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FACULTAD DE INGENIERÍA QUÍMICA Y AGROINDUSTRIA

MAESTRÍA DE INVESTIGACIÓN EN METALURGIA

**REVISIÓN DEL ORIGEN DE LA CONTAMINACIÓN DE SUELOS CON
CADMIO, SUS ESTRATEGIAS DE REMOCIÓN Y EL CASO DE
CULTIVOS DE CACAO EN EL ECUADOR**

**TESIS PREVIA A LA OBTENCIÓN DEL TÍTULO DE
MAGÍSTER EN METALURGIA**

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AUSPICIO

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DEDICATORIA

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1 *Review Paper*

2 **Revisión del origen de la contaminación de suelos**
3 **con cadmio, sus estrategias de remoción y el caso de**
4 **cultivos de cacao en el Ecuador** (*Review of soil cadmium*
5 *removal strategies: the case of cacao crops*)

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9 **Resumen:** Cadmium is an inorganic, non-elemental heavy metal widely distributed in nature that
10 can affect the quality of agricultural products due to its bioaccumulation potential. In cocoa beans,
11 the basic raw material in chocolate production, cadmium can occur due to uptake by the cocoa tree
12 of this heavy metal. Several researchers have focused their attention on the concentration of cadmium
13 in soils of cocoa crops since this value has a relation with the concentration of this heavy metal in the
14 beans. Many soil treatments for the removal of cadmium from soils were tested over time. Techniques
15 of physical, chemical and biological remediations of soils containing cadmium were tested and also
16 some combinations of these remediation strategies were evaluated. All remediations that can be
17 applied to soils can affect the content of micronutrients, and this is an important issue that must be
18 addressed. Therefore, a revision of available literature concerning the occurrence of cadmium in soils
19 of cocoa crops, remediation of soils containing cadmium and the implications of treatments for
20 cadmium removal is presented. The revised information is discussed and trends, as well as
21 perspectives for future research works, are proposed.

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23 **Abstract:** Cadmium is an inorganic, non-elemental heavy metal widely distributed in nature that can
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35 perspectives for future research works, are proposed.

36
37 **Keywords:** Cadmium; cocoa; Ecuador; micronutrients; heavy metal; soil remediation techniques.

38
39 **Introduction**

40 The pollution of air, water and soil with heavy metals is an important environmental issue
41 recognized worldwide. Besides natural sources, anthropogenic sources like mining, smelting,
42 combustion of fossil fuels (including coal), disposal of municipal waste, sewage irrigation and
43 agriculture activities (application of pesticides and fertilizers), a variety of industrial activities are the
44 main responsible for the release of heavy metals to water, soil and eventually air [1,2]. There are 90
45 naturally occurring elements, 53 of them are considered heavy metals, including the metalloid arsenic
46 [3]. However, heavy metals must be differentiated in terms of their toxicity; some of them, in low
47 concentrations, are considered micronutrients and only when their concentration is above a

48 threshold, they produce adverse effects in living organisms. On the other hand, there are heavy
 49 metals without such threshold and they are toxic even at very low concentrations [3]. To this last
 50 group of elements belong cadmium (Cd), arsenic (As), lead (Pb), chromium (Cr) and mercury (Hg),
 51 and they are usually referred to in the literature as potentially toxic metals and metalloids (PTMs).

52 The PTMs are known for their bioaccumulation capacity in the food chain [4,5]. The exposition
 53 pathways to PTMs are the direct inhalation, ingestion (intentional and unintentional), dermal contact
 54 and drinking of contaminated water. Dermal contact is especially important for Hg and Pb [6].

55 Cadmium is an inorganic, non-elemental heavy metal widely distributed in nature that occurs
 56 in association with different mineral forms including sphalerite and smithsonite (Cd can be a
 57 substitute for Zn), pyrite (important sink for Cd), apatite (can replace Ca). Commonly, Cd is an
 58 impurity in phosphates and phosphoric rocks [7]. Cadmium is present in higher concentrations in
 59 sedimentary rocks than in igneous rocks [8]. [Quezada-Hinojosa et al. \[9\]](#) reported anomalous high
 60 Cd concentrations in limestone rocks and concluded that it's a natural source because it had no
 61 anthropogenic influence due to its remoteness from urban and industrial activity zones. Predominant
 62 rocks in the region can influence the composition of the heavy metals of soils; cadmium and other
 63 heavy metal can reach the soil environment through meteoric, biogenic and volcanic processes as
 64 well as due to effects of erosion, leaching and winds [10]. Cadmium is a ubiquitous pollutant and its
 65 occurrence has been reported in different soils in the world [11]. The occurrence of cadmium in soil,
 66 in most cases, can be attributed to a natural process affecting the parent rock and clearly human
 67 perturbation can enhance such processes [9].

68 The occurrence of cadmium in soils is a very important subject studied by researchers in many
 69 countries [7–9,12]. There are reports of cadmium-polluted soils in Asian countries like India,
 70 Thailand, Korea and China, with cadmium concentrations in soils are India, Thailand, Korea, and
 71 China, in the last one, over 16.76% of all cropland is polluted by heavy metals including cadmium
 72 [13–15]. In South America, there are many countries where cadmium is present in soils such as Peru
 73 [16], Ecuador [17,18], Brazil [19], Bolivia [20], Colombia [21], etc. High concentrations of cadmium
 74 were observed in soils in England [22], Spain [23] and Australia [24]. Table 1 shows data collected by
 75 [Alloway \[12\]](#) on the content of cadmium in soils in different regions of the world.

76
77 Table 1. The concentration of cadmium in topsoils in regions around the world

Region	Cadmium content [mg kg ⁻¹]
Europe	0.145
Baltic states	0.13
Ireland	0.326
England and Wales	0.7
Netherlands	0.14
Denmark	0.16
USA	0.16
World average	1.1

78
79 Table 1 shows a remarkable high cadmium content observed for the world average and this is
 80 explained by the fact that in different sites where the cadmium concentration in soils is higher, soils
 81 studied were from agricultural and mining sites; for example, in some Zn and Pb mines the Cd
 82 concentration in soil reaches 360 mg kg⁻¹. Jamaica has phosphorite deposits considered as
 83 'cadmiferous' with natural contamination that could reach Cd concentrations around 16540 mg kg⁻¹
 84 [12].

85 Cadmium present in the soil, from natural or anthropogenic origin, has a direct effect on crops
 86 since this heavy metal can be absorbed by plants, thus entering the food chain [25,26]. Taking into
 87 account the presence of cadmium in soils worldwide, all agricultural products contain cadmium and,
 88 therefore, all living beings are exposed to the uptake of this heavy metal at least in natural levels [27].

89 There are multiple reports on the occurrence of cadmium in crop products, for example, [Uraguchi et](#)
90 [al. \[28\]](#) and [Zou et al. \[29\]](#) published reviews which collect multiple reports on the occurrence of
91 cadmium in rice and toxicity issues related with this heavy metal. In most cases, the origin of
92 cadmium present in soils is natural. Independently of the origin (natural or anthropogenic), cadmium
93 affects plants because it is absorbed instead of micronutrients like zinc, thus having implications on
94 the development of the plant [\[30\]](#). Cadmium toxicity in plants is noticeable by its appearance since
95 less biomass is produced and yield of crops has a notorious decrement [\[27,31\]](#).

96 As previously suggested, anthropogenic contamination has largely contributed to the increasing
97 presence of Cd in the environment. As a pollutant, cadmium could be present in the soil, water, and
98 air because its mobilization through the ecological compartments is relatively easy. Cadmium rarely
99 occurs in the environment as a pure metal, it could be found in different forms as oxides, sulfates, or
100 chlorides [\[32\]](#). Cadmium occurs in nature associated with zinc base ores and also it could be an
101 impurity in copper and lead ores; volcanic activity and weathering of parent rocks are other
102 important sources [\[25\]](#).

103 Cadmium is produced in many countries in the world, it is produced as a secondary product
104 from the metallurgical treatment of zinc or lead; it is present in sulfur form and after the process there
105 are oxide formation [\[33\]](#). The most important producers are China, South Korea, Japan, Mexico,
106 Canada and Russia [\[34\]](#). Both the production of cadmium and its use are (direct and indirectly)
107 responsible for pollution related to this heavy metal. As an example, in China, according to
108 estimations, around 743.77 tonnes of cadmium were released into the environment the year 2009 [\[5\]](#).
109 [Li et al. \[35\]](#) reported data on heavy metal pollution in China with a special focus on Cd, As, Pb, Hg,
110 Ni, Zn, Cu, Ag and certainly much of the concern is related to cadmium. Due to the pollution, some
111 Brazilian soils have concentrations of cadmium as high as 20 mg kg⁻¹ [\[36\]](#) while average
112 concentrations of cadmium in soils worldwide are around 1 mg kg⁻¹ [\[37\]](#).

