

BEHAVIOUR AND TREATMENT OF METALS IN BURNING SYSTEM DURING BIOMASS COMBUSTION – LITERATURE REVIEW

TRUONG PHI DINH¹ – HELGA KOVÁCS² – ZSOLT DOBÓ³

Abstract: Biomass is a renewable energy resource and known as an excellent alternative option for the partial replacement of fossil fuels in energy production. Plants, as frequently used biomass energy sources, contain metals in a different amount. During biomass combustion, the emission of certain elements may lead to environmental pollution and health problems even if the biomass comes from a non-contaminated land. Hence, keeping the metals in the combustion system and avoid hazardous emissions is desirable. The same direction can be recognized by noble metals (NMs) and rare earth elements (REEs) as well, however, in these cases, the economic aspects are also considered. This paper briefly reviews the literature on metal contaminated biomass, phytoextraction, polluted biomass combustion, and the behavior of metals in combustion systems. Based on the literature review the fate of NMs and REEs during polluted biomass incineration has not been deeply investigated yet and requires further examination. Furthermore, capturing metals inside the burning system is also a huge challenge because a significant amount of metal compounds leaves the burning system with flue gas in solid and gaseous form. Besides, phytomining is a potential option for the extraction of NMs and REEs from the soil via plants. And, solid remains (bottom ash, fly ash) coming from contaminated biomass is a promising metal resource.

Keywords: metal, phytoextraction, disposal option, biomass combustion

INTRODUCTION

Biomass is a renewable energy resource including plant and animal materials. Its reservations are limitless. Besides that, biomass energy offers various environmental advantages such as reducing climate change, mitigating acid rain, water pollution, soil erosion, etc. Therefore, biomass is a potential energy resource to diversify world fuel supplies and substantially decrease greenhouse gas emissions [1]. According to reported data, biomass made up 64% of renewable energy's contribution [2] and it is anticipated to rise around double to triple in 2050 [3].

¹ Department of Combustion Technology and Thermal Energy, University of Miskolc
H-3515 Miskolc-Egyetemváros, Hungary
truong.dinh@uni-miskolc.hu

² Department of Combustion Technology and Thermal Energy, University of Miskolc
H-3515 Miskolc-Egyetemváros, Hungary
helga.kovacs@uni-miskolc.hu

³ Department of Combustion Technology and Thermal Energy, University of Miskolc
H-3515 Miskolc-Egyetemváros, Hungary
zsolt.dobo@uni-miskolc

Generally, woody biomass has been known as an extensively used and the most plentiful resource of biomass. Statistically, more than one-third of the global lands are contaminated sites [4], called brownfields [5]. The real number even might be higher than which has been reported so far. According to the received data, mineral oil and metals are the most contaminants contributing 60% to contaminated lands [6]. Soil contamination in general and metals pollution in particular have serious negative effects on the ecosystem, human health, and the environment. Phytoextraction referring to plants accumulating metals (lead, cadmium, zinc, gold, silver, cerium, lanthanum, etc.) from the soil has been proven as an effective, environmentally friendly, safe, and low-cost remediation method to tackle the problem [7], [8]. The production of the phytoextraction process is a large amount of contaminated biomass that needs proper disposal and management. Thus, polluted biomass has been investigated with a dual purpose those are mitigating pollution problems through the phytoextraction process and producing energy.

1. PHYTOEXTRACTION

Phytoextraction is a soil remediation technology. During this process, plants accumulate metals from contaminated soils, transfer, and store them into the roots and above-ground parts of the plants with various distributions [9]. There are two types of plants can be efficiently used for phytoextraction those are hyperaccumulators and fast-growing species. Hyperaccumulators have been defined as plants that can accumulate huge amounts of metals in the soil without suffering [10]. Fast-growing species that have lower metals extracting ability than hyperaccumulators, however, their total biomass production is outstandingly higher such as poplar or willow [11], [12]. The lower limit for hyperaccumulation and studies corresponding to metals accumulated by plants are summarized in *Table 1*.

Table 1
Studies on metals accumulated by plants

Element	The lower limit for Hyperaccumulators (mg/kg)	Plant species	Concentration in plant (mg/kg)	Ref.
REEs	1,000	<i>Dicranopteris linearis</i> (fern)	4,438	[13]
		<i>Dicranopteris dichotoma</i> (fern)	2,231	[14]
		Hickory	(in leaves) 2,296	[15]
Silver	1	<i>Lupinus sp.</i> (blue lupin) – induced	126.000	[16]
		<i>Amanita</i> species (mushroom)	1,253.000	[17]
		Tobacco – induced	54.300	[18]
Gold	1	<i>Lupinus sp.</i> (blue lupin) – induced	6.300	[16]
		<i>B. juncea</i> (indian mustard) – induced	63.000	[19]
		<i>Z. mays</i> (corn) – induced	20.000	[19]

