
181. Edrisi, S. A., Abhilash, P. C. (2016). Exploring marginal and degraded lands for biomass and bioenergy production: an Indian Scenario. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 54, 1537-1551.
182. Bardos, R. P., Bone, B., Andersson-Sköld, Y., Suer, P., Track, T. et al. (2011). Crop-based systems for sustainable risk-based land management for economically marginal damaged land. *Remediation*, 21(4), 11-33.
183. Mahar, A., Wang, P., Ali, A., Awasthi, M. K., Lahori, A. H. et al. (2016). Challenges and opportunities in the phytoremediation of heavy metals contaminated soils: a review. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, 126, 111-121.
184. Abhilash, P. C., Dubey, R. K., Tripathi, V., Srivastav, A. P., Verma, J. P. et al. (2013a). Remediation and management of pops-contaminated soils in a warming climate: challenges and perspectives. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 20(8), 5879-5885.
185. Abhilash, P. C., Singh, B., Srivastava, P., Schaeffer, A., Singh, N. (2013b). Remediation of lindane by *Jatropha curcas* L: utilization of multipurpose species for rhizoremediation. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 51, 189-193.
186. Edrisi, S. A., Abhilash, P. C. (2015a). Socio-economic impacts of bioenergy production. *Frontiers in Bioengineering and Biotechnology*, 3, 174.
187. Edrisi, S. A., Abhilash, P. C. (2015b). Sustainable bioenergy production from woody biomass: prospects and promises. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 102, 558-559.
188. Jaradat, A. A. (2010). Genetic resources of energy crops: biological systems to combat climate change. *Australian Journal of Crop Science*, 4(5), 309.
189. Pandey, V. C., Singh, K., Singh, J. S., Kumar, A., Singh, B. et al. (2012). *Jatropha curcas*: A potential biofuel plant for sustainable environmental development. *Renewable & Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 16(5), 2870-2883.
190. Farnsworth, E. J., Meyerson, L. A. (2003). Comparative ecophysiology of four wetland plant species along a continuum of invasiveness. *Wetlands*, 23(4), 750-762.
191. Rowe, R. L., Street, N. R., Taylor, G. (2009). Identifying potential environmental impacts of large-scale deployment of dedicated bioenergy crops in the UK. *Renewable & Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 13(1), 271-290.
192. Gheshlaghi, R., Scharer, J. M., Moo-Young, M., Chou, C. P. (2009). Metabolic pathways of clostridia for producing butanol. *Biotechnology Advances*, 27(6), 764-781.
193. Young, A. L. (2009). Finding the balance between food and biofuels. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 16(2), 117-119.
194. Long, H. L., Liu, Y. Q., Hou, X. G., Li, T. T., Li, Y. R. (2014). Effects of land use transitions due to rapid urbanization on ecosystem services: implications for urban planning in the new developing area of China. *Habitat International*, 44, 536-544.
195. Muller, A. (2009). Sustainable agriculture and the production of biomass for energy use. *Climate Change*, 94(3-4), 319-331.
196. Börjesson, P. (1999). Environmental effects of energy crop cultivation in Sweden-I: identification and quantification. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 16(2), 137-154.
197. García-Sánchez, M., Siles, J. A., Cajthaml, T., García-Romera, I., Tlustoš, P. et al. (2015). Effect of digestate and fly ash applications on soil functional properties and microbial communities. *European Journal of Soil Biology*, 71, 1-12.
198. Clemens, S., Ma, J. F. (2016). Toxic heavy metal and metalloids accumulation in crop plants and foods. *Annual review of plant biology*, 67, 489-512.
199. Fraiture, C. de, Giordano, M., Liao, Y. (2008). Biofuels and implications for agricultural water use: blue impacts of green energy. *Water Policy*, 10(S1), 67-81.
200. Gerbens-Leenes, W., Hoekstra, A. Y., van der Meer, T. H. (2009). The water footprint of bioenergy. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 106(25), 10219-10223.