113 Cadmium can be released into the environment due to activities of a variety of industries such
114 as smelting, metal manufacturing and refining, pesticides, paintings, fertilizers and manures,
115 wastewater irrigation, iron and steel plants [\[31,38–40\]](#). The production of rechargeable batteries is the
116 industrial activity requiring the highest amounts of cadmium, therefore, it can also be considered the
117 highest source of this heavy metal to soils [\[5\]](#). Fertilizers are also an important source of cadmium in
118 the soil. [Alloway \[12\]](#) reported the cadmium concentration in fertilizers and manure, which are highly
119 variable depending on the region they are produced. According to [Alloway \[12\]](#), in the world, the
120 concentrations of cadmium in phosphatic, nitrogen and lime fertilizers, and manures are in the ranges
121 0.1-170, 0.05-8.5, 0.04-0.1 and 0.3-0.8 mg kg⁻¹, respectively.

122 As mentioned before, the combustion of fossil fuels results in the emission of heavy metals into
123 the atmosphere. Several investigations reported that cadmium is present in coals in many countries
124 around the world such as China (0.24-0.81 mg kg⁻¹), USA (0.47 mg kg⁻¹), and India (0.75 mg kg⁻¹)
125 [\[41,42\]](#).

126 In general, pollution affects flora and fauna by interfering in natural processes and disturbing
127 ecosystems. In addition, pollutants have adverse effects on human health, and heavy metals are a
128 good example of that. Cadmium is considered a toxic and carcinogenic element [\[43\]](#). This metal
129 represents a high risk to human health due to its adverse effects [\[44\]](#). Early in 1858, the case of people
130 suffering gastrointestinal problems was reported. These health problems were attributed to cadmium
131 carbonate powder which was used to polish [\[45\]](#). The first toxicological studies of cadmium were
132 carried out, in 1919. In 1957, after the World War II, the “itai-itai” disease (“ouch-ouch” disease in
133 Japanese) was discovered in Japan by Dr. Hagino and linked to human exposure to cadmium by
134 ingestion of rice contaminated with cadmium in Toyama prefecture. This disease affects bones
135 causing fractures and severe pain [\[45,46\]](#). In the human body, cadmium has a half-time life of about
136 30 years and causes renal and lung dysfunction, bones and muscular pain, and could increase the
137 risk of cardiovascular disease, among other health issues [\[43,47\]](#).

138 Usually, dietary intake constitutes the most important intake pathway of cadmium. In many
139 Asian countries in which rice is a key dietary ingredient (e.g., Japan, China, Thailand, Bangladesh

140 and others), cadmium intake was associated to the consumption of this grain [48]. Depending on soil
141 characteristics and other regional features, the concentration of cadmium in rice grains is variable.
142 Reported average concentrations of cadmium in rice grains are between 0.33 and 0.69 mg kg⁻¹ (China),
143 0.38 mg kg⁻¹ (Japan) [49]. Wang et al. [50] reported the content of heavy metals such as copper, zinc,
144 lead, cadmium, mercury and chromium in vegetables and locally produced fish in several districts
145 of Tianjin, China and confirmed them as a dietary source of cadmium. However, there are other ways
146 for the absorption of this heavy metal by the human body. For example, smokers can inhale cadmium
147 released to the gas phase during the combustion of the tobacco leaves [47].

148 Cadmium compounds are very toxic and non-biodegradable, and their elimination from the
149 body is difficult [51]. This ability of cadmium to remain (accumulate) in the body of human beings
150 and other organisms, combined with its high toxicity, makes it a very concerning pollutant [32].
151 In this work, aspects concerning the occurrence of cadmium in soils of cocoa crops and the associated
152 problems are considered. The principle of soil remediation techniques is briefly explained and works
153 on the removal of cadmium from agricultural soils were collected and discussed. Moreover, based
154 on the available information in the scientific literature, the effects of soil remediation techniques on
155 soil quality are discussed and perspectives for future researches are formulated.

156 157 **Section 1: Cadmium in soils of cocoa crops**

158 Cadmium is dangerous for human health and could produce negative effects when it gets into
159 the food chain [40]. This concern has motivated the study of the content of toxic elements (among
160 them, cadmium) in foodstuff [52]. The accumulation of heavy metals by plants depends on the species
161 and the plant tissue [53]. Furthermore, it is a well-known fact that heavy metals can accumulate more
162 in some parts of the plant than in others and this results in complications when the accumulation is
163 higher in the edible parts [54]. In this sense, currently, there is a lot of concern about the beans of the
164 cocoa tree (*Theobroma cacao*), which accumulate cadmium even in higher concentrations than other
165 parts of the plant [17]. Cocoa is a high-value commodity for many countries and an essential raw
166 material of food industries as it is the main ingredient in chocolate [55]. Therefore, strict controls on
167 the content of cadmium in cocoa beans are performed by importing countries. The European Union
168 established a maximum cadmium level in cocoa beans of 0.8 mg kg⁻¹ (allowed maximum levels of
169 pollutants established by the European Union are often lower than those established by the Codex
170 Alimentarius) [56].

171 Cocoa trees are cultivated in many regions of South America, Central America and the
172 Caribbean, West Africa, Southeast Asia and Oceania [19]. In Africa, important cocoa producers are
173 countries like Nigeria, Congo, Sierra Leone, Madagascar, Tanzania, Uganda, Ivory Coast, Ghana, and
174 Cameroon, among others. In Central America and the Caribbean, the production is led by Trinidad
175 and Tobago, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Mexico and Honduras, while in Asia and Oceania
176 is produced by Indonesia, Philippines, Malaysia and Papua New Guinea. In Latin America, cocoa is
177 produced in the rainforest of Brazil, Peru, Ecuador, Colombia, Bolivia and Venezuela [21,57–64].
178 About 72% of the world's total production comes from Africa, and Ivory Coast is the top producer
179 (43% of the world's total production) [65]. According to estimations, 4,784 million tonnes of cocoa
180 will be produced in the year 2021 and Ecuador contributes 6% of this production [18,60].

181 Cocoa-based products are widely consumed in the whole world and cocoa from South America
182 is used to produce premium quality chocolate. Therefore, concerns referred to the content of toxic
183 trace elements in soils of cocoa crops are justified [19,66]. Bertoldi et al. [61] reported the concentration
184 of 56 macro, micro and trace elements in samples of cocoa beans from 23 countries, and in several
185 samples, the content of the toxic elements Cd, Pb and Hg were higher than the permissible limits.
186 Since toxic heavy metals can be found in cocoa, studies on the composition of cocoa products were
187 also carried out. In this sense, Yanus et al. [67] reported a study on the content of trace elements in
188 cocoa solids and chocolate of different brands and countries demonstrating that children could be
189 the population group with the highest exposition to heavy metals due to the high chocolate
190 consumption. It has also been found that the cadmium content in chocolates shows variations

191 depending on the type of chocolate (i.e., the content of cocoa), decreasing in the following order: dark
192 chocolate, milk chocolate and white chocolate [55].

193 It is known that soil properties such as pH, organic matter content, electrical conductivity, the
194 occurrence of microorganisms (type and variety), macro and micronutrient content, cation exchange
195 capacity, texture and mineralogy, influence the bioavailability of cadmium (i.e., the proportion of the
196 total amount of cadmium in soil that is available for incorporation into plants) and these properties
197 could be manipulated to limit the cadmium uptake by plants [68]. There are many reports of studies
198 focused on the quantification of cadmium (and other toxic metals) and the effects of their occurrence
199 on cocoa crops. Lewis et al. [69] measured the concentration of 8 heavy metals (Cd, Cr, Zn, Pb, Mn,
200 Ni, Cu, Fe) in 12 soils in Ecuador and tried to find patterns among the content of metals and their
201 concentrations in leaves of cocoa trees. Nnuro et al. [57] reported the results of the quantification of
202 lead, copper, cadmium, manganese, zinc and iron in cocoa beans from 5 selected cocoa growing areas
203 in Ghana, and high contents of heavy metals in beans were attributed to their presence in soil, likely
204 due to mining activities. Gramlich et al. [62] focused their attention on soils of different sites in
205 Honduras and the influence of their characteristics on the cadmium uptake by cocoa leaves and
206 beans. These authors, based on concentrations of cadmium in the parts of cocoa trees (leaves, pod
207 husks and beans) and the surrounding soils, found that cadmium in soil determined by the diffusive
208 gradients in thin films (DGT) method is a good predictor of the cadmium uptake by the plant.

