Role of biochar and compost in cadmium immobilization and on the growth of Spinacia oleracea

Kinza Tanveer1, Noshin Ilyas1*, Nosheen Akhtar1, Humaira Yasmin2, Daniel Ingo Hefft3, Mohamed A. El-Sheikh4, Parvaiz Ahmad5*

1 Department of Botany, PMAS-Arid University Rawalpindi, Rawalpindi, Pakistan, 2 Department of Biosciences, COMSATS University, Islamabad, Pakistan, 3 University Centre Reaseheath, Food and Agricultural Sciences, Reaseheath College, Nantwich, United Kingdom, 4 Botany and Microbiology Department, College of Science, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, 5 Department of Botany, GDC Pulwama, Srinagar, Jammu and Kashmir, India

* noshiniyas@yahoo.com (NI); parvaizbot@yahoo.com (PA)

Abstract

This research was carried out to evaluate the effect of biochar and compost application on Spinacia oleracea growth in cadmium contaminated soil. Cd toxicity decreased plant growth and biomass significantly and also negatively affected the physiological and biochemical attributes of plants. However, the application of biochar and compost improved the contaminated soil by reducing Cd toxicity and causing its immobilization, which in turn improved plant growth. The combined application of biochar and compost significantly (p < 0.05) enhanced biomass and photosynthetic pigments development in plants. The treatments also increased membrane stability index by 45.12% and enhanced water using efficiency by 218.22%, respectively. The increase in antioxidant activities was 76.03%, 29.02%, and 123.27% in superoxide dismutase, peroxidase, and catalase, respectively. The combined application also reduced the cadmium content (reduced 40.14% in root and 51.16% shoot), its translocation (19.67% decrease), and bioaccumulation (52.63% and 40.32% decrease in Cd content in shoot and root, respectively) in spinach plant. Among the two selected varieties of S. oleracea, Desi palak (V1) performed better as compared to Kanta palak (V2). It can be concluded that the combined application of biochar and compost is one of the best strategies to reduce the toxicity level of Cd in plants and to improve their growth.

Introduction

Heavy metal contamination in soil is a serious threat to the environment, and it adversely affects the food chain. Industrialization and untreated discharge of effluents makes the situation more terrible. In developing countries, due to overpopulation and shortage of freshwater, vegetables are being irrigated with wastewater containing contaminants, particularly heavy metals. Untreated wastewater is used for irrigation of about 26% of the vegetables grown in Pakistan [1]. Metal contamination is a noteworthy issue because of its antagonistic impact on
soil richness and plant development, and it also triggers negative physiological and metabolic changes in plants [2]. Heavy metals, after gaining entry into the plants via different transporters, bind to specific sites on membrane lipids and proteins, resulting in conformational changes. These changes interfere with essential metabolite synthesis, cause osmotic imbalance, and thus inhibit the cell to function normally. Cadmium is one of the most toxic heavy metals found commonly in the soil and has gained much concern for its hazardous effects on plants, animals as well as on humans [3]. Its concentration has increased in the soil by industrial effluents, municipal sewage sludge, and phosphatic fertilizer. It is highly soluble in water and enters plants by passive diffusion and disturbs various metabolic processes like transpiration, photosynthesis, and nitrogen assimilation and creates oxidative stress, which damages the photosynthetic apparatus, reduces chlorophyll and carotenoid content, and induces increased proline accumulation [4]. The toxic effects of cadmium on plants are well documented in the literature [4, 5]. Cd accumulates in the plant body and its bio-magnification in humans cause health-related issues [5].

Currently, different physio-chemical methods such as precipitation, evaporation, ion exchange, reverse osmosis, and chemical reactions are being carried out, but these techniques require more resources and are expensive [6, 7]. Conventional methods like landfill of topsoil, are not suitable for rehabilitation purposes because they are not very effective and are expensive too. Nowadays, phytoremediation has been recognized as a safe and less costly technique used for heavy metal remediation of soil using hyperaccumulators.

Spinach is one of the efficient hyperaccumulators cultivated throughout the world, all around the year [8]. The harvested plant parts contain a high amount of metals either subjected to bio-methanation or safely processed by composting [9]. Spinach often accumulates heavy metals by the process of phytoextraction but its slow-growing and has low biomass, so its practical application is limited, however, its growth can be increased by organic soil amendments [10, 11]. These amendments can deal with heavy metals in many ways, either by binding or adsorbing them or they may also co-precipitate them and in this way reduce their mobility, availability, and the toxicity caused by them, or they may increase the bioavailability of heavy metals in the soil and speed up the process of phytoextraction [9]. Silva et al. [20] showed in their experiments that spinach shows a high uptake of heavy metals in their aerial parts and it also grows well in contaminated soil as compared to other plants. It extracts heavy metals from soil and transports them to the aerial part of plants. The production of high biomass is one of the basic requirements linked with the efficient extraction of heavy metals [21].

Biochar amendment is gathering attention in the current era for soil remediation. It is characterized by a large surface area, high cation exchange capacity, alkaline pH, and high water holding capacity [12, 13]. Biochar contains mainly carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, and sulphur and also have other trace elements. These characteristics make it a good conditioner for improving soil physio-chemical properties. It’s high surface area and presence of functional groups enable it to sorb the heavy metal and reduce their solubility and mobility [14, 15]. However, sometimes biochar does not fulfill the nutrient level of soil and crops, so there may be a need to provide another amendment in combination with it, like compost. Compost is a decomposed organic matter having microorganisms, rich in humus and containing a large number of nutrients like nitrogen, potassium, phosphorus, magnesium, calcium, sulphur. Biochar and compost both improve soil conditions, improve plant growth, and are a better choice for remediation of heavy metals [16, 17]. Hussain [18] reported that the combined application of compost, biochar and bacterial consortia increase the remediation potential of Italian ryegrass in petroleum-contaminated soil. Ogundiran, Mekwunyei [19] reported that the amendment of compost and biochar enhances the phytoremediation potential of Moringa oleifera in Pb contaminated soil. Lebrun, Miard [20] reported that combined application of compost and
biochar is a better choice in Pb and As contaminated soil, while it also increases the phytoremediation potential of Salix viminalis. Visconti, Álvarez-Robles [21] also investigated that biochar and compost application increases the phytostabilization potential of Brassica juncea and Dactylis glomerata in mine contaminated soil.

To the best of our knowledge, the effect of compost and biochar on S. oleracea is still not studied for cadmium contaminated soil. We hypothesized that compost and biochar treatments may protect S. oleracea and reduce Cd toxicity in the soil as well as enhancing its immobilization.

The objective of this research was to investigate the influence of compost and biochar application (sole and combined) on the growth and phytoremediation ability of S. oleracea in cadmium-contaminated soil.

Materials and methods

Preparation of biochar and compost

Biochar was prepared from sawdust and garden waste residues by the process of pyrolysis in a limited oxygen supply at 500˚C for 3 h. It was cooled at room temperature and after grinding, it was passed through a sieve to maintain the particle size of 0.2 to 0.4 mm [22]. Compost was synthesized in a large earthen pot containing holes in it. It was filled with vegetable peels (1 kg) poultry manure (1 kg) and soil (2 kg) followed by periodic mixing to facilitate degradation by aerobic microbes. It took about 5 to 6 months to convert plant material into dark-colored compost [23, 24].

Analysis of biochar and compost

The parameters like pH and EC. of biochar were measured by adding the samples in a digestion flask (1:20, v/w) and placing it on a mechanical shaker for 2 h [22]. The ash content, carbon content, nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, and moisture content were also determined [25]. Compost maturity was determined by analyzing different parameters. A fresh sample was used to measure electrical conductivity, pH, and extractable ammonium. The sample was dried at 105˚C to calculate moisture on a constant weight basis [26]. Total organic carbon, organic matter, and total Kjeldahl nitrogen were determined by following the standard protocol of Sahrawat [37], Thompson, Lege [27], and Soltanpour and Schwab [39], respectively.

Germination assay

A germination experiment was carried out in a plant physiology laboratory at PMAS Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi. Fresh aqueous extract of biochar and compost was prepared by adding 1 g solid (compost or biochar) in a flask having 100 mL distilled water. The flask was placed on a shaker for 1 h followed by centrifugation (3,000 rpm for 15 minutes) and filtration [28]. Two spinach varieties (Desi palak and Kanta palak) were used in this experiment and the seeds were collected from the National Agriculture Research Center, Islamabad. Seeds were sterilized with H₂O₂ (2% for 10 minutes) and rinsed with distilled water 3–4 times [29]. The experimental design was a two-factor factorial and completely randomized design (CRD).