Element	The lower limit for Hyperaccumulators (mg/kg)	Plant species	Concentration in plant (mg/kg)	Ref.
Platinum	1	<i>Berkheya coddii</i> (flowering plant) – induced	0.183	[20]
		<i>Berkheya coddii</i> (flowering plant)	(in leaves) 0.220 (in roots) 0.140	[21]
Palladium	1	<i>Berkheya coddii</i> (flowering plant) – induced	7.677	[20]
		<i>Berkheya coddii</i> (flowering plant)	(in leaves) 0.710 (in roots) 0.180	[21]
		<i>Cannabis sativa</i> (hemp)	30.336	[22]
Nickel	1,000	<i>Berkheya coddii</i> (flowering plant)	7,880	[23]
		<i>Alsum lesbiacum</i> (flowering plant)	10,000	[23]
Thallium	100	<i>Iberis intermedia</i> (herbaceous plant)	4,055	[24]
		<i>Biscutella laevigata</i> (flowering plant)	13,768	[24]
Cobalt	1,000	<i>Berkheya coddii</i> (flowering plant)	290	[25]
		<i>Haumaniastrum robertii</i> (flowering plant)	(in leaves) 4,304	[26]
Zinc	10,000	<i>Thlaspi caerulescens</i> (alpine pennygrass)	43,710	[27]
		<i>Dichapetalum gelonioides</i> (small semi-evergreen tree)	30,000	[27]
Lead	1,000	<i>Minuartia verna</i> (spring sandwort)	20,000	[27]
		<i>Agrostis tenuis</i> (grass)	13,490	[27]
Cadmium	100	<i>Thlaspi caerulescens</i> (alpine pennygrass)	2,130	[27]
		<i>Arabidopsis halleri</i> (flowering plant)	267	[28]
Copper	1,000	<i>Angiopteris sp. nov.</i> (fern)	3,535	[29]
		<i>Anisopappus davyi</i> (sunflower)	3,504	[29]
Manganese	10,000	<i>Phytolacca acinosa</i> (herbaceous plant)	(in leaves) 12,180	[30]
		<i>Chengiopanax sciadophylloides</i> (flowering tree)	(in leaves) 23,200	[31]
Chromium	300	<i>Leersia hexandra</i> (grass)	(in leaves) 2,978	[32]
Arsenic	1,000	<i>Pteris vittata</i> (brake fern)	3,280–4,980	[33]
		<i>Pityrogramma calomelanos</i> (fern)	(in leaves) 8,350	[34]

Phytoextraction is not only used for removing metals from contaminated areas but also offers the possibility for exploiting metals from mill tailings, overburdens, low-grade ores, or mineralized soil that is not economic by traditional mining methods [35]. In the economic aspect, NMs are potential candidates for phytomining because of their high value. However, only a few studies can be found in the case of Silver, Gold [35], [36]. While, the information about others like Platinum, Palladium, Rhodium,

Osmium, etc is very limited and even zero. Specifically, the phytoextraction of precious metals in contaminated soils has not been investigated that deserves more attention because of dual advantages including soil remediation and economic benefit.

2. TREATMENT AND DISPOSAL OF BIOMASS USED FOR PHYTOEXTRACTION

Phytoextraction is a soil remediation process that uses plants to uptake pollutants from brownfields and transports them into the plants. Polluted lands remediation and contaminates biomass formation occur simultaneously. It means that the environmental hazard is just transferred from soil to biomass. Hence, the phytoextraction process encounters a serious problem that is the production of large quantities of highly contaminated biomass, it needs proper disposal and management. Several methods of contaminated biomass treatments including composting, compaction, direct disposal, leaching, thermal conversion (pyrolysis, gasification, combustion) have been investigated so far [37], [38]. The pre-treatment step includes composting, compaction, and pyrolysis to decrease biomass volume and remove excess water. This lowers the cost of transportation to the disposal site and enhances the technical parameters. After this step, considerable quantities of polluted material still exist. On the other hand, direct disposal, leaching, incineration (gasification, combustion) known as final disposal methods [39]. The treatment techniques of phytoextraction biomass disposal are shortly described in *Table 2*. Among the aforementioned approaches, combustion has been recognized as the most feasible, economically acceptable, environmentally effective pathway [38], [39].