209 Many works focusing on the occurrence of cadmium and other heavy metals can be found in
210 scientific literature. Table 2 summarizes studies on cadmium (and other relevant heavy metals)
211 content in soils of cocoa crops in Latin America. Different strategies were considered in order to assess
212 the content of cadmium in soils; in some studies, soils were sampled with the consideration of the
213 depth and in others, only the first centimeters of soil were considered. The concentration of cadmium
214 in soils is variable among countries and regions, ranging between 0.16 to 2.85mg kg⁻¹. Remarkably
215 high content of cadmium in soil was observed in Trinidad and Tobago (20.78 mg kg⁻¹) [70]. Moreover,
216 the results of the studies presented in Table 3 suggest that the concentration of cadmium in soils
217 decreases with depth. This is an important aspect that should be considered when techniques for
218 cadmium removal are selected and, later, applied.

219 Table 2. Occurrence of cadmium and other heavy metals in soils of cocoa crops in Latin America

Country	Region	Analyzed heavy metals	Total cadmium concentration (mg kg ⁻¹)	Analytical Technique ¹	Reference
Ecuador	Guayas and El Oro	Cd	Average values Depth 0-5 cm: 1.54 Depth 5-15 cm: 1.39 Depth 15-30 cm: 0.77 Depth 30-50 cm: 0.85	ICP-OES	[17]
Trinidad and Tobago	Trinidad island	Cd	Depth 0-30 cm: Sample 1: 2.71 ± 1.47 Sample 2: 20.78 ± 1.12	FAAS	[70]
Trinidad and Tobago	Not specified	Cd	Depth 0-30 cm: 0.3 to 1.7	FAAS	[55]
Peru	Tumbes, Piura, Cajamarca, Amazonas, Huanuco, San Martin, Junin, Cuzco	Cd, Fe, Cu, Zn, Mn, Ni, Pb	Depth 0-20 cm: 0.00±0.00 to 0.53 ± 0.02 (variable contents of cadmium depending on the region)	AAS	[16]

Bolivia	Alto Beni	Cd	Average values Depth 0-10 cm: 0.12 to 0.18 Depth 10-25 cm: 0.08 to 0.1	AAS	[20]
Ecuador	Morona Santiago (4 samples), Orellana (8 samples), Sucumbíos (10 samples), Manabí (3 samples), Esmeraldas (6 samples)	Cd	Depth 0-5 cm: 4.15 ± 0.01 to 8 ± 0.04 Depth 5-20 cm: 4.22 ± 0.02 to 7.66 ± 0.02 Depth 20-60 cm: 4.37 ± 0.04 to 7.90 ± 0.01 Depth: 60-80 cm: 4.40 ± 0.00 to 7.53 ± 0.06 Depth 80-100 cm: 4.49 ± 0.02 to 5.10 ± 0.01	ICP-MS	[66]
Colombia	Arauca, Boyaca and Santander	Cd	Arauca: 0.81 – 1.25 Boyaca: 1.13 – 3.70 Santander: 2.41 – 3.29	ICP	[21]
Honduras	Santa Bárbara, Cortés, Atlántida, Yoro and Gracias a Dios	Cd	Average values Depth 0-10 cm: 0.25 ± 0.02 Depth 10-25 cm: 0.16 ± 0.01	AAS	[62]
Ecuador	Azuay, Bolívar, El Oro, Esmeraldas, Guayas, Los Ríos, Manabí, Napo and Santo Domingo	Cd Ni Pb	Average values Azuay: 0.6 Bolívar: 0.7 El Oro: 0.4 Esmeraldas: 1.25 Guayas: 1.7 Los Ríos: 0.9 Manabí: 0.5 Napo: 0.25 Santo Domingo: 0.4	FAAS GFAAS	[18]
Ecuador	Coastal and Amazonia regions	Cd, Zn	Average value: 0.44	ICP-MS	[71]
Peru	Huanuco	Cd	Depth 0-20 cm: 0.04 ± 0.00 to 1.42 ± 0.43	AAS	[72]
Trinidad and Tobago	Trinidad island	Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Pb, Mn, Ni, Zn	Average value: 0.3 to 2.5	ICP-OES	[69]

220 ¹ ICP-OES: Inductively Coupled Plasma - Optical Emission Spectrometry; FAAS: Flame Atomic Absorption
 221 Spectrometry; AAS: Atomic Absorption Spectrometry; GFAAS: Graphite Furnace Atomic Absorption
 222 Spectrometry

223 Some countries in Latin America have cocoa as one of the most important commodities and the
 224 economy of farmers lies in the production of cocoa beans. This is the case of Ecuador, which is also a
 225 country internationally recognized for the production of the highly appreciated cocoa of the variety
 226 National (also known as “Arriba”) [73]. An obvious threat for this important Ecuadorian commodity
 227 is the presence of cadmium in cocoa beans in concentrations higher than values established by
 228 regulators of importing countries. Therefore, a lot of attention was paid to the content of cadmium in
 229 Ecuadorian soils; Romero-Estévez et al. [18] studied the content of cadmium in soils of 9 provinces of

230 Ecuador. The knowledge of the origin of cadmium in soils is essential to manage soil treatment
231 strategies as well as the prevention of pollution. Therefore, the water of rivers in the south of Ecuador
232 was analyzed and high concentrations of heavy metals were observed [74]. The use for irrigation of
233 water from these rivers, which may be polluted by mining activities, could be a source of cadmium
234 to soils of cocoa crops. This a concerning potential source of pollution of soils. Data for Ecuador on
235 the concentration of cadmium in soils, cocoa trees and cocoa beans indicates that, in many cases,
236 levels of cadmium are higher than the permissible limits [17,59,66,71,75], being this the motivation to
237 search strategies to deal with a problem having social implications, economic consequences and
238 negative effects to human health.

239 **Section 2: Treatments for the removal of cadmium in soils**

240 The effects of cadmium on crops have been widely studied over the years. Several reviews have
241 collected valuable data on this topic [2,30,76,77]. It is known that cadmium phytotoxicity causes a
242 delay in plant growth, as well as an alteration in the concentration of nutrients in roots and leaves,
243 and in high concentrations, it could cause the death of plants [27,78,79]. As occurs with other heavy
244 metals, cadmium can easily be absorbed by plants and, therefore, products harvested from
245 contaminated soils have high concentrations of the metal with the consequent negative effect on the
246 safety of foodstuff [31,37].

247 A high concentration of heavy metals in cocoa beans and other agricultural products can be
248 observed for soils containing higher concentrations of heavy metals. Specifically, for cocoa, Chavez
249 et al. [17] found a correlation between the cadmium concentration in cacao bean and the extractable
250 cadmium in soils. Other authors have found strong correlations of the cadmium concentration in the
251 plant with the total cadmium concentration in soil [55]. These apparent discrepancies may be
252 explained by taking into account the specific characteristics of the studied soils. In any case, a strategy
253 to reduce the intake of cadmium by plants was the treatment of soils containing high concentrations
254 of this heavy metal.

255 Soils containing heavy metals can be treated with many techniques (*in situ* and *ex situ*)
256 [2,30,76,77]. Most of these techniques are expensive and cause the reduction of soil productivity
257 because chemical and biological properties are altered [80].

258 Remediation techniques applied for the treatment of soils containing heavy metals can be
259 grouped into three types: 1) Physical remediation, 2) chemical remediation, and 3) biological
260 remediation (or bioremediation). A summary of reported works on techniques used to remove
261 cadmium in the soil is presented in Table 3. The explanation of the principle and relevant scientific
262 information on the treatments for cadmium removal from soils are presented in the following
263 subsections.

264

Table 3. Remediation techniques applied for cadmium removal from soils.