A total of eight treatments with three replicates were carried out; control (T₀), 10 ppm CdCl₂ (T₁), biochar 1% (T₂), biochar 1% + 10 ppm CdCl₂ (T₃), compost 1% (T₄), compost 1% + 10 ppm CdCl₂ (T₅), compost 1% + biochar 1% (T₆), and compost 1% + biochar 1% + 10 ppm CdCl₂ (T₇).
Seeds (20) were placed on Petri plates having a double layer of filter paper and received 6 mL of extract (compost or biochar extract) and 2 mL of 10 ppm CdCl$_2$ solution on alternate days. The control received distilled water treatment. After germination, the seedlings were maintained for 15 days and different parameters were measured by using the formulas given below.

\[
\text{Germination} \ (\%) = \frac{\text{Number of seeds germinated}}{\text{total number of seeds}} \times 100
\]

[30].

\[
\text{Germination Stress Tolerance Index} \ (\%) = \frac{P.I \ under \ stressed \ conditions}{P.I \ under \ controlled \ conditions} \times 100
\]

[31]

\[
\text{Tolerance Index} \ (\%) = \frac{\text{Mean root length in stress}}{\text{Mean root length in control}} \times 100
\]

[30].

\[
\text{Seedling Vigor Index} \ (\%) = \text{Seedling length (cm)} \times \text{Germination percentage}
\]

[30].

**Soil preparation and pot experiment**

The experiment was conducted in the glasshouse of PMAS Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi. The soil was collected from a local nursery, air-dried, and sieved. Its pH (1:10 ratio w/v), electrical conductivity, and organic matter content were analyzed [32]. Soil texture, moisture content, and nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium content were also measured by following the methods of Bouyoucos [33], Reynolds [34], and Walinga, Van Der Lee [35], respectively. This experiment was carried out from December to February in 2019, and the temperature range was 8˚C to 19˚C during the growth season. The soil was mixed homogeneously with compost (1%) and biochar (1%) and incubated for 1 month. Control soil was also maintained without any treatment. Seeds of two spinach varieties (Desi palak and Kanta palak) were collected and sterilized as mentioned in the germination section. The experiment was a two-factor factorial and completely randomized design (CRD). It included eight treatments and three replicates. Details of treatments are given in Table 1. Earthen pots (15 cm x 7 cm) were filled with 7 kg soil (incubated with compost and biochar as mentioned above) and 7 kg of soil were used. The pots were labeled and maintained for 1 month. Treatments were placed in randomized blocks with three replications. Data were analyzed using the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Tukey’s HSD test to determine significant differences among treatments. The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software.

**Table 1. Effect of biochar and compost on length and root biomass of Spinacia oleracea in cadmium contaminated soil.** Mean of three replicates and standard deviation are presented. Different letters show significant difference among treatments. Control (T0), 10 ppm CdCl$_2$ (T1), biochar 1% (T2), biochar 1% + 10 ppm CdCl$_2$ (T3), compost 1% (T4), compost 1% + 10 ppm CdCl$_2$ (T5), compost 1% + biochar 1% (T6), compost 1% + biochar 1% + 10 ppm CdCl$_2$ (T7).

| Treatments  | Root length (cm) | Shoot length (cm) | Root fresh weight (g) | Root dry weight (g) |
|-------------|------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
|             | V1               | V2               | V1                   | V2                 | V1            | V2               | V1            | V2               |
| T0          | 24.2 ± 1.9 abcd  | 22.3 ± 1.1 AB    | 26.5 ± 0.4 b         | 24.4 ± 0.5 C       | 1.5 ± 0.0 bc  | 1.3 ± 0.0 BC    | 0.4 ± 0.0 bc  | 0.4 ± 0.0 AB     |
| T1          | 16.1 ± 0.4 d     | 13.6 ± 1.6 B     | 15.6 ± 0.8 d         | 15.1 ± 0.6 F       | 0.8 ± 0.0 f   | 0.4 ± 0.0 D     | 0.2 ± 0.0 d   | 0.2 ± 0.0 C      |
| T2          | 28.0 ± 0.9 abc   | 27.4 ± 2 A       | 27.6 ± 0.7 b         | 25 ± 0.3 BC        | 1.7 ± 0.0 bc  | 1.4 ± 0.0 ABC   | 0.5 ± 0.0 ab  | 0.4 ± 0.0 AB     |
| T3          | 20.3 ± 1.8 bcd   | 15.3 ± 0.5 AB    | 17.6 ± 0.5 d         | 16.1 ± 0.8 EF      | 1.0 ± 0.1 ef  | 0.5 ± 0 CD      | 0.3 ± 0 c    | 0.3 ± 0 B        |
| T4          | 28.8 ± 0.9 ab    | 28.1 ± 0.5 A     | 29.7 ± 0.1 b         | 27.7 ± 0.5 AB      | 1.9 ± 0.0 ab  | 1.7 ± 0.0 AB    | 0.4 ± 0.0 ab  | 0.5 ± 0.0 AB     |
| T5          | 21.8 ± 1.1 cd    | 19.3 ± 2.6 AB    | 18.2 ± 0.6 cd        | 17.4 ± 0.4 DE      | 1.1 ± 0.0 def | 0.6 ± 0 C       | 0.3 ± 0 c    | 0.3 ± 0 B        |
| T6          | 32.4 ± 1.8 a     | 29.2 ± 2 A       | 33.6 ± 0.4 a         | 29.5 ± 0.4 A       | 2.3 ± 0.1 a   | 2 ± 0.1 A       | 0.6 ± 0.0 a   | 0.5 ± 0.0 A      |
| T7          | 24.2 ± 1.7 abcd  | 20.1 ± 1.4 AB    | 21.3 ± 0.3 c         | 20.1 ± 0.3 D       | 1.4 ± 0.0 cde | 0.6 ± 0 BC      | 0.4 ± 0 bc    | 0.36 ± 0.0 B     |

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0263289.t001
seeds were sown in each pot after 7 days of germination thinning was done to maintain 4 plants per pot. The soil was contaminated by applying the solution of 10 ppm CdCl$_2$ after 45 days of germination. Plants were harvested after 60 days of germination and different parameters were analyzed.

**Growth parameters**

The plants were uprooted after 60 days of germination, washed with distilled water and root and shoot length were measured by using a scale [36]. The fresh weight was measured immediately after harvesting, while the dry weight was recorded once the constant weight was obtained by placing it in an oven at 75˚C for 48 h [37]. The leaf area of fully expanded leaves was measured using a leaf area meter [38].

**Physiological attributes**

For pigment determination, maceration of fresh leaves (0.2 g) was done in acetone (10 mL). After complete grinding followed by filtration, the filtrate was obtained in another set of test tubes, and the absorbance was observed at 663, 652, 480, and 645 nm [39]. The lycopene content was measured by following the protocol of Ravelo-Pérez, Hernández-Borges [40]. The following equations were used to calculate chlorophyll, carotenoid contents, lycopene, and anthocyanin content.

\[
\text{Total chlorophyll contents} = \frac{A_{652} \times 1000}{34.5}
\]

\[
\text{Carotenoids} = A_{480} + 0.114 \times A_{633} - (0.638) \times 645
\]

\[
\text{Lycopene} = \left(\frac{OD \times 503 \times 31.2}{1000}\right) \times W
\]

\[
\text{Anthocyanin} = \left(\frac{0.08173 \times OD_{537} - (0.00697 \times OD_{645})}{- (0.002228 \times OD_{663})}\right)
\]

Where 'W' is the weight of leaf used.

An infrared gas analyzer was used to measure net photosynthetic rate, transpiration rate and stomatal conductance of fully expanded leaves at 9 am [41]. Fresh samples were used to calculate water using efficiency by using the following formula [54].

\[
\text{Water using efficiency} = \frac{\text{Biomass}}{E + T + \text{Losses}} \times HI
\]

Where, T = Transpiration, E = Evaporation, losses = amount of water loss. And HI = harvest index.