Table 2

Treatment techniques of phytoextraction biomass disposal, based on [38], [39]

Process	Step	Advantages	Disadvantages
Composting	Pretreatment	• Reduce volume and water content, decreases the costs of handling and transportation	• Time-consuming (2-3 months) • End-product needs to be treated as hazardous waste • In laboratory scale
Compaction	Pretreatment	• Volume reduction leads to cost transportation reduction • Shorter time compared to composting • Recovery of metals	• Special equipment is required • End-products (remaining biomass, leachates) should be treated as hazardous waste
Direct disposal	Final disposal	• Simple and time effectiveness	• Expensive and limited dumping sites • Slow reduction of polluted material • Serious environmental problems • This method has been forbidden
Leaching	Final disposal	• Recovery of metals	• No technology
Pyrolysis	Pretreatment	• High volume reduction, increases the energy density of biomass and decreases the	• Solid product fraction needs to be treated as hazardous waste

Process	Step	Advantages	Disadvantages
		costs of handling and transportation • Useful end-product	
Gasification	Final disposal	• High volume reduction, toxic metals enriched in solid residual • Lowering harmful climate change via CO ₂ mitigation	• Undesired products such as tar, ash, etc., are formed • Technical and environmental problems during the utilization of syngas produced from contaminated biomass
Combustion	Final disposal	• High volume reduction, toxic metals enriched in solid residual • Produce energy	• Undesirable emissions of CO, NO _x , fly ash and solid, gaseous metal compounds

3. BIOMASS COMBUSTION

Combustion is a thermal conversion process and recognized as the best way for contaminated biomass final disposal. Combustion degrades material in the presence of excess oxygen/air at high temperatures over 900 °C [40]. The benefits of combustion technology are more than 90% volume reduction and toxic metals enriched in solid residual. Additionally, combustion is not only a disposal method for polluted biomass but also a promising energy producing solution. Nonetheless, the combustion of polluted biomass results in diverse environmental issues such as undesirable emissions of CO, NO_x, fly ash, and solid, gaseous metal compounds. Where solid and gaseous metal compounds are the main concern of polluted biomass combustion, further investigations of these compounds during the combustion of biomass fuels (polluted and unpolluted) would be imperative, because many studies have proven that metals emission could arise even if the biomass feedstock comes from a non-contaminated land [41], [42].

Metals enter the combustion chamber subsequently exit in one of the three following forms: solid residues in the combustor (bottom ash); solid particles in the flue gas (fly ash); and the exhausted gas (flue gas). The fate of metals during combustion in ashes reported by different studies is presented in *Table 3*, which shows that most of the metals were detected in bottom ash and cyclone ash. Nonetheless, in another work, Vassilev et al [43] concluded that more than 90% of Cd, Hg, Sb, Se, and V are volatilized during biomass combustion, and higher than 50% volatilization in case of As, Cr, Pb, or Zn.

Table 3
Distribution of metals in some boiler ashes mg/kg, based on [44]

Metal	Bottom ash			Cyclone ash		Filter ash			Flue dust
	[45]	[46]	[47]	[45]	[47]	[45]	[46]	[47]	[47]
As	9.2	<3.0	3.0	25.6	1.9	5.1	16.0	0.7	0.2
Ba	534.9	330.0	–	671.4	–	206.4	2000.0	–	–
Cd	1.1	<0.3	1.2	2.3	8.6	1.9	3.0	6.6	1.9
Co	6.7	2.5	9.7	11.5	3.7	6.4	8.0	0.6	0.2

Metal	Bottom ash			Cyclone ash		Filter ash			Flue dust
	[45]	[46]	[47]	[45]	[47]	[45]	[46]	[47]	[47]
Cr	24.6	15.0	187.0	128.1	50.7	10.1	24.0	15.2	4.6
Cu	12.8	<10.0	147.1	31.6	51.6	18.9	60.0	29.9	8.8
Fe	5230.9	–	11756.8	8136.0	4442.2	1988.3	–	384.1	116.9
Mn	4864.0	–	12293.0	7144.0	5700.0	5020.0	–	779.0	228.0
Ni	28.5	19.0	27.1	68.3	14.6	24.5	67.0	3.5	1.1
Pb	29.0	<3.0	43.4	36.1	22.5	23.4	49.0	27.5	8.2
Ti	160.0	–	–	179.0	–	982.0	–	–	–
V	–	95.0	32.2	–	10.3	–	140.0	2.0	0.6
Zn	99.2	160.0	485.9	252.0	946.7	61.7	480.0	511.1	150.8
Hg	0.005	<0.030	0.003	0.007	0.030	0.014	<0.300	0.283	0.084

Several studies have been carried out corresponding to the metals flow calculations [48] and the distribution of metals during woody biomass combustion [43], [49]–[51]. Besides, the fate of metals during combustion of different feedstocks like waste [52], [53], sludge [54], [55], poultry litter [56], [57], contaminated oil [58], co-combustion [59], [60] also have been investigated.

The volatilization of metals is one of the major factors influencing the distribution of metals in biomass combustion [43]. It is dependent on the boiling point, the lower boiling point leads to the higher volatilization of metal.