265

Method	Technique	Short description of the study	Reference(s)
Chemical remediation	Electrokinetics & soil washing	The electrokinetic remediation was enhanced by washing the soil with purging solutions. Real contaminated soil from an abandoned military area containing $55.0 \pm 5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ of Cd was used for the tests. The soil also contained Ni ($34.4 \pm 6.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$), Pb ($81.1 \pm 10.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$), Zn ($1238 \pm 140 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$), Cu ($406 \pm 60 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) and Cr ($39.3 \pm 8.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$). Acetic acid, hydrochloric acid and ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) were used for purging solutions.	[81]
		The electrokinetic remediation was enhanced by washing the soil with ammonium citrate (1 M), sodium citrate (1 M) and non-ionic surfactant Tween-20 (0.2 % v/v). Tests were made at different pH values: 2, 7 and 12. Spiked soil with Cd and Cu from agricultural fields was used. Concentrations of Cd and Cu in soil were 10044 and 15880 mg kg^{-1} , respectively.	[82,83]
		The electrokinetic remediation was enhanced by washing the soil with organic acids (EDTA and citric acid). Spiked soil from a farm in Spain with a concentration of Cd of 141 mg kg^{-1} was used in this study. The soil also contained Cr (1000 mg kg^{-1}), Co (185 mg kg^{-1}), Cu (1023 mg kg^{-1}), Pb (1000 mg kg^{-1}) and Zn (1001 mg kg^{-1}).	[84]
	Soil washing & adsorption	Cadmium was removed by a combined process involving soil washing and adsorption. Spiked soil from a local garden in Jordan, with a concentration of cadmium of 200 mg kg^{-1} was washed with aqueous solutions containing organic acids, mainly citric acid. To remove cadmium from the organic acid-bearing soil-washing water, the adsorbents magnetite (Mag), magnetic wood (MW) and citric acid-modified magnetic wood (CA-MW) were tested.	[85]
	Soil washing & freeze-thaw	A nano hydroxyapatite aqueous suspension containing fluvic acid was used to remove (elute) Cd of soil. Real soil from Shenyang (China), containing cadmium in a concentration of 0.19 mg kg^{-1} was spiked to reach the concentration of $16.94 \pm 0.23 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$.	[86]
		Use of the method of freeze-thaw chemical washing with ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA) as eluent to study the cadmium Cd and Pb removal of contaminated clay soils. The content of Cd and Pb in soil samples of Henan (China) was 253.8 and 1821 mg kg^{-1} respectively.	[87]

	Polyaspartate synthesis using L-Aspartic acid for soil washing and extraction of Cd ions from 47 different samples of spiked soil from Saudi Arabia. These samples had a content of Cd between 100 and 500 mg kg ⁻¹ .	[88]
	Three washing agents, carboxyalkylthiosuccinic acid (CETSA), copolymer of maleic and acrylic acid (MA/AA) and ethylenediamine tetra acetic acid (EDTA), were used to remove heavy metals such as Cd, Pb and Zn from contaminated soil from Sichuan (China) with 18.82, 2809.8 and 1175.63 mg kg ⁻¹ respectively.	[89]
	Cd removal using four washing agents: soapnut, shikakai, rhamnolipids and EDTA in Cd-spiked soil from garden in Edinburgh. Cadmium concentration was 700 mg kg ⁻¹ .	[4]
Soil washing	The use of recalcitrant chelating agent EDTA and the biodegradable chelating agents N,N-bis(carboxymethyl)-L-glutamate (GLDA), iminodisuccinate (IDS), S,S ethylenediamine-disuccinate (EDDS) for contaminated soil remediation. Real soil from Arnoldstein (Austria) was used. Cd, Zn and Pb concentrations were 4.5 ± 0.0, 448 ± 11 and 809 ± 18 mg kg ⁻¹ respectively.	[90]
	Application of rhamnolipid surfactant to evaluate heavy metals remotion in Brazilian soils from short and long-term contamination sites. The first sample was artificially contaminated and reached Cd concentration of 20 ± 0.8 mg kg ⁻¹ . Second sample was collected from a deactivated mining site with Cd concentration of 122 ± 3.5 mg kg ⁻¹ . First and second soils samples also contained As (182 ± 10 and 114 ± 0.8 mg kg ⁻¹ respectively) and Zn (983 ± 30 and 3339 ± 60 mg kg ⁻¹ respectively)	[36]
	Two different phosphates, potassium dihydrogen phosphate (PDP) and dipotassium hydrogen phosphate (DHP), were used to immobilize multiple heavy metals in contaminated soil from Hezhang (China) with 31.83 mg kg ⁻¹ of Cd, 1141.6 mg kg ⁻¹ of Pb and 2119.28 mg kg ⁻¹ of Zn.	[40]
Immobilization	Use of biochar produced from wheat straw in five soil samples collected in five polluted rice paddies in China to prevent Cd-tainted rice grains. The Cd concentration levels for each paddie was: 21.84, 4.83, 0.5, 0.16 and 4.63 mg kg ⁻¹ .	[91]
	Biochar obtained from rice straw at 640 and 420 °C, leca, pumice, bentonite and zeolite were used as soil amendments to reduce the availability of Cd and, therefore, the uptake by maize (<i>Zea mays L.</i>). Spiked soil from Iran with a concentration of Cd of 150 mg kg ⁻¹ was used in this study.	[92]

		Biochar and lime were used as soil amendments for Cd immobilization in soil. Real soil from cocoa in Trinidad & Tobago crops were used in this study. The concentration of Cd in soil was $0.77 \pm 0.25 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$.	[64]
		The use of Korean ecotype of black nightshade plant (<i>Solanum nigrum</i>) for phytoremediation of Cd-spiked sands from Korea was reported. The concentrations of Cd used in this study were 0 (control), 10, 30, 50 and 80 mg kg^{-1} .	[93]
	Phytoremediation	Two types of Japanese rice cultivars (Nipponbare and Milyang 23), two of soybean (Enrei and Suzuyutaka), and one of maize (Gold Dent) were cultivated in Cd contaminated soils to evaluate and select the best cadmium hyperaccumulator. The three real soils from Japan used in this study were an Andosol and two Fluvisols (Fluvisol 1 and 2), with concentrations of Cd of 4.29, 2.68 and 0.83 mg kg^{-1} , respectively.	[94]
		Six Chinese cabbage cultivars (Beijingxiaoza 56, Suancaiawang, Quansheng, Qiubo 60, Xianfengkuaicai, and Chunkang) were grown in three soils to evaluate their Cd phytoextraction ability. The three real Chinese soils used in this study were from the: Shenyang Station of Experimental Ecology (SSEE), the Shenfu Irrigation Area (SIA) and the Zhangshi Irrigation Area (ZIA), with concentrations of Cd of 0.15, 1.15 and 2.25 mg kg^{-1} , respectively.	[95]
Bioremediation			
	Microbial remediation	Evaluation of the behavior and effectiveness in Cd immobilization in soils of different cadmium tolerant bacteria strains. Soils were collected from 26 farms of Colombia. The concentrations of Cd in soils were between 0.81 and 3.7 mg kg^{-1} .	[21]
		<i>Rhodobacter sphaeroides</i> was used to transform available metal (Cd and Zn) fractions to less accessible metal forms to limit the uptake by plants. Spiked soils from China were used in this study. The concentrations of Cd in soils ranged between 0.12 ± 0.05 and 65.33 ± 1.63 . Additionally, concentrations of Zn ranged between 69.89 ± 1.64 and $964.8 \pm 12.45 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$.	[96]
	Microbial remediation & phytoremediation	The phytoextraction of Cd was enhanced by inoculating the endophytic fungus <i>Microdochium bolleyi</i> in barley plants. Spiked sandy soils from Iran were used in the study. Four concentrations of cadmium were considered: 0, 10, 30 and 60 mg kg^{-1} .	[97]

Chemically enhanced bioremediation	Microbial remediation & immobilization	The phytoextraction of cadmium was enhanced by inoculating 42 culturable endophytic fungal isolates to <i>Solanum nigrum</i> . Spiked soils were used in this study. Four concentrations of Cd were considered: 0, 15, 20, 25 mg kg ⁻¹ . [98]
		Fermented cedar bark was used as an organic amendment in rice paddies. The use of this amendment allowed to retain of heavy metals (especially cadmium) in the soil and reducing the uptake of heavy metals in brown rice. Fermentation was achieved with white-rot fungus. Real Japanese soil used for rice cultivation, with a concentration of Cd of 2.2 ± 0.7 mg kg ⁻¹ was used in tests. [13]
		The immobilization of Cd and Pb was enhanced by the mean of phosphate solubilizing bacteria. 16 bacterial strains and one consortium (<i>Enterobacter</i> spp., <i>Bacillus</i> spp., and <i>Lactococcus</i> spp.) were tested. Real soils from Guizhou Province (China) containing Cd and Pb in concentrations 5.86 and 435.36 mg kg ⁻¹ , respectively were used in this study. [99]
	Vermiremediation	Enhancement of vetiver grass phytoremediation by the use of earthworms (<i>Eisenia fetida</i>) for removing Cd from spiked soils from Sichuan province (China) with four concentrations: 0, 5, 10 and 20 mg kg ⁻¹ . [100]
		Evaluation of the influence of biochar and <i>Bacillus megatherium</i> on Cd removal from spiked soils using earthworms (<i>Eisenia fetida</i>). Uncontaminated soils from Shaanxi (China) were collected and spiked with a Cd solution until 2.5 mg kg ⁻¹ . [80]
		Use of earthworm (<i>Eisenia fetida</i>) alone or combined with ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) or bean dregs for Cd removal from soils. Uncontaminated soils from Yangling (China) were collected and spiked with a Cd solution until 2.5 mg kg ⁻¹ . [101]
	Soil washing & phytoremediation	Cd uptake by corn crops enhanced by the addition of the biosurfactants rhamnolipid and saponin. For the experiments, real soil samples from Mae Sot district (Thailand) contained cadmium in a concentration of 12.64 mg kg ⁻¹ were spiked to reach a concentration of 36.80 mg kg ⁻¹ . [102]
		Enhancement of ryegrass (<i>Lolium perenne</i> L.) soil phytoextraction of Cd and Zn with hydrochloric acid (HCl), ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA), nitrilotriacetic acid (NTA), several biodegradable natural low molecular mass organic acids (LMMOAs). Total Cd and Zn concentrations in real soil samples from Shaanxi (China) were 27.13 and 1690 mg kg ⁻¹ , respectively. [103]