**Determination of proline, protein, sugar content, and ascorbic acid content**

Proline content was determined by adopting the method of Marín Velázquez, Andreu Puyal [42]. Fresh leaf (0.25 g) was crushed and ground in 3.0% sulfosalicylic acid and then filtered. In a test tube, an equal ratio (1:1:1) of filtrate, ninhydrin, and glacial acetic acid were added and heated (100˚C) for 60 min, and after that ice was used to arrest the reaction. Afterward, toluene (4 mL) was mixed thoroughly. The upper layer of the mixture was pipetted out and the sample absorbance was recorded at 520 nm. For soluble protein determination, 0.2 g of fresh leaf material was ground in liquid nitrogen and homogenized in 10 mL phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) followed by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm (4˚C) for 20 minutes. Reaction mixture 2.02 mL (20μL extracted protein + 2,000μL distilled water + 500μL Bradford reagent) was prepared and
kept at room temperature for 5 minutes and absorbance was taken at 595 nm [43]. The soluble sugar content was estimated by following the method of Dubois [44]. For this, 0.5 g of leaf part was crushed by occasional adding of water in a small amount followed by filtration. In a test tube, the same amount of sample and phenol (1 mL) was added with 95.5% Sulphuric acid (5 mL) and left for 10 minutes. After that, the test tubes were well shaken and allowed to heat (at 30˚C) in a water bath till the appearance of orange-yellow coloration (15 to 20 minutes) and recorded the OD at 490 nm. Ascorbic acid content was measured by following the protocol of Mukherjee and Choudhuri [45].

**Determination of Malondialdehyde (MDA) content, and Membrane Stability Index (MSI)**

Malondialdehyde content was determined by grinding 0.1 g frozen leaf in 25 mL phosphate buffer solution (50 mM) having 1% polyethylene pyrrole at 4˚C followed by centrifugation at 10,000 × g for 15 minutes. The supernatant was subjected to heating at 100˚C for 15 minutes and quickly cooled in an ice bath. Absorbance was taken in a spectrophotometer at 450, 532, 600 nm [46]. Fresh samples were used to calculate the membrane stability index by following the method of Sairam [47].

**Superoxide dismutase (SOD), Peroxidase (POD), and Catalase (CAT) activity**

To determine SOD activity, plant sample was taken and mixed in 10 mL of buffer (pH 7) after that it was centrifuged. The supernatant (0.1 mL) was taken and transferred to two sets of test tubes labeled as A and B. In both sets of test tubes 0.1 mL riboflavin stock and 3 mL of the buffer (Methionine + EDTA + NBT) were added and mixed well. Set A of test tubes was placed under fluorescent light for 8 h while the B set was not exposed to fluorescent light. When the yellow color turned dark, absorbance of both sets was noted at 560 nm [48]. POD activity was measured by following the protocol of Sakharov and Ardila [49]. A reaction mixture (3 mL) was prepared containing 0.05 mL enzyme extract, 0.1 mL of H$_2$O$_2$ (1%), 0.1 mL of guaiacol solution and 2.75 mL of (50 mM) phosphate buffer solution (pH 7). The absorbance was measured by using a spectrophotometer. The increase in absorbance was measured at 470 nm for 3 minutes. Catalase activity was measured by following the protocol of Aebi [50]. The reaction mixture was prepared to contain 2.7 mL potassium phosphate buffer, 100 μL enzyme extract, 100μL of H$_2$O$_2$ (300 mM), and 2 mM EDTA (pH 7.0). The decrease in absorbance was measured at 240 nm.

**Cadmium availability in soil and its content, uptake, and bioaccumulation in spinach**

The bioavailability of cadmium was measured by diethylene triamine pentaacetic acid (DTPA) extraction according to ISO 14870 [51]. To find the Cd content in the plant, samples were separated in root and shoot and oven-dried at 70˚C for 72 hrs and then crushed to powder using pestle and mortar. The dried samples then underwent acid digestion by a mixture of three acids i.e. perchloric acid, sulphuric acid, and nitric acid (1:1:5 ratio) using the protocol adopted by Alia [37]. After digestion, the samples were filtered and diluted with distilled water. They were then analyzed for their metal content using atomic absorption spectrophotometer. The translocation factor (TF) and bioaccumulation of cadmium was calculated by using the
Translocation factor = \( \frac{\text{Cd content in shoot}}{\text{Cd content in root}} \)

Bioaccumulation factor in shoot = \( \frac{\text{Cd content in shoot}}{\text{Cd content in media}} \)

Bioaccumulation factor in root = \( \frac{\text{Cd content in root}}{\text{Cd content in media}} \)

Statistical analysis
Data of all parameters were collected and analyzed by using Statistics 8.1 software (Analytical Software, USA). The data were subjected to Analysis of variance and Tukey’s HSD was performed to evaluate the difference in mean values of treatments.

Results
Characteristics of soil, biochar, and compost
Soil analysis (S1 Table) showed that its texture was loam and has pH 7.34. Analysis of biochar and compost revealed that the pH was relatively high which was responsible for the immobilization of cadmium in the soil. It also contained high concentration of macronutrients (potassium, nitrogen, and phosphorus) and humic substances which improved the growth of spinach. The electrical conductivity of biochar and compost was 21.1 and 3.4 ds/m while their moisture level was 7.1 and 58.3% respectively.

Effect of biochar and compost on germination of spinach
The germination attributes (Fig 1A–1D) of spinach were badly affected by cadmium toxicity as compared to control. The decrease in germination percentage, germination stress tolerance index, tolerance index and seedling vigor index was 19.49%, 26.26%, 24.60%, 42.93% and 23.26%, 28.25%, 28.20%, 42.93% in V1 and V2, respectively. The application of biochar and compost increased the germination attributes significantly (\( p < 0.05 \)). While the combined application of biochar and compost gave more prominent results. The increase in germination percentage, germination stress tolerance index, tolerance index, and seedling vigor index by combined application was 11.66%, 11.86%, 17.89%, 41.88% in V1 and 10.53%, 9.37%, 16.66%, and 25.53% in V2, respectively, as compared to non-treated stress exposed plants.

Effect of biochar and compost on the biomass of spinach
Data of morphological attributes is presented in Tables 1 and S2. According to the results, growth of spinach was reduced in cadmium-contaminated soil. The decrease in root length, shoot length, root fresh weight, root dry weight, shoot fresh weight, shoot dry weight and in leaf area was 33.22%, 41.13%, 47.43%, 46.66%, 37.50%, 7.89% 39.66% in V1 and 38.82%, 38.11%, 67.64%, 48.83%, 46.55%, 45.45% and 62.50% in V2, respectively. The application of biochar and compost helped to increase the growth of spinach in uncontaminated and contaminated soil. Variety 1 gave a better response as compared to variety 2. The combined application of biochar and compost gave efficient results i.e., increase in root length and shoot length was 33.88% and 26.79% in V1 while 30.76% and 21.02% in V2 in uncontaminated soil as compared to control.
Whereas, in contaminated soil, the combined application increased root length and shoot length of spinach to 49.75% and 36.73% in V1 and 47.36% and 33.11% in V2 as compared to untreated stress exposed plants. The increase by combined application in other growth-related attributes of spinach grown in contaminated soil was also significant (p < 0.05). The increase in root fresh weight, root dry weight, shoot fresh weight, shoot dry weight, and leaf area was 49.35%, 33.33%, 97.36%, 42.85% and 33.51% in V1 and 47.05%, 27.90%, 74.52%, 55.55%, and 31.25% in V2, respectively, as compared to untreated stress exposed plants.

Fig 1. Effect of biochar and compost on germination attributes of Spinach under cadmium stress. (A) Germination percentage, (B) Germination Stress Tolerance Index, (C) Tolerance Index (D) Seedling Vigor Index of spinach. The mean of three replicates and standard deviation are presented. Different letters show significant difference among treatments. Control (T0), 10 ppm CdCl₂ (T1), biochar 1% (T2), biochar 1% + 10 ppm CdCl₂ (T3), compost 1% (T4), compost 1% + 10 ppm CdCl₂ (T5), compost 1% + biochar 1% (T6), compost 1% + biochar 1% + 10 ppm CdCl₂ (T7).

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0263289.g001

Whereas, in contaminated soil, the combined application increased root length and shoot length of spinach to 49.75% and 36.73% in V1 and 47.36% and 33.11% in V2 as compared to untreated stress exposed plants. The increase by combined application in other growth-related attributes of spinach grown in contaminated soil was also significant (p < 0.05). The increase in root fresh weight, root dry weight, shoot fresh weight, shoot dry weight, and leaf area was 49.35%, 33.33%, 97.36%, 42.85% and 33.51% in V1 and 47.05%, 27.90%, 74.52%, 55.55%, and 31.25% in V2, respectively, as compared to untreated stress exposed plants.