The combustion temperature has been proven as the main parameter influencing the fate of metals during biomass combustion. Jimenez et al [61] combusted olive residue (*orujillo*) and analyzed the concentrations of Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Ga, As, and Pb in sub-micrometer aerosols at different furnace temperatures (1,100, 1,300, and 1,450 °C) in an entrained flow reactor. The results revealed that almost metals (except Co, Ga, and Mn) were enriched in fine particles by increasing combustor temperature. Hu et al [62] investigated the impact of the combustion temperature, moisture content, chlorine on metals (Zn, Pb, Cu, Mn, and Cd) transferring into flue gas of sewage sludge combustion. According to the results, the higher burning temperature caused the higher selected metals content in the flue gas. It was also found that a higher moisture content decreased the transfer Cd, Zn, and Pb into the flue gas, but it had a slight effect on Cu and Mn. Furthermore, added chlorine during sewage sludge combustion promoted to release Cs, Zn, and Pb into the flue gas, but it had little influence on Cu and Mn. Likewise, Belevi and Langmeier [63] studied the evaporation behavior of Zn, Sn, Cu, Sb, Cd, and Pb during municipal solid waste combustion in a furnace temperature range of 500–900 °C. It was indicated that higher burning temperature caused an increase in transfers of target metals into the gaseous phase, except Sb. The authors also revealed, the residence time increase (from 10 to 120 min) resulted in higher evaporation of Zn, Cu, Cd, Pb, and it showed a slight effect in the case of Sb. Likewise, several studies investigated the influence of combustor temperature on the behavior of metals during the combustion of different kinds of feedstocks such as contaminated woody biomass [64], sewage sludge

[65], waste [66], [67], poultry litter, co-combustion [68]. These results showed the same connection between the burning temperature and distribution of metals.

Besides that, the effect of flue gas temperature on the behavior of metals during biomass combustion has been rarely investigated. Polluted biomass (*Populus tremula*) was combusted to analyze the impact of flue gas temperature [69]. According to the results, more metals (Ag, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ga, Mg, Mn, Ni, Pb, Si, Sn, Ti, V, and Zr) could be condensed on fly ash particles and captured inside the combustion system by decreasing flue gas temperature from 250 to 150 °C. The study also revealed that more than 50% of the total metals input (except Ni) could not be detected in bottom ash and fly ash as seen in *Figure 1*. This means that, during contaminated biomass combustion, these metals likely were volatilized and exited the combustion system in gaseous form.

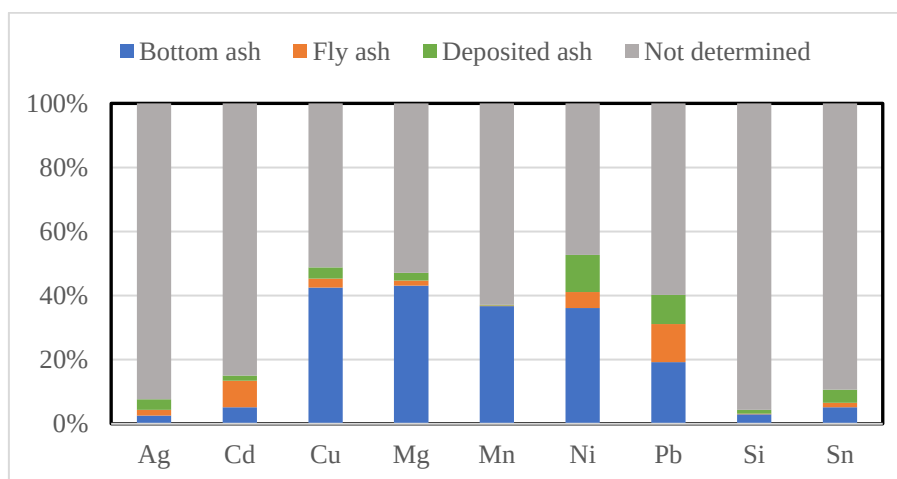


Figure 1

Metal flow in contaminated biomass combustion, based on [69]

Residence time and moisture content are recognized as the secondary influencing factors on the fate of metals during combustion. It has been reported that longer reaction time leads to more volatilization of metals while, an increase of moisture content in feedstocks may decrease the emissions of metals [62], [70].

The distribution of metals during combustion also influenced by the presence of chlorine. It was found that the increase of chlorine content in the combustion chamber results in a higher concentration of metals in flue gas [62], [70]. That can be explained by decreasing volatility temperature [71].

It has been indicated that the lack of oxygen accelerates metals volatilization due to the less formation of metal oxides that have higher volatility temperature than metal elements [72], [73].

The partitioning of metals in biomass combustion also depends on the type of furnace. Lu et al. [74] stated that in terms of the influence of the combustor type, the

horizontal tube furnace resulted in a higher metals volatilization compared to the entrained tube furnace.