2.1. Physical remediation

Physical techniques of remediation include soil substitution, surface capping, landfilling, encapsulation [104,105]. The process of substitution consists of the mechanical removal of the polluted soil, its mobilization to a treatment facility or an appropriate landfill, and the replacement with clean soil. This strategy is not economically viable and time-consuming in most cases [104]. Surface capping consists of the application of a waterproof layer over the polluted area; this is not considered a real remediation process because pollutants are not removed. Surface capping aims to avoid the migration of pollutants to unpolluted soils due to environmental factors and the contact of pollutants with living beings (including humans). Surface capping, due to its characteristics, is an option only applicable for scenarios with highly polluted soils, therefore, the area is converted into non-productive land, and only can be used for other civil purposes (edifications). As mentioned before, once removed polluted soils for substitution purposes, the soil can be treated (see subsection 2.2) or simply landfilled. Landfilling consists of the indefinite disposition of soil in a facility designed to prevent the release of pollutants to the environment. It is expensive and the risks of pollutants leaching into soil and (ground)water cannot be ruled out [105,106]. Encapsulation consists of the construction of barrier layers with materials of low permeability to isolate polluted soils and prevent the contact of pollutants with unpolluted soils and groundwater [105,107].

Based on the characteristics of techniques of physical remediation, their application do not allow to recover soil for agricultural uses. These techniques are applied for highly polluted soils (usually resulting from anthropogenic activities like mining) to avoid further environmental damages and protect human health.

2.2. Chemical remediation

Chemical techniques of remediation include soil flushing and washing, immobilization (stabilization), electrokinetic methods, vitrify technology, chemical leaching and chemical fixation [101]. Soil washing is an important ex situ remediation technology; it is widely used and considered time-saving and an efficient technique [105,106].

Soil flushing (in situ) and washing (ex situ) are two methods using water or an appropriate aqueous solution to remove soil contaminants [2]. In order to achieve a higher extraction of heavy metals (in general) with lesser volumes of water, chelating agents and surfactants are added to water. Typically used chelating agents include ethylenediamine tetraacetate (EDTA) and its sodium salt form (Na-EDTA), [S,S]-isomer of ethylene diamine disuccinate (EDDS), N,N-bis(carboxymethyl)-L-glutamic acid (GLDA) [107]. Surfactants are usually applied to remediate contaminated soils, there are anionic, cationic and nonionic; rhamnolipids, polyethylene oxides, sodium dodecyl sulfate, dodecylamine hydrochloride are examples of many surfactants with different mechanisms depending on the soil characteristics and metals present [95,108]. Some of these substances (inorganic agents, surfactants, and chelators) are preferred due to their low costs, however, they could negatively impact on soil properties. This is the case of inorganic agents [95]. Other compounds, like ethylenediamine tetra acetic acid (EDTA), show high efficiencies in heavy metal removal but their limited biodegradability could produce secondary pollution [95]. Therefore, despite they are more expensive, biodegradable chelating agents and surfactants like water, saponin, organic acids, then inorganic agents, are preferred for both soil flushing and washing [2].

Concerning cadmium removal from soils by soil washing, a variety of reports can be found in the scientific literature and removal efficiency reaches 90% [33]. Gluhar et al. [109] published a report on a technology named "ReSoil", which was applied for the removal of cadmium, lead and zinc from soils using recalcitrant chelating agent EDTA and the biodegradable chelating agents N,N-bis(carboxymethyl)-L-glutamate (GLDA), iminodisuccinate (IDS), S,S ethylenediamine-disuccinate (EDDS). They concluded that EDTA outperformed the biodegradable chelating agents considered in their study, however, they also warned about the limitations of the study: only a few biodegradable chelating agents were tested, and experiments were carried out with one type of soil. This remark is important since, as the authors sustained, the extractability of metals and the nature of the contamination of soils are variable for different scenarios. There are other reports of studies

318 in which different aqueous solutions of chelating agents and surfactants were used, with a special
319 focus on biodegradable washing agents. [Xia et al. \[95\]](#) studied the cadmium, lead and zinc removal
320 from soil by aqueous solutions of carboxyalkylthiosuccinic acid (CETSA), a copolymer of maleic and
321 acrylic acid (MA/AA) and EDTA. Real soil containing Cd, Pb and Zn with concentrations 18.82,
322 2809.8 and 1175.63 mg kg⁻¹, respectively, were used in the experiments and the highest metal
323 removals (83.5% for cadmium, 94.13% for lead and 80.37% for zinc) was achieved with CETSA with
324 washing time of 90 min. [Chibuzo et al. \[4\]](#) proposed the cadmium removal using the biodegradable
325 surfactants soapnut, shikakai and rhamnolipids and observed that the removal efficiencies of these
326 surfactants were improved by the addition of EDTA, reaching cadmium removal efficiencies of
327 87.4%. An interesting washing agent extracted from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (rhamnolipid
328 surfactant) was used for the removal of cadmium, arsenic and zinc from soils and showed an
329 alternative source of materials used for remediation [\[30\]](#). Another biodegradable chelating agent
330 tested for cadmium removal was polyaspartate [\[96\]](#).

331 The efficiency in the removal of cadmium and other heavy metals from soils depends on the
332 capability of washing solutions to dissolve them. Therefore, some authors have tested methods to
333 enhance the transfer of heavy metal ions to the aqueous solution. [Park et al. \[105\]](#) used ultrasonic
334 irradiation to enhance mechanical soil washing. These authors used a solution of hydrochloric acid
335 (HCl) for soil washing and irradiated the soil-solution mixture with ultrasound (28 kHz) while
336 ensuring an appropriate mechanical mixing. Soil and liquid (HCl solution) ratios for proves were
337 this fusion of 1:2 and 1:3. It was found that this soil washing strategy increased the removal
338 efficiency of soil washing as follows: from 39.4% to 66.8% for Cu, from 27.3% to 65.6% for Pb and
339 from 42.2% to 65% for Zn (1:2 soil: liquid solution ratio); and from 47.2% to 76.2% for Cu, from 46.9%
340 to 75.4% for Pb and from 46.3% to 72% for Zn (1:3 soil:liquid solution ratio). A repeated freeze-thaw
341 of soil with the use of appropriate washing solutions was proposed by [Rui et al. \[93\]](#). A (clay) soil
342 containing in its structure an aqueous solution of EDTA was frozen and then thawed, and this
343 process induced destruction of the structure of soil with a consequent better contact of the solution
344 and soil particles. As the soil thawed, the aqueous solution was capable of dissolving heavy metals,
345 cadmium among them. As suggested by Rui and coworkers, soils can be frozen due to seasonal
346 drops in temperature and afterward soils also thaw, and this cycle could be used for purposes of
347 remediation of soil.

348 Remediation by soil washing can also be combined with the adsorption of heavy metals on
349 solid particles. This approach was tested by El-Sheikh and coworkers using magnetite, magnetic
350 wood and citric acid-modified magnetic wood as adsorbents [\[92\]](#). Also, in another study, nano
351 hydroxyapatite aqueous suspension containing fulvic acid was used to remove (elute) Cd from soil
352 [\[93\]](#). In both cases, cadmium removal improvements were attributed to the adsorption of the heavy
353 metal to these solids.

354 An effective way for reducing the toxic effects of heavy metals on biota and, eventually, in
355 humans, is immobilization, which uses fixatives to decrease the leachability of heavy metals [\[108\]](#).
356 [Yuan et al. \[37,99\]](#) used phosphates for the immobilization of multiple heavy metals since this anion
357 reacts with metallic cations to produce insoluble heavy metal phosphates. If heavy metals are in the
358 form of an insoluble salt, their bioavailability is limited; Immobilization could be enhanced from
359 28.38% to 30.81%. In this sense, the addition of K₂HPO₄, and KH₂PO₄ (soluble salts) for the
360 immobilization of cadmium, lead and zinc was studied [\[37\]](#); this strategy showed a high efficiency
361 in the immobilization of lead in contrast to cadmium that showed low efficiency and was highly
362 dependent of phosphate addition (larger amounts of phosphate are required to obtain cadmium
363 phosphate). According to Yuan and coworkers, it seemed that the mobility and availability of zinc
364 in the long-term contaminated soils that were subject of study remained unchanged. Similarly,
365 [Zhang et al. \[109\]](#) studied immobilization in the soil of lead, zinc and cadmium by the addition of
366 three phosphates (K₃PO₄, K₂HPO₄, and KH₂PO₄) and considering the variation of pH. These authors
367 found that the highest immobilization was achieved with K₃PO₄ under alkaline conditions, being
368 lead the metal showing the highest immobilization (immobilization of cadmium was less than lead

369 and zinc). Soils with an alkaline pH seem to facilitate the immobilization, as also observed by [Ming](#)
370 [et al. \[110\]](#), who performed sorption tests of cadmium and zinc on soil at different pH values.