Effect of biochar and compost on photosynthetic pigments, gas exchange attributes, and water using efficiency of spinach

Photosynthetic pigments, gas exchange attributes, and water content of spinach were decreased significantly (p < 0.05) in cadmium-contaminated soil. Data presented in Fig 2 and S3 Table shows that the application of biochar and compost alone and in combination have ameliorative potential and they increased the content of Photosynthetic pigments, rate of gaseous exchange, and water use efficiency of spinach even under stress. The combined application gave better results i.e., the maximum increase in total chlorophyll content, carotenoid content, lycopene, and anthocyanin was 34.69%, 55.10%, 38.91%, and 80.14%, respectively, as
compared to control. Whereas the increase in these attributes of plants grown in contaminated soil by the combined application was 68.88%, 55.34%, 58.28%, and 351.52% as compared to untreated stress-exposed plants. The same trend was observed in gas exchange attributes and water use efficiency of spinach. The maximum rate of gas exchange attributes and water use efficiency by combined application was 49.42% (net photosynthesis), 30.68% (transpiration rate), 28.64% (stomatal conductance), and 35.01% (water using efficiency) in plants grown in uncontaminated soil as compared to control. On the other hand, 67.09% (net photosynthesis), 52.19% (transpiration rate), 49.78% (stomatal conductance), and 218.22% (water use efficiency) increase was observed in plants grown in contaminated soil as compared to untreated stress exposed plants.

**Effect of biochar and compost on proline, protein, sugar, and ascorbic acid content of spinach**

The proline and sugar content (S4 Table) was increased to 69.29% and 14.03% in V1 and 59.13% and 35.72% in V2 in stress-exposed plants. The application of biochar and compost reduces the toxicity of cadmium and to some extent maintains the level of proline and sugar in spinach. The maximum ameliorative response was given by combined application i.e., the decrease in proline and sugar level was 34.19% and 14.53% in V1 and 31.38% and 6.85% in V2.
as compared to untreated stress exposed plants. The combined application also maintained protein structures and increased the rate of photosynthesis, so the protein content was increased to 26.49% in V1 and 20.90% in V2 as compared to untreated stress exposed plants, respectively. The ascorbic acid content was high in plants grown in cadmium-contaminated soil (27.36% and 21.97% increase in V1 and V2) as compared to control. The combined application significantly reduced (p < 0.05) ascorbic acid content in V1 (40.49%) and V2 (36.93%) as compared to untreated stress-exposed plants.

**Effect of biochar and compost on Membrane Stability Index (MSI), Malondialdehyde content (MDA), and antioxidant activities of spinach**

Membrane damage and a high level of MDA in leaves show that cadmium is the cause of oxidative damage in spinach. The data regarding MSI and MDA is presented in Table 2. Due to cadmium, the membrane stability was decreased to 33.90% and 34.03%, and the MDA content was increased to 451.61% and 634.37% in V1 and V2, respectively, as compared to control. Application of biochar and compost reduces membrane damage and lipid peroxidation significantly (p < 0.05). The more pronounced result was recorded in plants receiving the combined application of biochar and compost. The membrane stability was increased to 44.36% (V1) and 45.12% (V2) while MDA content was decreased to 68.60% (V1) and 59.54% (V2) by combined application as compared to untreated stress exposed plants. The combined application of biochar and compost also significantly (p < 0.05) increased antioxidant activities (Fig 3) in stress-exposed spinach plants. The increase in superoxide dismutase, peroxidase, and catalase was 76.03%, 29.02%, and 123.27% in V1 and 74.44%, 30.17%, and 107.42% in V2, respectively, as compared to untreated stress exposed plants.

**Effect of biochar and compost on the bioavailability of DTPA-extractable cadmium in soil**

The data of soil analysis for DTPA-extractable cadmium is shown in Table 3. Cadmium content was not observed in uncontaminated soil. It was reported that biochar and compost application reduces the amount of available Cd for the plant. The decrease in the concentration of DTPA-extractable cadmium by biochar application was 17.30% and 9.32%, whereas compost reduces Cd availability to 31.92% and 18.28%. The combined amendment gave pronounced results as they decreased the Cd availability to 40.76% and 31.71%.

| Treatments | MSI (%) | MDA (μg/g FW) |
|------------|---------|---------------|
|            | V1      | V2            | V1      | V2      |
| T0         | 82.0 ± 0.4 ab | 80.8 ± 1.0 A | 0.3 ± 0.0 d | 0.3 ± 0.0 E |
| T1         | 54.2 ± 1.0 c  | 53.3 ± 1.2 B  | 1.7 ± 0.0 a | 2.3 ± 0.0 A |
| T2         | 90.4 ± 0.6 ab | 82.1 ± 1.7 A  | 0.2 ± 0.0 de | 0.3 ± 0.0 E |
| T3         | 63.3 ± 1.6 bc | 58.2 ± 2.8 B  | 0.8 ± 0.0 b | 1.6 ± 0.0 B |
| T4         | 92.0 ± 0.4 ab | 83.4 ± 1.4 A  | 0.2 ± 0.0 ef | 0.2 ± 0.0 E |
| T5         | 66.6 ± 0.7 bc | 64.6 ± 1.0 B  | 0.5 ± 0.0 c  | 1.2 ± 0.0 C |
| T6         | 94.0 ± 1.2 a  | 85.2 ± 0.9 A  | 0.1 ± 0.0 f  | 0.2 ± 0.0 E |
| T7         | 78.6 ± 1.6 b  | 77.0 ± 2.8 A  | 0.5 ± 0.0 c  | 0.9 ± 0.0 D |

Table 2. Effect of biochar and compost on membrane stability index and malondialdehyde content of Spinach in cadmium contaminated soil. The mean of three replicates and standard deviation are presented. Different letters show the significant difference among treatments. Treatments as mentioned in Table 1.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0263289.t002
Effect of biochar and compost on cadmium uptake, translocation, and bioaccumulation in spinach

In this study, the uptake translocation and bioaccumulation of Cd were also reported (Fig 4 and Table 3). The amount of Cd in plants grown in uncontaminated soil was negligible (0 ppm CdCl₂). The combined application of biochar and compost reduced the uptake, translocation and bioaccumulation of Cd in plants. The alone application of biochar reduced the Cd content to 12.88% (V1) and 10.73% (V2) in roots and 16.23% (V1) and 13.23% (V2) in shoots while the decrease by the amendment of compost was 23.67% (V1) and 23.08% (V2) in roots and 33.50% (V1) and 24.26% (V2) in shoots as compared to untreated stress exposed plants. Whereas, the combined application gave better results, it reduced the Cd content to 40.41% (V1) and 34.13% (V2) in roots and 51.16% (V1) and 42.64% (V2) in shoots. The data relating to the translocation factor and bioaccumulation of Cd (in root and shoot) is shown in Table 3. These parameters also have the same trend as Cd content in spinach. The combined application of biochar and compost gave the best results i.e. the decrease in translocation factor was 19.67% and 6.77% in V1 and V2 respectively. The combined application immobilized the Cd in soil and tried to reduce the Cd toxicity so the decrease in bioaccumulation of Cd was 52.63% (V1) and 42.50% (V2) in shoot and 40.32% (V1) and 38.23% (V2) in root respectively. The variety V1 showed less uptake and translocation of Cd so it is tolerant as compared to V2.

Fig 3. Effect of biochar and compost on antioxidant activities of Spinach under cadmium stress. (A) superoxide dismutase (B) peroxidase (C) catalase activities of Spinach. The mean of three replicates and standard deviation are presented. Different letters show the significant difference among treatments. Treatments as mentioned in Fig 1.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0263289.g003

Effect of biochar and compost on cadmium uptake, translocation, and bioaccumulation in spinach

In this study, the uptake translocation and bioaccumulation of Cd were also reported (Fig 4 and Table 3). The amount of Cd in plants grown in uncontaminated soil was negligible (0 ppm CdCl₂). The combined application of biochar and compost reduced the uptake, translocation and bioaccumulation of Cd in plants. The alone application of biochar reduced the Cd content to 12.88% (V1) and 10.73% (V2) in roots and 16.23% (V1) and 13.23% (V2) in shoots while the decrease by the amendment of compost was 23.67% (V1) and 23.08% (V2) in roots and 33.50% (V1) and 24.26% (V2) in shoots as compared to untreated stress exposed plants. Whereas, the combined application gave better results, it reduced the Cd content to 40.41% (V1) and 34.13% (V2) in roots and 51.16% (V1) and 42.64% (V2) in shoots. The data relating to the translocation factor and bioaccumulation of Cd (in root and shoot) is shown in Table 3. These parameters also have the same trend as Cd content in spinach. The combined application of biochar and compost gave the best results i.e. the decrease in translocation factor was 19.67% and 6.77% in V1 and V2 respectively. The combined application immobilized the Cd in soil and tried to reduce the Cd toxicity so the decrease in bioaccumulation of Cd was 52.63% (V1) and 42.50% (V2) in shoot and 40.32% (V1) and 38.23% (V2) in root respectively. The variety V1 showed less uptake and translocation of Cd so it is tolerant as compared to V2.
Table 3. Effect of biochar and compost on DTPA-extractable Cd from soil and translocation and bioaccumulation factor of Spinach grown in cadmium contaminated soil. The mean of three replicates and standard deviation are presented. Different letters show the significant difference among treatments. Treatments as mentioned in Table 1.