Generally, the distribution of metals during biomass combustion depends on various factors such as feedstock properties, reactors, operating conditions (combustion temperature, flue gas temperature, pressure, oxygen, residence time), the boiling point of metals, presence of chlorine, etc. It can be said that the fate of NMs and REEs during contaminated biomass combustion has not been investigated yet. Moreover, the capture of metals inside the combustion system is a huge challenge because more than 50 percent of metals emit in the gaseous phase according to recent research. These tasks need further investigation so far. Additionally, during combustion process metals are enriched in bottom ash, especially in fly ash. Thus, the concentration of metals in the ash might be high enough for extraction and the solid remains coming from contaminated biomass is a promising metal resource.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the literature review it can be stated that various studies are corresponding to the behavior of heavy metals during contaminated combustion. However, the investigation of NMs and REEs in the burning system is extremely limited and requires further examination.

Furthermore, developing a technique to capture (and possibly recover) metals is also the potential gap of knowledge. Since, according to several recent studies, a significant amount of metal compounds is leaving the burning system with flue gas in solid and gaseous form without ensuring their capture and treatment. It can be said that capturing metals inside the burning system is challenging and it has not been fully solved yet as well.

Additionally, phytomining is a potential option for the extraction of NMs and REEs from the soil via plants. And, solid remains coming from contaminated biomass is a promising metal resource.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The research was carried out as part of the *More efficient exploitation and use of subsurface resources* project of the University of Miskolc, implemented in the framework of the Thematic Excellence Program funded by the Ministry of Innovation and Technology of Hungary. (Grant Contract reg. nr.: NKFIH-846-8/2019)

REFERENCES

- [1] U.S. Energy and I. Administration (2019). *DOE-EIA International Energy Outlook 2019*.
- [2] Smil, Vaclav (2017). *Energy Transitions: Global and National Perspectives*. Praeger, ABC CLIO.

-
- [3] Johansson, T. B., Patwardhan, A. P., Nakićenović, N., and Gomez-Echeverri, L. (2012). *Global energy assessment: toward a sustainable future*. Cambridge University Press.
- [4] Abhilash, P. C., Dubey, R. K., Tripathi, V., Srivastava, P., Verma, J. P., Singh, H. B. (2013). Remediation and management of POPs-contaminated soils in a warming climate: Challenges and perspectives. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.*, Vol. 20, No. 8, pp. 5879–5885.
- [5] Alker, S., Joy, V., Roberts, P., Smith, N. (2000). The definition of brownfield. *J. Environ. Plan. Manag.*, Vol. 43, No. 1, pp. 49–69.
- [6] Panagos, P., Van Liedekerke, M., Yigini, Y., Montanarella, L. (2013). Contaminated sites in Europe: Review of the current situation based on data collected through a European network. *Journal of Environmental and Public Health*, Vol. 2013, pp. 1–11.
- [7] Mahar, A. et al. (2016). Challenges and opportunities in the phytoremediation of heavy metals contaminated soils: A review. *Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf.*, Vol. 126, pp. 111–121.
- [8] Khan, F. I., Husain, T., Hejazi, R. (2004). An overview and analysis of site remediation technologies. *J. Environ. Manage.*, Vol. 71, No. 2, pp. 95–122.
- [9] Salt, D. E. et al. (1995). Phytoremediation: a novel strategy for the removal of toxic metals from the environment using plants. *Bio/technology*, Vol. 13, No. 5, p. 468.
- [10] van der Ent, A., Baker, A. J. M., Reeves, R. D., Pollard, A. J., Schat, H. (2013). Hyperaccumulators of metal and metalloid trace elements: Facts and fiction. *Plant and Soil*, Vol. 362, No. 1–2, pp. 319–334.
- [11] Kovacs, H., Szemmelveisz, K., Palotas, A. B. (2013). Solubility analysis and disposal options of combustion residues from plants grown on contaminated mining area. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, Vol. 20, No. 11, pp. 7917–7925.
- [12] He, J. et al. (2013). Cadmium tolerance in six poplar species. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.*, Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 163–174.
- [13] Zhenggui, W. et al. (2001). Rare earth elements in naturally grown fern *Dicranopteris linearis* in relation to their variation in soils in South-Jiangxi region (Southern China). *Environ. Pollut.*, Vol. 114, No. 3, pp. 345–355.
- [14] Miao, L., Ma, Y., Xu, R., Yan, W. (2011). Environmental biogeochemical characteristics of rare earth elements in soil and soil-grown plants of the Hetai goldfield, Guangdong Province, China. *Environ. Earth Sci.*, Vol. 63, No. 3, pp. 501–511.