371 Another approach to immobilize heavy metals is the use of soil amendments. Amendments
372 like manure, compost, biochar, clay minerals, phosphate compounds, among many others, are
373 added to soil to reduce heavy metals bioavailability in soils through mechanisms such as
374 precipitation, complexation, redox reactions, ion exchange, and electrostatic interaction [\[111\]](#). For
375 example, $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ was used for the immobilization of Pb y Cd [\[99\]](#). Similarly, the immobilization
376 of cadmium and lead in agricultural soils in Florida (USA) by means of dolomite phosphate rock,
377 humic acid activated dolomite phosphate rock and biochar was tested [\[112\]](#). Biochar is an interesting
378 material that can be obtained from bio-waste and carbon-rich solid residues. [Bian et al. \[98\]](#) used
379 biochar obtained from wheat straw as a soil amendment to immobilize cadmium in soils of rice
380 paddies. Biochar was also proposed for its application in soils of mining sites to reduce the
381 bioavailability of cadmium, lead and zinc [\[113\]](#). [Shahkolaie et al. \[92\]](#) compared different
382 amendments, biochar (obtained from rice straw), leca, pumice, bentonite and zeolite, for the
383 reduction of the availability of cadmium and the uptake by maize (*Zea mays L.*). In this case, it was
384 found that zeolite was the most effective amendment. It must be pointed out that biochar can reduce
385 available heavy metal in soil but, in some cases, have a limited effect on the prevention of the heavy
386 metal uptake by plants [\[91,114\]](#). There are other materials, of organic origin, that were also proposed
387 as amendments; [Mori et al. \[13\]](#) used a fermented bark as an organic amendment to control the
388 cadmium uptake in rice paddies.

389 The addition to the soil of some micronutrients could modify the cadmium uptake by plants.
390 It was observed that the cadmium uptake by plants can be limited by the addition of certain
391 micronutrientes. This is the case of zinc and copper; a study reported by [Murtaza et al. \[115\]](#)
392 indicates that the soil application of zinc and copper, individually or combined, favored the biomass
393 production of two legumes (chickpea and mungbean) and two cereals (wheat and maize). Moreover,
394 these authors also found that the addition of zinc and copper also lead to the decrease of the
395 concentration of cadmium in plant tissues.

396 Electrokinetic methods were considered to remediate heavy metals-polluted soils. It has been
397 considered for in situ remediations. These methods require the installation of electrodes and metallic
398 cations are mobilized through the soil due to an electric field generated by a direct current source
399 [\[82,84,116\]](#). In order to improve electrokinetic methods, they were combined with proper washing
400 solutions. For this purpose, many works were published; typical washing solutions contained a
401 variety of surfactants and chelating agents [\[88-91\]\[116\]](#). These methods reach ranges between 40 and
402 85% reduction of cadmium concentration and could also affect the concentration of micronutrients
403 since these cations can be removed at the same time of toxic heavy metals [\[81\]](#).

404 A technique to immobilize pollutants, and avoid their migration, is soil vitrification. It consists
405 of a thermal treatment that converts polluted soils into a stable and inert glassy product. Any toxic
406 heavy metal contained in the soil is immobilized into the structure of this material and cannot be
407 washed out. It is highly efficient in the destruction of organic compounds, thus reducing the volume
408 of the material, and can be used for waste treatment [\[117,118\]](#). The applicability of vitrification to
409 soils is limited, however, this technique can efficiently be used to treat fly ash and hazardous
410 substances resulting from municipal solid waste incinerators and similar processes [\[118,119\]](#).

411

412 **2.3. Bioremediation**

413 Bioremediation can be considered a group of techniques that use biological mechanisms inherent in
414 living organisms (plants, some animals, and microorganisms) to remove, degrade and/or
415 immobilize hazardous contaminants occurring in soil. Heavy metals cannot be degraded, therefore,
416 living organisms act immobilizing and accumulating these pollutants. These techniques are eco-
417 friendly but need long periods to ensure the adaptation of organisms being a major challenge due
418 to the variability of ecosystems [\[108\]](#). Bioremediation is classified in microbial remediation (bacteria,

419 fungi, algae), animal remediation (earthworms) and phytoremediation (plants); the last one has
420 captured more attention [5,120,121].
421 Bioremediation is used for both, solutions and soils. Several researchers have studied the use of
422 bacteria in the process of remediation of heavy metal contaminated soils, with reports of Cd
423 exchangeable phases reduction of 30.7% [96,122]. Other studies discuss the use of different
424 techniques for mobilizing or immobilize heavy metals [123].

425

426 2.3.1. Microbial remediation

427 There are other strategies for cadmium removal involving the combination of microbial action and
428 phytoremediation. Such strategies are described in subsection 2.3.2. This type of remediation uses
429 tolerant microorganisms with the capability of modifying the oxidation state of metals and/or
430 transform the metal to non-assimilable form Different processes are involved in this method of
431 remediation [122].

432 Commonly, the use of tolerant microorganism for the remediation of soils contaminated with
433 cadmium intend to immobilize the heavy metal in soil, thus making it less available for plants. This
434 was achieved with certain bacteria strains, as reported by Bravo et al. [62]. These authors, working
435 with Colombian soils destined to cocoa crops, found that Enterobacter sp. strain CdDB4 showed the
436 highest Cd immobilization capacity. Similarly, Peng et al. [96] Rhodobacter sphaeroides was used
437 to immobilize cadmium and zinc in soil and make them less accessible for uptake by plants. Aspects
438 referred to kinetics and mechanisms of bioremediation with Rhodobacter sphaeroides were
439 previously reported by Bai et al. [124]. These authors found that bioprecipitation as cadmium sulfide
440 was the predominant process promoted by Rhodobacter sphaeroides and biosorption played a
441 minor role.

442 There are other strategies for cadmium removal involving the combination of microbial action and
443 phytoremediation. Such strategies are described in subsection 2.3.2.

444 2.3.2. Phytoremediation

445 Phytoremediation is a technique used to remove cadmium and other heavy metals from soils
446 employing plants [5,125]. As its name suggests, phytoremediation uses plants as pollutant
447 accumulators. To grow and develop, plants absorb a variety of nutrients and other (toxic) species that
448 accumulate in leaves, stems, roots and/or fruits [126]. Phytoremediation is considered a low-cost and
449 eco-friendly technique because the disturbance of surface soil is minimum. However, this technique
450 may not apply to soils with severe contamination issues due to its low efficiency [103].
451 Phytoremediation includes phytostabilization, phytoextraction, phytofiltration or rhizofiltration
452 (heavy metals extraction by roots of plants), phytodegradation, and phytovolatilization [125].
453 Phytostabilization is a process consisting in re-vegetation of remediated areas with metal tolerant
454 plant species [125]. For the phytoextraction process, plants should tolerate and accumulate important
455 amounts of heavy metals, have rapid growth and produce high amounts of biomass, as observed for
456 garlic (*Allium sativum* L.) and its capability to absorb cadmium [127]. Phytofiltration (rhizofiltration)
457 consists of the heavy metal uptake from aqueous solutions using aquatic plants. For this method, the
458 perfect plant requires quick roots development and the ability to uptake heavy metals during
459 extended periods [125,128]. Phytodegradation is a method used for degradation of organic pollutants
460 such as solvents, petroleum, and aromatic compounds by the action of plants and their associated
461 microorganisms, but are not available for heavy metal contaminated soils [129–131].
462 Phytovolatilization consists of metals uptake by roots and passes through plants and leaves reaching
463 chemical conversion into less toxic and volatile compounds that are released to the atmosphere
464 during the plant transpiration process [132–134].