| Treatments | DTPA-Extractable Cd (mg/kg) | Translocation factor | Bioaccumulation factor of shoot | Bioaccumulation factor of root |
|------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
|            | V1  | V2  | V1  | V2  | V1  | V2  | V1  | V2  |
| T0         | 0.2 ± 0.0 e | 0.2 ± 0.0 E | 0.04 ± 0.0 e | 0.04 ± 0.0 E | 0.05 ± 0.0 e | 0.06 ± 0.0 C | 0.7 ± 0.0 ab | 0.6 ± 0.0 AB |
| T1         | 2.6 ± 0.0 a | 2.6 ± 0.0 A | 0.38 ± 0.0 a | 0.40 ± 0.0 A | 0.62 ± 0.0 a | 0.68 ± 0.0 A | 0.6 ± 0.0 bc | 0.5 ± 0.0 BCD |
| T2         | 0.2 ± 0.0 f | 0.2 ± 0.0 E | 0.03 ± 0.0 e | 0.04 ± 0.0 E f | 0.05 ± 0.0 f | 0.22 ± 0.1 BC | 0.7 ± 0.0 a | 0.7 ± 0.0 A |
| T3         | 2.1 ± 0.0 b | 2.4 ± 0.0 B | 0.32 ± 0.0 b | 0.35 ± 0.0 B | 0.54 ± 0.0 b | 0.60 ± 0.0 A | 0.5 ± 0.0 bc | 0.5 ± 0.0 CD |
| T4         | 0.1 ± 0.0 g | 0.1 ± 0.0 F | 0.03 ± 0.0 ef | 0.03 ± 0.0F G | 0.04 ± 0.0 fg | 0.04 ± 0.0 C | 0.7 ± 0.0 ab | 0.7 ± 0.0 A |
| T5         | 1.7 ± 0.0 c | 2.1 ± 0.0 C | 0.25 ± 0.0 c | 0.30 ± 0.0 C | 0.47 ± 0.0 c | 0.52 ± 0.0 A | 0.5 ± 0.0 c | 0.5 ± 0.0 CD |
| T6         | 0.1 ± 0.0 g | 0.1 ± 0.0 F | 0.02 ± 0.0 f | 0.02 ± 0.0 G | 0.04 ± 0.0 g | 0.04 ± 0.0 C | 0.6 ± 0.0 bc | 0.6 ± 0.0 ABC |
| T7         | 1.5 ± 0.0 d | 1.8 ± 0.0 D | 0.18 ± 0.0 d | 0.23 ± 0.0 D | 0.37 ± 0.0 d | 0.42 ± 0.0 AB | 0.4 ± 0.0 c | 0.5 ± 0.0 D |

Discussion

This research evaluates the effectiveness of biochar and compost application in cadmium (Cd) contaminated soil. It may immobilize cadmium, reducing its uptake, and promoting the growth of the plant. The results showed that Cd contamination adversely affects the germination and growth of plants. Previous reports in literature have also documented similar results. Shah et al. [54] reported that Cd stress decreased seed germination and growth of *Brassica oleracea* L. They also documented a high level of malondialdehyde, hydrogen peroxide, and electrolyte leakage in lants. Zhu [55] showed that Cd toxicity affects seed germination and seedling growth. Ma et al. [56] reported that arsenic (As) and Cd accumulated in the seeds of rice which is a serious food safety concern for human health. Tousi et al. [57] also investigated that Cd causes oxidative stress in *Malva parviflora* and reduces its growth.

Phytoremediation is an effective agricultural practice in heavy metal contaminated soil and organic amendments like biochar and compost improve the growth of plants and soil fertility as well [58–60]. But, there is a need to investigate the alone and combined application of biochar and compost in Cd contaminated soil and to check their potential for the amelioration of soil and their impact on plant growth. So, to cover the research gap, this study was specifically designed to add more information to existing knowledge. Application of biochar and compost increases cation exchange capacity, causes surface precipitation, and imbibition of heavy metal in soil. On the other hand, compost adds humic content, increases soil microbial activity, and add nutrient to soil [61]. These characteristics of biochar and compost improve soil structure, its water holding capacity, and heavy metal immobilization which results in improved plant growth [62]. Ye et al. [63] reported that co-composting of contaminated soil with biochar and compost showed good potential for decontamination and detoxification of polluted soil. Tedoro et al. [64] also reported that co-application of compost and biochar increases nutrient availability in soil and reduces metal mobility, and improves conditions for the growth of plants in Pb and Zn contaminated soil. Khanna et al. [80] documented that organic amendment enhances the growth of *Solanum lycopersicum* and reduces the expression of metal transporter genes in plants. They also improve metabolite production which makes plants stress tolerance [81,82]. The study of Bashir et al. [83] shows that the co-application of biochar and compost reduces the amount of Cr metal by 4.1 μg/g soil while the decrease in the amount of heavy metal in plant shoot and root was 19.2 and 22.6 μg/g.

In this study, the application of biochar and compost improved photosynthetic pigment and gas exchange attributes and water use efficiency (S3 Table) of plants significantly (p < 0.05). Biochar may reduce Cd bioavailability by forming Cd complexes and improving
the growth of plants [65]. Beesley and Marmiroli [66] reported that sorption of Cd and Zn was done on the surface of biochar and it was not immediately reversible and it resulted in a 300 fold reduction in leachate concentration of Cd. It was also documented that the amendment of compost causes immobilization of heavy metals and by other phytostabilization strategies improve the soil and make it good for plant growth [67]. Lebrun et al. [20] reported that application of compost and biochar reduces the toxicity of Pb and As and enhanced the production of the photosynthetic pigment in *Salix viminalis* L. They enhanced the production of chlorophyll, biomass and, gas exchange attributes in plants.

Cd stress causes oxidative damage to membranes, proteins, lipids, and nucleic acid. It cause chlorosis, affect photosynthetic machinery, necrosis, and reduces plant growth. It inhibit the process of germination and crop establishment and make soil toxic for plants [68]. In this research, the level of antioxidants was increased by biochar and compost application (Fig 3). Antioxidants, especially superoxide dismutase, constitute the first line of defense against reactive oxygen species. A strong correlation was also observed between peroxidase, catalase, and cadmium in the presence of biochar and compost amendment [20]. Lakhdar et al. [69] also showed that the amendment of compost reduces oxidative stress by the synthesis of ascorbate peroxidase, glutathione reductase, superoxide dismutase, and catalase and it also improves the growth of wheat in the presence of heavy metals. Ahmad et al. [70] also reported that the application of compost and *Bacillus* reduces membrane leakage and maintains the homeostasis of antioxidant activities in radish grown in Pb contaminated soil. These treatments also maintain the photosynthetic rate, stomatal conductance, and relative water content of radish. Hafeez et al. [71] investigation show that the application of 3% biochar reduces the oxidative stress of rice in Cd and NaCl contaminated soil and improves plant growth and physiology. Kamran et al. [72] also reported that biochar improves the biomass, photosynthetic pigments, and antioxidant activities of *Brassica napus* L. in wastewater contaminated soil. On the other hand, it also decreases AB-DTP extractable Cd to 44% and 2%.

Proline is an osmoprotectant, metal chelator, protein stabilizer, and inhibitor of lipid peroxidation and its concentration increases in plants facing stress [73]. The other osmolyte is sugar
whose accumulation also increased in plants facing stress. The main function of these osmolytes includes membrane stabilization and decreasing the osmotic potential of cells [74]. In this research, the level of osmolytes was also maintained by biochar and compost application (S4 Table). Farhangi-Abriz and Torabian [75] also reported that biochar application causes significant (p < 0.05) reduction in malondialdehyde content and osmolyte production was also decreased in bean seedlings exposed to stress. The decrease in osmolyte by organic amendment showed that these amendments increase the stress tolerance by immobilization of heavy metals and provide nutrients and water to plants [76]. Han-Song, Huang [77] also reported that compost has remediation potential and improves plant performance against cadmium stress.

In this study, the application of biochar and compost improved the soil and reduced extractable Cd content (Table 3). Novak et al. [78] also reported that biochar stabilizes Cd and reduces its toxicity. The application of biochar and compost may change the physico-chemical properties of soil and reduce the bioavailability of heavy metals [79]. Beesley et al. [80] reported that biochar and compost reduce the mobility and bioavailability of Zn and Cd in multi-element polluted soil. The application of biochar and compost have a significant (p < 0.05) effect on Cd content in shoot and root, its translocation, and bioaccumulation in spinach as shown in Fig 4 and Table 3. The application of biochar and compost reduces Cd toxicity and bioavailability to plants. It also reduces Cd uptake and it was maybe due to inhibition of root transporter, soil immobilization results in reduced translocation [15, 81]. Abbas et al. [82] also reported that biochar amendment is effective in immobilization of Cd in the soil and reduces its uptake and translocation in wheat. Hanč et al. [83] research also revealed that compost reduced the uptake of cadmium in oat.