-
- [15] Robinson, W. O. (1943). The occurrence of rare earths in plants and soils. *Soil Science*, Vol. 56, No. 1. pp. 1–6.
- [16] Anderson, C. W. N., Stewart, R. B., Moreno, F. N., Gardea-Torresdey, J. L., Robinson, B. H., Meech, J. A. (2003). Gold phytomining. Novel Developments in a Plant-based Mining System. *Proc. Gold 2003 Conf. New Ind. Appl. Gold*, No. 2, pp. 35–45.
- [17] Borovička, J., Řanda, Z., Jelínek, E., Kotrba, P., Dunn, C. E. (2007). Hyperaccumulation of silver by *Amanita strobiliformis* and related species of the section *Lepidella*. *Mycol. Res.*, Vol. 111, No. 11, pp. 1339–1344.
- [18] Krisnayanti, B. D., Anderson, C. W. N., Sukartono, S., Afandi, Y., Suheri, H., Ekawanti, A. (2016). Phytomining for artisanal gold mine tailings management. *Minerals*, Vol. 6, No. 3, pp. 1–11.
- [19] Anderson, C., Moreno, F., Meech, J. (2005). A field demonstration of gold phytoextraction technology. *Miner. Eng.*, Vol. 18, No. 4, pp. 385–392.
- [20] Walton, D. (2002). *The phytoextraction of gold and palladium from mine tailings: this thesis is presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Philosophy*. Massey University.
- [21] Nemutandani, T., Dutertre, D., Chimuka, L., Cukrowska, E., Tutu, H. (2006). The potential of *Berkheya coddii* for phytoextraction of nickel, platinum, and palladium contaminated sites. *Toxicol. Environ. Chem.*, Vol. 88, No. 2, pp. 175–185.
- [22] Aquan, Hendra Michael (2015). *Phytoextraction of Palladium and Gold from Broken Hill Gossan*. Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.
- [23] Robinson, B. H., Brooks, R. R., Howes, A. W., Kirkman, J. H., Gregg, P. E. H. (1997). The potential of the high-biomass nickel hyperaccumulator *Berkheya coddii* for phytoremediation and phytomining. *Journal of Geochemical Exploration*, Vol. 60, No. 2, pp. 115–126.
- [24] Anderson, C. W. N. et al. (1999). Phytomining for nickel, thallium and gold. *J. Geochemical Explor.*, Vol. 67, No. 1–3, pp. 407–415.
- [25] Robinson, B. H., Brooks, R. R., Clothier, B. E. (1999). Soil amendments affecting nickel and cobalt uptake by *Berkheya coddii*: potential use for phytomining and phytoremediation. *Ann. Bot.*, Vol. 84, No. 6, pp. 689–694.
- [26] Brooks, R. R. (1977). Copper and cobalt uptake by *Haumaniastrum* species. *Plant and Soil*, Vol. 48, No. 2, pp. 541–544.
- [27] Reeves, R., Baker. *Metal-accumulating plants. Phytoremediation of Toxic Metals: Using Plants to Clean Up the Environment*. John Wiley, Vol. 6, Jan.

-
- [28] Bert, V., Bonnin, I., Saumitou-Laprade, P., De Laguérie, P., Petit, D. (2002). Do *Arabidopsis halleri* from nonmetallicolous populations accumulate zinc and cadmium more effectively than those from metallicolous populations? *New Phytol.*, Vol. 155, No. 1, pp. 47–57.
- [29] Malaisse, F., Brooks, R. R., Baker, A. J. M. (1994). Diversity of vegetation communities in relation to soil heavy metal content at the Shinkolobwe copper/cobalt/uranium mineralization, Upper Shaba, Zaire. *Belg. J. Bot.*, Vol. 127, No. 1, pp. 3–16.
- [30] Xue, S. G., Chen, Y. X., Reeves, R. D., Baker, J. M., Lin, Q., Fernando, D. R. (2004). Manganese uptake and accumulation by the hyperaccumulator plant *Phytolacca acinosa* Roxb. (Phytolaccaceae). *Environ. Pollut.*, Vol. 131, No. 3, pp. 393–399.
- [31] Mizuno, T., Emori, K., Ito, S. I. (2013). Manganese hyperaccumulation from non-contaminated soil in *Chengiopanax sciadophylloides* Franch. et Sav. and its correlation with calcium accumulation. *Soil Sci. Plant Nutr.*, Vol. 59, No. 4, pp. 591–602.
- [32] Zhang, X. H., Liu, J., Huang, H. T., Chen, J., Zhu, Y. N., Wang, D. Q. (2007). Chromium accumulation by the hyperaccumulator plant *Leersia hexandra* Swartz. *Chemosphere*, Vol. 67, No. 6, pp. 1138–1143.
- [33] Ma, L. Q., Komar, K. M., Zhang, W., Cai, Y., Kennelley, E. D. (2001). A fern that hyperaccumulates arsenic. *Nature*, Vol. 411, No. 6836, pp. 438–438.
- [34] Visoottiviseth, P., Francesconi, K., Sridokchan, W. (2002). The potential of Thai indigenous plant species for the phytoremediation of arsenic contaminated land. *Environ. Pollut.*, Vol. 118, No. 3, pp. 453–461.
- [35] Sheoran, W., Sheoran, A. S., Poonia, P. (2009). Phytomining: A review. *Miner. Eng.*, Vol. 22, No. 12, pp. 1007–1019.
- [36] Sheoran, V., Sheoran, A. S., Poonia, P. (2013). Phytomining of gold: A review. *J. Geochemical Explor.*, Vol. 128, pp. 42–50.
- [37] Ghosh, M., Singh, S. P. (2005). A review on phytoremediation of heavy metals and utilization of its byproducts. *Appl. Ecol. Environ. Res.*, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 1–18.
- [38] Kovacs, H., Szemmelveisz, K. (2017). Disposal options for polluted plants grown on heavy metal contaminated brownfield lands – A review. *Chemosphere*, Vol. 166, pp. 8–20.
- [39] Sas-Nowosielska, A., Kucharski, R., Małkowski, E., Pogrzeba, M., Kuperberg, J. M., Kryński, K. (2004). Phytoextraction crop disposal – An unsolved problem. *Environ. Pollut.*, Vol. 128, No. 3, pp. 373–379.