465 Some plant species are excellent cadmium hyperaccumulators and are used for water and soil
466 remediation [5]. Khan et al. [93] reported that at least 400 plant species are considered
467 hyperaccumulators of different heavy metals. Concerning cadmium hyperaccumulator, the
468 following plant species can be highlighted: *Arabidopsis Alleri* [135]. *Thlaspi caerulescens* [136],

469 *Cardaminopsis helleri* [137], *Thlaspi caerulescens* [138] and *Solanum nigrum* [93,139]. There are reports
470 on experiments using plants for the removal of cadmium of soils; the phytoextraction of cadmium of
471 three Chinese soils employing cabbage cultivars (Beijingxiaoza 56, Suancaiawang, Quansheng, Qiubo
472 60, Xianfengkuaicai, and Chunkang) was successfully achieved [95]. Also, the accumulation of
473 cadmium by two types of Japanese rice cultivars (Nipponbare and Milyang 23), two of soybean (Enrei
474 and Suzuyutaka), and one of maize (Gold Dent) were tested, being the Milyang 23 rice the best plant
475 for phytoextraction of cadmium from paddy soils, reaching an accumulation from 10 to 15% of total
476 Cd [94]. The use of spinach (*Spinacia oleracea* L.) was proposed for phytoremediation purposes since
477 this plant was able to uptake cadmium in greenhouse pot culture studies and no cadmium toxicity
478 signs were observable [140].

479 Phytoremediation can also be applied in combination with selected microorganisms. [Tiwari et al.](#) [141] reported a study in which a consortium of bacteria (*Bacillus endophyticus*, *Paenibacillus macerans*, and *Bacillus pumilus*) present in the rhizosphere allowed munja (*Saccharum munja*), a type of grass growing in arid zones, to improve the plant uptake of heavy metals from soil. The mutualistic association of soil fungi and plants can help the plant to increase the tolerance to heavy metals [142].
484 If a plant can tolerate heavy metals, it can also be a good candidate for phytoremediation. In this
485 sense, [Shadmani et al.](#) [97] reported that a fungal inoculation facilitated the absorption of cadmium
486 by barley and, interestingly, cadmium was accumulated in roots (a non-edible part). Similarly, [Khan et al.](#) [98] achieved an improvement in the phytoextraction of cadmium from the soil by inoculating
487 endophytic fungal isolates to black nightshaded (*Solanum nigrum*).
488

489 As mentioned in subsection 2.2, a chemical strategy to enhance the removal of metals by soil
490 washing is the use of chelating agents such as EDTA (ethylenedinitrilotetraacetic acid), DTPA
491 (diethylenetrinitrilopentaacetic acid), HEDTA (hydroxyethylenediaminetriacetic acid), CDTA (trans-
492 1,2-cyclohexylenedinitrilotetraacetic acid), EGTA (ethylenebis tetraacetic acid). This chelating agents
493 form complexes with metallic ions, that increase the concentration of metals in the aqueous solution
494 and facilitates the mobility to upper parts of the plants [122,125]. Therefore, if the plant produces high
495 amounts of biomass, as expected for heavy metal hyperaccumulators, more metal from soil can be
496 absorbed by the plant. Based on this argumentation, some researchers decided to combine soil
497 washing and phytoremediation [78,94]. Such a strategy could be interpreted (and classified) as
498 chemically enhanced bioremediation. An interesting example is the work of [Mekwichai et al.](#) [78] in
499 which cadmium was removed from soil by corn. These authors used two biosurfactants, rhamnolipid
500 and saponin to assist the phytoremediation. They found that plants accumulated more cadmium
501 when the biosurfactants were used.

502 Taking into account reports on the applicability of phytoremediation for the removal of
503 cadmium from soils, some features can be noticed. Many cadmium hyperaccumulators are known
504 and they can be used for the removal of cadmium from soils without adverse effects on the structure
505 and healthy composition of the soil. Perhaps even the periodic use of these plants could be part of a
506 strategy to maintain the productivity of soils, for example, by including them in crop rotation
507 programs. Crop rotation is a well-known practice worldwide that has demonstrated important
508 benefits in terms of reducing the use of pesticides and protecting soils [143]. Moreover, if diversity is
509 included in such crop rotation programs, an increase in agricultural resilience to adverse growing
510 conditions can be achieved in the long term [144]. However, independently of the phytoremediation
511 strategy used to remove cadmium, an obvious question emerges: Can the resulting vegetable material
512 used for any beneficial purpose? Reports on the application of plants for cadmium removal suggest
513 that the possibility of using such vegetable material cannot be ruled out. [Mekwichai et al.](#) [78] found
514 that cadmium can be removed from soils by corn and, as expected, cadmium occurs in corn kernels.
515 However, under certain conditions of phytoremediation (in this case, saponin-assisted
516 phytoextraction), concentrations of cadmium in corn kernels can be below the allowable limits for
517 animal feedstock and, therefore, the use of this product may be a candidate for animal feed.

519 Animal remediation uses animals such as earthworms (*Eisenia fetida*, *Perionix ceylanensis*, *Eudrilus*
520 *eugeniae*, *Lampito mauritii*, *Allolobophora rosea*, and *Nicodrilus caliginosus*, etc.) for the removal of many
521 toxic compounds in soils, among them, heavy metals, pesticides, polybrominated diphenyl ethers,
522 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, polychlorinated biphenyls and crude oil [145]. The process using
523 earthworms is called vermiremediation or vermicomposting, and is used to sanitize several industrial
524 wastes [146]. It is an alternative and high sustainable technology due to its simplicity and economy
525 [147]. Researchers made efforts to understand mechanisms and pathways promoted and taking place
526 in earthworms that allow neutralizing toxic metals in vermicomposts obtained of cotton textile sludge
527 [146], market wastes and rice straw [147], municipal solid wastes [148], palm oil mill effluents [149]
528 and tea coal ash [150].

529 Vermicomposting involves the action of microorganisms and earthworms to biodegrade solid
530 wastes; earthworms contribute to aeration, disaggregation of the material and providing conditions
531 for a high microbial activity [149]. Curry and Schmidt [151] discussed aspects concerning
532 earthworms, their food preferences, ingestion, assimilation and others. Earthworms can resist high
533 concentrations of soil pollutants and can absorb heavy metals through the skin and by ingestion; they
534 can process ingested materials with help of their diverse intestinal microflora [80,145,146,152]. This
535 tolerance to toxic heavy metals can be explained considering the occurrence of metal-chelating
536 substances (metallothioneins) in the organism of these animals [153]. Metallothioneins are the best-
537 known example of metal-binding proteins [40]; they are a family of low-molecular-weight, metal-
538 binding and cysteine-rich proteins (over 30%), and can be used as biomarkers of environmental
539 contamination. Since metallothioneins have a high affinity for non-essential metals, which can be
540 introduced into the earthworm body and no appreciable consequences in the normal functions of the
541 organisms can be observed. Therefore, earthworms are important in the remediation process of
542 contaminated soils [101,154]. Studies on metallothioneins response in earthworms living in soils with
543 high contents of cadmium suggest that *Eisenia fetida* is a species with a high affinity to cadmium [155];
544 the content of metallothioneins in this earthworm increases when the concentration of cadmium in
545 soil rises. Stürzenbaum et al. [156] studied with more detail metallothioneins occurring in *Lumbricus*
546 *rubellus* and identified an specific cadmium-responsive metallothionein.

547 Earthworms were a subject of study for many years due to many reasons and probably the most
548 important was the ecological role that these animals play in the soil. On this topic, the reviews
549 published by Curry and Schmidt [151], and Sun et al. [157] can be highlighted. Also, mechanisms
550 allowing the remediation of soils using earthworms were studied by many researchers [145]. Heavy
551 metal concentrations can be reduced due to vermicompost by the mediated biodegradation of organic
552 materials with the consequent increase in the level of the humic fraction that strongly immobilizes
553 metals (formation of stable complexes) [158], and the bioaccumulation of the heavy metals in the
554 earthworms through mechanisms involving metallothioneins [159]. The capability of earthworms to
555 remove toxic heavy metals from solid industrial residues was demonstrated in different reports; Paul
556 et al [146] demonstrated the use of *Eudrilus eugeniae* to treat a cotton textile sludge and removals
557 between 50 and 70% were observed for lead, cadmium, chromium and zinc. On their side, Goswami
558 et al. [150] studied the removal of heavy metals from a tea factory coal ash by vermicomposting using
559 *Eisenia fetida*. Concerning the remediation of soils, Wu et al. [100] tested the use of *Eisenia fetida* for the
560 removal of cadmium and reported a reduction of 17.6% in the concentration of the heavy metal in the
561 soil after 28 days of treatment.

562 In order to improve the removal of heavy metals by using earthworms, treatments involving
563 these animals were combined with other processes. In this sense, the removal of cadmium from soils
564 with *Eisenia fetida* was enhanced by the addition EDTA and bean Liu et al [101] studied the enhancing
565 of cadmium removal with *Eisenia fetida* earthworms adding EDTA and bean dregs reaching a
566 cadmium removal of 36.53%. Xiao et al. [80] reported the use of earthworms and biochar for cadmium
567 removal and the neutralization of available cadmium. They concluded that soils become more fertile
568 after vermiremediation.