**Conclusion**

In this study, the role of biochar and compost (in alone and combination) was analyzed in reducing the toxicity of cadmium on *S. oleracea*. It was observed that these amendments stabilize cell membrane and increase the rate of photosynthesis which leads toward the improvement of plant biomass. Cadmium stress reduces water uptake and increases the amount of ROS production which disrupts the plant metabolism [84, 85]. The application of biochar and compost triggers osmotic adjustment and maintains the production of antioxidants in plants. The combined application of biochar and compost significantly (p<0.05) reduced the amount of extractable Cd, its translocation and bioaccumulation in *S. oleracea*. It can be concluded that combined application of biochar (1%) and compost (1%) is a better strategy for reducing the negative effects of heavy metals on crops and it can also improve the growth of plants growing in contaminated soil.

**Supporting information**

**S1 Table.** Physiochemical characteristics of soil, biochar and compost. (DOCX)

**S2 Table.** Effect of biochar and compost on biomass and leaf area of *Spinacia oleracea* in cadmium contaminated soil. The mean of three replicates and standard deviation are presented. Different letters show the significant difference among treatments. Treatments as mentioned in Table 1. (DOCX)

**S3 Table.** Effect of biochar and compost on net photosynthetic rate and gas exchange attributes of Spinach in cadmium contaminated soil. The mean of three replicates and standard
deviation are presented. Different letters show the significant difference among treatments. Treatments as mentioned in Table 1.

(DOCX)

S4 Table. Effect of biochar and compost on proline, protein, sugar, and ascorbic acid content of Spinach in cadmium contaminated soil. The mean of three replicates and standard deviation are presented. Different letters show the significant difference among treatments. Treatments as mention in Table 1.

(DOCX)

S1 Graphical abstract.

(TIF)

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to extend their sincere appreciation to the Researchers Supporting Project Number (RSP-2022/182) King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Noshin Ilyas, Humaira Yasmin, Daniel Ingo Hefft, Mohamed A. El-Sheikh, Parvaiz Ahmad.

Data curation: Noshin Ilyas.

Formal analysis: Nosheen Akhtar.

Funding acquisition: Daniel Ingo Hefft, Mohamed A. El-Sheikh.

Investigation: Noshin Ilyas, Nosheen Akhtar.

Methodology: Noshin Ilyas, Nosheen Akhtar, Humaira Yasmin.

Resources: Nosheen Akhtar.

Software: Kinza Tanveer, Noshin Ilyas.

Supervision: Humaira Yasmin, Parvaiz Ahmad.

Validation: Kinza Tanveer, Humaira Yasmin.

Visualization: Kinza Tanveer, Humaira Yasmin.

Writing – original draft: Kinza Tanveer, Humaira Yasmin.

Writing – review & editing: Daniel Ingo Hefft, Mohamed A. El-Sheikh, Parvaiz Ahmad.

References

1. Raja S, Cheema HMN, Babar S, Khan AA, Murtaza G, Aslam U. Socio-economic background of wastewater irrigation and bioaccumulation of heavy metals in crops and vegetables. Agricultural Water Management. 2015; 158:26–34.
2. Abioye O, Ijah U, Aransiola S. Phytoremediation of soil contaminants by the biodiesel plant Jatropha curcas. Phytoremediation Potential of Bioenergy Plants: Springer; 2017. p. 97–137.
3. Karunanayanake AG, Todd OA, Crowley M, Ricchetti L, Pittman CU Jr, Anderson R, et al. Lead and cadmium remediation using magnetized and nonmagnetized biochar from Douglas fir. Chemical Engineering Journal. 2018; 331:480–91.
4. Ghosh R, Roy S. Cadmium toxicity in plants: unveiling the physicochemical and molecular aspects. Cadmium tolerance in plants: Elsevier; 2019. p. 223–46.
5. Liu W, Zhou Q, Zhang Y, Wei S. Lead accumulation in different Chinese cabbage cultivars and screening for pollution-safe cultivars. Journal of environmental management. 2010; 91(3):781–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2009.10.009 PMID: 19942339

6. Ali MME-S. Efficiency of rice straw and its different composts in remediation of Cd and Pb contaminated sandy loam soil. International Journal of Plant & Soil Science. 2015; 6(6):330–40.

7. Farraj H, Aziz HA, Tajuddin RM, Mohji A. Optimization of phytoremediation of lead-contaminated soil by spinach (Spinacia oleracea L.). International Journal of Scientific Research in Knowledge. 2014; 2(10):480.

8. Salaskar D, Shrivastava M, Kale SP. Bioremediation potential of spinach (Spinacia oleracea L.) for decontamination of cadmium in soil. Current science. 2011; 101(10):1359–63.

9. Suthar V, Mahmood-ul-Hassan M, Memon KS, Rafique E. Heavy-metal phytoextraction potential of spinach and mustard grown in contaminated calcareous soils. Communications in soil science and plant analysis. 2013; 44(18):2757–70.

10. Ahmad K, Khan ZI, Ashfaq A, Ashraf M, Yasmin S. Assessment of heavy metal and metalloid levels in spinach (Spinacia oleracea L.) grown in wastewater irrigated agricultural soil of Sargodha, Pakistan. Pak J Bot. 2014; 46(5):1805–10.

11. Zhang C, Clark GJ, Patti AF, Bolan N, Cheng M, Sale PW, et al. Contrasting effects of organic amendments on phytoremediation of heavy metals in a contaminated sediment. Plant and soil. 2015; 397(1–2):331–45.

12. Dhiman S, Handa N, Sharma N, Kaur R, Ohri P, Bhardwaj R. Role of Biochar in Heavy Metal Toxicity in Plants. Cellular and Molecular Phytotoxicity of Heavy Metals: Springer; 2020. p. 349–71.

13. Ok YS, Chang SX, Gao B, Chung H-J. SMART biochar technology—a shifting paradigm towards advanced materials and healthcare research. Environmental Technology & Innovation. 2015; 4:206–9.

14. Nandillon R, Lebrun M, Miard F, Gaillard M, Sabatier S, Villar M, et al. Capability of amendments (biochar, compost and garden soil) added to a mining technosol contaminated by Pb and As to allow poplar seed (Populus nigra L.) germination. Environmental monitoring and assessment. 2019; 191(7):1–12. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-019-7561-6 PMID: 31243568

15. Wang Y, Zhang K, Lu L, Xiao X, Chen B. Novel insights into effects of silicon-rich biochar (Sichar) amendment on cadmium uptake, translocation and accumulation in rice plants. Environmental Pollution. 2020; 265:114772. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.114772 PMID: 32454359

16. Benhabylès L, Djebbar R, Miard F, Nandillon R, Morabito D, Bourgerie S. Biochar and compost effects on the remediation capacities of Oxalis pes-caprae L. growing on mining technosol polluted by Pb and As. Environmental Science and Pollution Research. 2020; 27:30133–44. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-08833-x PMID: 32449151

17. Lebrun M, Alidou Arzika I, Miard F, Nandillon R, Bıçak Y, Bourgerie S, et al. Effect of fertilization of a biochar and compost amended technosol: Consequence on Ailanthus altissima growth and As-and Pb-specific root sorption. Soil Use and Management. 2020; 36(4):766–72.

18. Hussain F, Hussain I, Khan AHA, Muhammad YS, Iqbal M, Soja G, et al. Combined application of biochar, compost, and bacterial consortia with Italian ryegrass enhanced phytoremediation of petroleum hydrocarbon contaminated soil. Environmental and Experimental Botany. 2018; 153:80–8.

19. Ogundiran MB, Mekwunye NS, Adejumo SA. Compost and biochar assisted phytoremediation potentials of Moringa oleifera for remediation of lead contaminated soil. Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering. 2018; 6(2):2206–13.