-
- [40] Koppejan, J., Van Loo, S. (2012). *The handbook of biomass combustion and co-firing*. Routledge.
- [41] Pöykiö, R., Mäkelä, M., Watkins, G., Nurmesniemi, H., Dahl, O. (2016). Heavy metals leaching in bottom ash and fly ash fractions from industrial-scale BFB-boiler for environmental risks assessment. *Transactions of Non-ferrous Metals Society of China (English Edition)*, Vol. 26, No. 1. pp. 256–264.
- [42] Sarabèr, A. J. (2014). Co-combustion and its impact on fly ash quality; Full-scale experiments. *Fuel Processing Technology*, Vol. 128. pp. 68–82.
- [43] Vassilev, S. V., Baxter, D., Vassileva, C. G. (2014). An overview of the behaviour of biomass during combustion: Part II. Ash fusion and ash formation mechanisms of biomass types. *Fuel*, Vol. 117, No. PART A. pp. 152–183.
- [44] Nzihou, A., Stanmore, B. (2013). The fate of heavy metals during combustion and gasification of contaminated biomass-A brief review. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, Vol. 256–257. pp. 56–66.
- [45] Li, L., Yu, C., Bai, J., Wang, Q., Luo, Z. (2012). Heavy metal characterization of circulating fluidized bed derived biomass ash. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, Vol. 233–234. pp. 41–47.
- [46] Dahl, O., Nurmesniemi, H., Pöykiö, R., Watkins, G. (2009). Comparison of the characteristics of bottom ash and fly ash from a medium-size (32 MW) municipal district heating plant incinerating forest residues and peat in a fluidized-bed boiler. *Fuel Processing Technology*, Vol. 90, No. 7–8. pp. 871–878.
- [47] Narodoslawsky, M., Obernberger, I. (1996). From waste to raw material - The route from biomass to wood ash for cadmium and other heavy metals. *J. Hazard. Mater.*, Vol. 50, No. 2–3, pp. 157–168.
- [48] Kovacs, H., Szemmelveisz, K., Koós, T. (2016). Theoretical and experimental metals flow calculations during biomass combustion. *Fuel*, Vol. 185, pp. 524–531.
- [49] Obernberger, I., Biedermann, F., Widmann, W., Riedl, R. (1997). Concentrations of inorganic elements in biomass fuels and recovery in the different ash fractions. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, Vol. 12, No. 3. pp. 211–224.
- [50] Valmari, T., Kauppinen, E. I., Kurkela, J., Jokiniemi, J. K., Sfiris, G., Revitzer, H. (1998). Fly ash formation and deposition during fluidized bed combustion of willow. *J. Aerosol Sci.*, Vol. 29, No. 4, pp. 445–459.
- [51] Kovacs, H., Szemmelveisz, K., Palotas, A. B. (2015). Environmentally Sound Combustion of Ligneous Plants Grown, in *Heavy Metal-Contaminated Soil*. pp. 261–277.