20. Lebrun M, Miard F, Nandillon R, Scippa GS, Bourgerie S, Morabito D. Biochar effect associated with compost and iron to promote Pb and As soil stabilization and Salix viminalis L. growth. Chemosphere. 2019; 222:810–22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.01.188 PMID: 30739065

21. Vračonti D, Álvarez-Robles MJ, Fiorentino N, Fagnano M, Clemente R. Use of Brassica juncea and Dactylis glomerata for the phytostabilization of mine soils amended with compost or biochar. Chemosphere. 2020; 260:127661. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2020.127661 PMID: 32688327

22. Abbas A, Azeem M, Naveed M, Latif A, Bashir S, Ali A, et al. Synergistic use of biochar and acidified manure for improving growth of maize in chromium contaminated soil. International journal of phytoremediation. 2020; 22(1):52–61. https://doi.org/10.1080/15226514.2019.1644286 PMID: 31353932

23. Wang Q, Awasthi MK, Ren X, Zhao J, Li R, Wang Z, et al. Combining biochar, zeolite and wood vinegar for composting of pig manure: the effect on greenhouse gas emission and nitrogen conservation. Waste Management. 2018; 74:221–30. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2018.01.015 PMID: 29358021

24. Wang Y, Xu Y, Li D, Tang B, Man S, Jia Y, et al. Vermicompost and biochar as bio-conditioners to immobilize heavy metal and improve soil fertility on cadmium contaminated soil under acid rain stress. Science of the Total Environment. 2018; 621:1057–65. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.10.121 PMID: 29066203
25. Zhao X, Wang J, Wang S, Xing G. Successive straw biochar application as a strategy to sequester carbon and improve fertility: A pot experiment with two rice/wheat rotations in paddy soil. Plant and soil. 2014; 378(1):279–94.

26. Li R, Wang JJ, Zhang Z, Shen F, Zhang G, Qin R, et al. Nutrient transformations during composting of pig manure with bentonite. Bioresource Technology. 2012; 121:362–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2012.06.065 PMID: 22864172

27. Thompson W, Legee P, Miliner P, Watson M. TMECC: Test methods for the examination of composting and compost. Washington, DC: US Composting Council Research and Education Foundation and the United States Department of Agriculture. 2002.

28. Kebrom TH, Weldesenbet S, Bayabil HK, Garcia M, Gao M, Ampim P, et al. Evaluation of phytotoxicity of three organic amendments to collard greens using the seed germination bioassay. Environmental Science and Pollution Research. 2019; 26(6):5454–62. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-018-3928-4 PMID: 30610580

29. Bashir S, Zhu J, Fu Q, Hu H. Cadmium mobility, uptake and anti-oxidative response of water spinach (Ipomoea aquatica) under rice straw biochar, zeolite and rock phosphate as amendments. Chemosphere. 2018; 194:579–87. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2017.11.162 PMID: 29241132

30. Tanveer K, Gilani S, Hussain Z, Ishaq R, Adeel M, Ilyas N. Effect of salt stress on tomato plant and the role of calcium. Journal of Plant Nutrition. 2020; 43(1):28–35.

31. Raza S, Saleem M, Khan I, Jamil M, Ijaz M, Khan M. Evaluating the drought stress tolerance efficiency of wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) cultivars. Russian Journal of Agricultural and Socio-Economic Sciences. 2012; 12(12).

32. Rhoades J. Soluble salts. Methods of Soil Analysis: Part 2 Chemical and Microbiological Properties. 1983; 9:167–79.

33. Reynolds S. The gravimetric method of soil moisture determination Part IA study of equipment, and methodological problems. Journal of Hydrology. 1970; 11(3):258–73.

34. Walinga I, Van Der Lee J, Houbia VJ, Van Vark W, Novozamsky I. Plant analysis manual: Springer Science & Business Media; 2013.

35. Aamer M, Muhammad U, Li Z, Abid A, Su Q, Liu Y, et al. Foliar application of glycinebetaine (GB) alleviates the cadmium (Cd) toxicity in spinach through reducing Cd uptake and improving the activity of antioxidant system. Applied Ecology and Environmental Research. 2018; 16(6):7575–83.

36. Alia N, Sardar K, Said M, Salma K, Sadia A, Sadaf S, et al. Toxicity and bioaccumulation of heavy metals in spinach (Spinacia oleracea) grown in a controlled environment. International Journal of Environmental Science and Public Health. 2015; 12(7):7400–16. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph120707400 PMID: 26133131

37. Bruuinsma J. The quantitative analysis of chlorophylls a and b in plant extracts. Photochemistry and photobiology. 1963; 2(2):241–9.

38. Arshad M, Ali S, Noman A, Ali Q, Rizwan M, Farid M, et al. Phosphorus amendment decreased cadmium (Cd) uptake and ameliorates chlorophyll contents, gas exchange attributes, antioxidants, and mineral nutrients in wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) under Cd stress. Archives of Agronomy and Soil Science. 2016; 62(4):533–46.

39. Bruijnsma J. The quantitative analysis of chlorophylls a and b in plant extracts. Photochemistry and photobiology. 1963; 2(2):241–9.

40. Ravelo-Pérez LM, Hernández-Borges J, Rodríguez-Delgado M, Borges-Miquel T. Spectrophotometric analysis of lycopene in tomatoes and watermelons: a practical class. The Chemical Educator. 2008; 13 (1):11–3.

41. Arehod M, Ali S, Noman A, Ali Q, Rizwan M, Farid M, et al. Phosphorus amendment decreased cadmium (Cd) uptake and ameliorates chlorophyll contents, gas exchange attributes, antioxidants, and mineral nutrients in wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) under Cd stress. Archives of Agronomy and Soil Science. 2016; 62(4):533–46.

42. Marin Velázquez JA, Andreu Puyal P, Carrasco A, Arbeloa Matute A. Determination of proline concentration, an abiotic stress marker, in root exudates of excised root cultures of fruit tree rootstocks under salt stress. 2010.

43. Bradford N. A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation microgram quantities of a protein isolated from red cell membranes. Anal Biochem. 1976; 72(248):e254.

44. Dubois M, Gilles J, Hamilton P, Smith F. A calorimetric method for the determination of sugars. Nature. 1950; 168:168–9.

45. Mukherjee S, Choudhuri M. Implications of water stress-induced changes in the levels of endogenous ascorbic acid and hydrogen peroxide in Vigna seedlings. Physiologia plantarum. 1983; 58(2):166–70.
Interaction of biochar, compost and cadmium in Spinacia oleracea

46. Cakmak I, Horst WJ. Effect of aluminium on lipid peroxidation, superoxide dismutase, catalase, and peroxidase activities in root tips of soybean (Glycine max). Physiologia Plantarum. 1991; 83(3):463–8. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1399-3054.1991.tb00121.x

47. Sairam R. Effect of moisture-stress on physiological activities of two contrasting wheat genotypes. Indian Journal of Experimental Biology. 1994; 32:594–9.

48. Giannopolitis CN, Ries SK. Superoxide dismutases: I. Occurrence in higher plants. Plant physiology. 1977; 59(2):309–14. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.59.2.309 PMID: 16659839

49. Sakharov IY, Ardila GB. Variations of peroxidase activity in cocoa (Theobroma cacao L.) beans during their ripening, fermentation and drying. Food Chemistry. 1999; 65(1):51–4.

50. Aeabi H. Catalase in vitro. Methods in enzymology. 1984; 105:121–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0076-8897(84)5013-0

51. Aebi H. Catalase in vitro. Methods in enzymology. 1984; 105:121–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0076-8897(84)5013-0

52. Shah AA, Khan WU, Yasin NA, Akram W, Ahmad A, Abbas M, et al. Butanolide alleviated cadmium immobilization in maize growth and cadmium uptake. Journal of plant growth regulation. 2016; 35 (2):303–15.

53. Shahabivand S, Parvaneh A, Aliloo AA. Different response of Alyssum montanum and Helianthus annuus to cadmium bioaccumulation mediated by the endophyte fungus Serendipita indica. Acta Ecologica Sinica. 2020; 40(4):315–22.

54. Shah AA, Khan WU, Yasin NA, Akram W, Ahmad A, Abbas M, et al. Butanolide alleviated cadmium stress by improving plant growth, photosynthetic parameters and antioxidant defense system of Brassica oleracea. Chemosphere. 2020; 261:127728. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2020.127728 PMID: 32731022

55. Zhu T, Li L, Duan Q, Liu X, Chen M. Progress in our understanding of plant responses to the stress of heavy metal cadmium. Plant Signaling & Behavior. 2021; 16(1):1836884.

56. Ma X, Sharifan H, Dou F, Sun W. Simultaneous reduction of arsenic (As) and cadmium (Cd) accumulation in rice by zinc oxide nanoparticles. Chemical Engineering Journal. 2020; 384:123802.