-
- [52] Yuan, C. S., Lin, H. Y., Wu, C. H., Liu, M. H. (2005). Partition and size distribution of heavy metals in the flue gas from municipal solid waste incinerators in Taiwan. *Chemosphere*, Vol. 59, No. 1, pp. 135–145.
- [53] Zhang, H., He, P. J., Shao, L. M. (2008). Fate of heavy metals during municipal solid waste incineration in Shanghai. *J. Hazard. Mater.*, Vol. 156, No. 1–3, pp. 365–373.
- [54] Corella, J., Toledo, J. M. (2000). Incineration of doped sludges in fluidized bed. Fate and partitioning of six targeted heavy metals. I. Pilot plant used and results. *J. Hazard. Mater.*, Vol. 80, No. 1–3, pp. 81–105.
- [55] Van de Velden, M., Dewil, R., Baeyens, J., Josson, L., Lanssens, P. (2008). The distribution of heavy metals during fluidized bed combustion of sludge (FBSC). *J. Hazard. Mater.*, Vol. 151, No. 1, pp. 96–102.
- [56] Lynch, D. et al. (2014). Behavior of heavy metals during fluidized bed combustion of poultry litter. *Energy and Fuels*, Vol. 28, No. 8, pp. 5158–5166.
- [57] Abelha, P. et al. (2003). Combustion of poultry litter in a fluidised bed combustor. *Fuel*, Vol. 82, No. 6, pp. 687–692.
- [58] Pavageau, M. P. et al. (2004). Partitioning of Metal Species during an Enriched Fuel Combustion Experiment. Speciation in the Gaseous and Particulate Phases. *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, Vol. 38, No. 7, pp. 2252–2263.
- [59] Sippula, O., Lamberg, H., Leskinen, J., Tissari, J., Jokiniemi, J. (2017). Emissions and ash behavior in a 500 kW pellet boiler operated with various blends of woody biomass and peat. *Fuel*, Vol. 202, pp. 144–153.
- [60] Xiao, Z. et al. (2015). Energy recovery and secondary pollutant emission from the combustion of co-pelletized fuel from municipal sewage sludge and wood sawdust. *Energy*, Vol. 91, pp. 441–450.
- [61] Jiménez, S., Pérez, M., Ballester, J. (2008). Vaporization of trace elements and their emission with submicrometer aerosols in biomass combustion. *Energy and Fuels*, Vol. 22, No. 4, pp. 2270–2277.
- [62] Hu, Y., Wang, J., Deng, K., Ren, J. (2014). Characterization on heavy metals transferring into flue gas during sewage sludge combustion. *Energy Procedia*, Vol. 61, pp. 2867–2870.
- [63] Belevi, H., Langmeier, M. (2000). Factors determining the element behavior in municipal solid waste incinerators. 2. Laboratory experiments. *Environmental Science and Technology*, Vol. 34, No. 12, pp. 2507–2512.
- [64] Delplanque, M. et al. (2013). Combustion of *Salix* used for phytoextraction: The fate of metals and viability of the processes. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, Vol. 49, pp. 160–170.

-
- [65] fan Zhang, Y. et al. (2018). Volatility and partitioning of Cd and Pb during sewage sludge thermal conversion. *Waste Manag.*, Vol. 75, pp. 333–339.
- [66] Peng, T. H., Lin, C. L., Wey, M. Y. (2014). Development of a low-temperature two-stage fluidized bed incinerator for controlling heavy-metal emission in flue gases. *Appl. Therm. Eng.*, Vol. 62, No. 2, pp. 706–713.
- [67] Sørum, L., Frandsen, F. J., Hustad, J. E. (2004). On the fate of heavy metals in municipal solid waste combustion. Part I. Devolatilisation of heavy metals on the grate. *Fuel*, Vol. 83, No. 11–12, pp. 1703–1710.
- [68] Xue, Z., Zhong, Z., Lai, X. (2020). Investigation on gaseous pollutants emissions during co-combustion of coal and wheat straw in a fluidized bed combustor. *Chemosphere*, Vol. 240, No. 124853, pp. 1–8.
- [69] Kovacs, H., Dobo, Z., Koos, T., Gyimesi, A., Nagy, G. (2018). Influence of the Flue Gas Temperature on the Behavior of Metals during Biomass Combustion. *Energy and Fuels*, Vol. 32, No. 7, pp. 7851–7856.
- [70] Chanaka Udayanga, W. D., Veksha, A., Giannis, A., Lisak, G., Chang, V. W. C., Lim, T. T. (2018). Fate and distribution of heavy metals during thermal processing of sewage sludge. *Fuel*, Vol. 226, No. March, pp. 721–744.
- [71] Barton, R. G., Clark, W. D., Seeker, W. R., Fate of metals in waste combustion systems. *Combust. Sci. Technol.*, Vol. 74, No. 1–6, pp. 327–342.
- [72] Obernberger, I., Brunner, T., Bärnthaler, G. (2006). Chemical properties of solid biofuels-significance and impact. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, Vol. 30, No. 11, pp. 973–982.
- [73] Guo, F., Zhong, Z., Xue, H., Zhong, D. (2018). Migration and Distribution of Heavy Metals During Co-combustion of *Sedum plumbizincicola* and Coal. *Waste and Biomass Valorization*, Vol. 9, No. 11, pp. 2203–2210.
- [74] Lu, S. et al. (2012). Comparison of trace element emissions from thermal treatments of heavy metal hyperaccumulators. *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, Vol. 46, No. 9, pp. 5025–5031.