57. Tousi S, Zoufan P, Ghahfarrokhie AR. Alleviation of cadmium-induced phytotoxicity and growth improvement by exogenous melatonin pretreatment in mallow (Malva parviflora) plants. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety. 2020; 206:111403. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2020.111403 PMID: 33011513

58. Ma H, Wei M, Wang Z, Hou S, Li X, Xu H. Bioremediation of cadmium polluted soil using a novel cadmium immobilizing plant growth promotion strain Bacillus sp. T25 loaded on biochar. Journal of hazardous materials. 2020; 388:122065. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2020.122065 PMID: 31954306

59. Rehman MZ-u, Rizwan M, Ali S, Fatima N, Yousaf B, Naeem A, et al. Contrasting effects of biochar, compost and farm manure on alleviation of nickel toxicity in maize (Zea mays L.) from contaminated soil. Journal of Soils and Sediments. 2019; 19(12):3883–97.

60. Ahmad I, Akhtar MJ, Asghar HN, Ghafoor U, Shahid M. Differential effects of plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria on maize growth and cadmium uptake. Journal of plant growth regulation. 2016; 35 (2):303–15.

61. Raiesi F, Dayani L. Compost application increases the ecological dose values in a non-calcareous agricultural soil contaminated with cadmium. Ecotoxicology. 2021; 30(1):17–30. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10646-020-02286-1 PMID: 33070239

62. Guo D, Ren C, Ali A, Li R, Du J, Liu X, et al. Streptomyces pactum combined with manure compost alters soil fertility and enzymatic activities, enhancing phytoextraction of potentially toxic metals (PTMs) in a smelter-contaminated soil. Ecotoxicology and environmental safety. 2019; 181:312–20. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2019.06.024 PMID: 31202931

63. Ye S, Zeng G, Wu H, Liang J, Zhang C, Dai J, et al. The effects of activated biochar addition on remediation efficiency of co-composting with contaminated wetland soil. Resources, Conservation and Recycling. 2019; 140:278–85.

64. Teodoro M, Trakal L, Gallagher BN, Šimek P, Soudek P, Pohofelj M, et al. Application of co-composted biochar significantly improved plant growth-relevant physical/chemical properties of a metal contaminated soil. Chemosphere. 2020; 242:125255. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.125255 PMID: 31896180

65. Qiu Z, Tang J, Chen J, Zhang Q. Remediation of cadmium-contaminated soil with biochar simultaneously improves biochar’s recalcitrance. Environmental Pollution. 2020; 256:113436. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2019.113436 PMID: 31672351
66. Beesley L, Marmiroli M. The immobilisation and retention of soluble arsenic, cadmium and zinc by biochar. Environmental pollution. 2011; 159(2):347–80. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2011.02.016 PMID: 21109337

67. Alburquerque J, De La Fuente C, Bernal M. Improvement of soil quality after “alperujo” compost application to two contaminated soils characterised by differing heavy metal solubility. Journal of Environmental Management. 2011; 92(3):733–41. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2010.10.018 PMID: 21035939

68. Pandian S, Rakkamkamal R, Rathinapriva F, Rency AS, Satish L, Ramesh M. Physiological and biochemical changes in sorghum under combined heavy metal stress: An adaptive defence against oxidative stress. Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology. 2020; 29:101830.

69. Aoun M, Khan SA, Iqbal M, Ramzan PMA, Fatima M. Promoting the productivity and quality of brinjal (Solanum melongena L.). Pedosphere. 2016; 26(2):261–74. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pdes.2015.12.003 PMID: 26766117

70. Ahmad I, Akhtar MJ, Mehmood S, Akhter K, Tahir M, Saeed MF, et al. Combined application of compost and Bacillus sp. Ck-512 ameliorated the lead toxicity in radish by regulating the homeostasis of antioxidants and lead. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety. 2018; 148:805–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2018.05.082 PMID: 29906760

71. Novak JM, Ippolito JA, Watts DW, Sigua GC, Ducey TF, Johnson MG. Biochar compost blends facilitate switchgrass growth in mine soils by reducing Cd and Zn bioavailability and mobility and ecological risk in wetland soil. Rsc Advances. 2015; 5(44):34541–8.

72. Han Song C, Huang Q-Y, Li-Na L, Wang C, Liang W, Ming L. Poultry manure compost alleviates the phytotoxicity of soil cadmium: influence on growth of pakchoi (Brassica chinensis L.). Pedosphere. 2010; 20(1):63–70.

73. Zeng G, Wu H, Liang J, Guo S, Huang L, Xu P, et al. Efficiency of biochar and compost (or composting) combined amendments for reducing Cd, Cu, Zn and Pb bioavailability, mobility and ecological risk in wetland soil. Rsc Advances. 2015; 5(44):34541–8.

74. Beesley L, Marmiroli M. The immobilisation and retention of soluble arsenic, cadmium and zinc by biochar. Environmental pollution. 2011; 159(2):347–80. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2011.02.016 PMID: 21109337

75. Farhangi-Abriz S, Torabian S. Antioxidant enzyme and osmotic adjustment changes in bean seedlings as affected by biochar under salt stress. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety. 2017; 137:64–70. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2017.11.054 PMID: 29195224

76. Kamran M, Malik Z, Parveen A, Huang L, Riaz M, Bashir S, et al. Ameliorative effects of biochar on productivity, polyphenol content, and antioxidant capacity of Mesembryanthemum edule. Journal of Hazardous Materials. 2011; 191(1–3):373–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2011.04.092 PMID: 21605936

77. Alburquerque J, De La Fuente C, Bernal M. Improvement of soil quality after “alperujo” compost application to two contaminated soils characterised by differing heavy metal solubility. Journal of Environmental Management. 2011; 92(3):733–41. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2010.10.018 PMID: 21035939

78. Pandian S, Rakkamkamal R, Rathinapriva F, Rency AS, Satish L, Ramesh M. Physiological and biochemical changes in sorghum under combined heavy metal stress: An adaptive defence against oxidative stress. Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology. 2020; 29:101830.

79. Aoun M, Khan SA, Iqbal M, Ramzan PMA, Fatima M. Promoting the productivity and quality of brinjal (Solanum melongena L.). Pedosphere. 2016; 26(2):261–74. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pdes.2015.12.003 PMID: 26766117

80. Novak JM, Ippolito JA, Watts DW, Sigua GC, Ducey TF, Johnson MG. Biochar compost blends facilitate switchgrass growth in mine soils by reducing Cd and Zn bioavailability. Biochar. 2019; 1(1):97–114. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2019.02.025 PMID: 30772708

81. Han Song C, Huang Q-Y, Li-Na L, Wang C, Liang W, Ming L. Poultry manure compost alleviates the phytotoxicity of soil cadmium: influence on growth of pakchoi (Brassica chinensis L.). Pedosphere. 2010; 20(1):63–70.

82. Zeng G, Wu H, Liang J, Guo S, Huang L, Xu P, et al. Efficiency of biochar and compost (or composting) combined amendments for reducing Cd, Cu, Zn and Pb bioavailability, mobility and ecological risk in wetland soil. Rsc Advances. 2015; 5(44):34541–8.

83. Beesley L, Marmiroli M. The immobilisation and retention of soluble arsenic, cadmium and zinc by biochar. Environmental pollution. 2011; 159(2):347–80. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2011.02.016 PMID: 21109337

84. Farhangi-Abriz S, Torabian S. Antioxidant enzyme and osmotic adjustment changes in bean seedlings as affected by biochar under salt stress. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety. 2017; 137:64–70. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2017.11.054 PMID: 29195224

85. Alburquerque J, De La Fuente C, Bernal M. Improvement of soil quality after “alperujo” compost application to two contaminated soils characterised by differing heavy metal solubility. Journal of Environmental Management. 2011; 92(3):733–41. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2010.10.018 PMID: 21035939

86. Pandian S, Rakkamkamal R, Rathinapriva F, Rency AS, Satish L, Ramesh M. Physiological and biochemical changes in sorghum under combined heavy metal stress: An adaptive defence against oxidative stress. Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology. 2020; 29:101830.
84. Ahanger MA, Aziz US, AlSahli AA, Alyemeni MN, Ahmad P (2020) Combined Kinetin and Spermidine Treatments Ameliorate Growth and Photosynthetic Inhibition in Vigna angularis by Up-Regulating Antioxidant and Nitrogen Metabolism under Cadmium Stress. Biomolecules 10(1):147. https://doi.org/10.3390/biom10010147 PMID: 31963299

85. Kaya C, Akram NA, Ashraf M, Alyemeni MN, Ahmad P (2020) Exogenously Supplied Silicon (Si) Improves Cadmium Tolerance in Pepper (Capsicum Annuum L.) by Up-Regulating the Synthesis of Nitric Oxide and Hydrogen Sulfide. J Biotechnol 316:35–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiotec.2020.04.008 PMID: 32315687