569 In all cases when earthworms were used for remediation purposes, clues and evidence on the
570 improvement of soil fertility were obtained. Earthworms were not only able to remove and
571 immobilize cadmium (and other toxic heavy metals), but also promote healthy conditions of the soils.

572 **Section 3: Effects of cadmium removal strategies on soil micronutrient content**

573 Macronutrients and micronutrients are elements with physiological function in plant
574 metabolism [160]. Micronutrients are required by plants in lower amounts than macronutrients.
575 Macronutrients such as calcium (Ca), potassium (K), magnesium (Mg), nitrogen (N) and
576 phosphorous (P), and micronutrients such as sodium (Na), boron (B), cobalt (Co), copper (Cu), iron
577 (Fe), manganese (Mn), molybdenum (Mo), selenium (Se) and zinc (Zn) are commonly present in soil
578 destined to agricultural production. Nutrients are dissolved in water and then can be assimilated by
579 plants. In this way, and depending on the specific physiological characteristics of plants, a variety of
580 elements occur in fruits, greens, cereals and other edible agricultural products [63,161]. Some parts of
581 the plants can also preferentially concentrate certain elements; these are processes widely used for
582 nutritional purposes (utilization of selected parts of the plant for human and animal feed) [162]. The
583 content of some nutrients in parts like leaves could be an indicator of the health of the plant as well
584 as the content of the same nutrients in edible parts [163]. However, such correlations may be distorted
585 by multiple factors, mostly related to the environment and development characteristics of plants
586 [163]. In any case, special attention must be paid to micronutrients because these elements are usually
587 in low concentrations in soils and bad agricultural practices, as well as soil treatments, could affect
588 their availability.

589 Cocoa is produced in countries in the tropical zone (i.e., the region of Earth surrounding the
590 Equator), where warm weather and high humidity provide conditions for the growth and
591 development of cocoa trees [63,164]. Cocoa tree needs a high nutrient concentration in soils for
592 growing well [63]. Low soil fertility is considered a major cause of the reduction of cocoa crop yield.
593 Many cacao crop soils have become acidic and infertile due to long-term cultivation, nutrients
594 leaching and lack of adequate fertilization [165,166]. The optimum pH range for cocoa growing is
595 between 6.0 and 7.5 and some elements can exert a negative effect; in acid soils, aluminum is a highly
596 limiting factor for plant development, thus considering cocoa an Al-sensitive crop [63,167]. Moreover,
597 a high concentration of aluminum reduces the uptake of phosphorus, iron and zinc [166].

598 Among micronutrients, zinc is an important trace element for plants and animals. In crop soils,
599 zinc deficiency is an important problem affecting the productivity of soils [168]. For example, in
600 wheat, zinc deficiency causes shoot growth problems and a low final dry weight, i.e., low production
601 [169]. On the other hand, the presence of zinc in the soil can modulate cadmium accumulation in
602 plants since these two elements occur together in the environment and have similar chemical
603 properties [12,110,168,170]. There are several interactions between metals present in the soil, and also
604 with plants and microbiota. Therefore, soil treatments for the removal of one or more toxic heavy
605 metals can affect the content of other metals acting as micronutrients. The deficiency of
606 micronutrients can cause growth problems and decrease crop yields. For the case of cadmium
607 removal, zinc is a micronutrient that can be removed from soil together with cadmium due to their
608 chemical similarities [160].

609 Although there are many reports on soil remediation for the removal of cadmium, only a few
610 studies critically addressed the implications of treatments on the concentration of soil nutrients or the
611 fertility of soils. Techniques that use biological mechanisms for the removal of toxic heavy metals like
612 cadmium, likely will not produce disturbances in the nutrient composition of soils [122]. Techniques
613 based on microorganisms, certain plants and animals (earthworms) can gradually remove toxic heavy
614 metals from the soil, however, these processes are slow enough to avoid any imbalance in soils. These
615 techniques are considered environmentally friendly and can even be beneficial in ensuring the
616 conservation of healthy soil. Some techniques of chemical remediation can be more aggressive to soils
617 and affect their characteristics since they imply the addition to soil of some chemical compounds. For
618 soil washing, the washing solution includes some chemical compounds to facilitate the transfer of

619 toxic heavy metals from the soil to the aqueous solution. However, not only the target metals can be
620 dissolved but also other soil components contributing to soil fertility. Therefore, the efficiency of
621 cadmium (and other toxic heavy metals) removal was determined for different washing soil strategies
622 and also aspects referred to affectation of the soil structure, biological activity and fertility were
623 evaluated [171–175].

624 The use of chelating agents for the removal of heavy metals affects the soil enzyme activity and
625 the germinability of seeds. Evidently, biodegradable and non-biodegradable chelating agents have
626 different effects. Wang et al. [171] tested four biodegradable chelating agents for the removal of
627 cadmium from soil and compared them with the well-known non-biodegradable chelating agent
628 EDTA. Two of the biodegradable chelating agents, iminodisuccinic acid (ISA) and glutamate-N,N-
629 diacetic acid (GLDA), showed similar reductions of the labile fraction of cadmium, lead and zinc
630 compared to EDTA, however, both the enzyme activities and microbial biomass were improved in
631 soils washed with the biodegradable chelating agents. Also, germination of seeds was higher in soils
632 washed with the biodegradable agents, an aspect that was interpreted by the author as a decrease of
633 phytotoxicity of treated soils compared with the treatment with EDTA. These results suggest that
634 both biodegradable and non-biodegradable chelating agents can remove the target and non-target
635 metals, however, aspects referred to the health and conservation of nutritional values of soils are
636 better when the soil is washed with biodegradable chelating agents. Tests on the remediation of soils
637 with EDTA were conducted by Jelusic et al. [175] and they observed that soil washing resulted in
638 soils with less bioavailable micronutrients (plant biomass was reduced). These authors also observed
639 manganese deficiency and that phytoaccessibility of micronutrients copper, iron and manganese in
640 soil was notoriously affected. Other authors also observed adverse effects of EDTA treatments;
641 Zupanc et al. [174] observed that yield of white clover on remediated soil was reduced compared to
642 the untreated soil and the structure of soil was also modified resulting in changes in water retention,
643 aggregate fractionation and stability. Some additives must be applied to the remediated soil to
644 recover soil properties and then the yield, as these authors concluded. Other authors found that a
645 mixture of chelating agents can reduce negative effects on soils, as reported by Guo et al. [172].
646 Another approach that was explored is the use of certain waste derivatives from industrial processes
647 as washing solutions. Liu and Chen [173] proposed the use of dissolved organic matter solution
648 originating from wine-processing waste sludge as washing solution for the removal of cadmium from
649 soils and their results showed that 80% of cadmium can be removed with a moderate loss of fertility.

650 Also, there is a risk of losing nutrients when soil washing is combined with other techniques.
651 Xiao et al. [103] applied a soil washing strategy combined with phytoremediation for the removal of
652 cadmium and zinc and observed a decrease in soil nutrient contents; calcium was especially affected
653 and the inhibition of plant (ryegrass) germination and growth was observed.

654 Other techniques of chemical remediation were also tested in terms of the affectation of the soil
655 properties. Giannis et al. [81] found that leaching of macronutrients was minimum when salts of weak
656 organic acids were used for enhancing electrokinetic remediation with soil washing. Other authors
657 reported that the application of electrokinetic methods could even increase the bioavailability of soil
658 nutrients [176].

659 The scarce information available on the effects of soil remediation on the nutrient content in the
660 soil and fertility is usually limited to macronutrients and the response of plants to the treated soil.
661 Future efforts in the field should be focused on the determination of changes in the concentration of
662 micronutrients like zinc, manganese and others.

663

664 **Section 4: Discussion**

665 Cadmium is one of the most toxic heavy metals, therefore, its occurrence in foodstuff is subject
666 to strict controls. Plants can bioaccumulate cadmium and transfer it to edible parts. This allows
667 cadmium to make its way into the food chain and reach humans. The human exposition to cadmium
668 leads to serious health conditions, and special concerns are related to the more susceptible age groups,
669 among them, children. Some foodstuffs are consumed with preference by children, such as the case

670 of chocolate. The most important raw material in the production of chocolate is the fermented cocoa
671 beans, harvested from cocoa trees (*Theobroma cacao*), which is an important accumulator of
672 cadmium. Moreover, cocoa beans accumulate cadmium in concentrations that can easily exceed
673 allowable limits for human consumption. There are risks to human health as well as economic threats
674 for producing countries, most of them with poor populations that live from agriculture.

675 Concerns on cadmium in cocoa beans have motivated research focused on different aspects of
676 cocoa production, one of them is soil. If concentrations of cadmium in soils are high, even if this heavy
677 metal does not have an anthropogenic origin, agricultural products will contain cadmium in
678 concentrations that could easily exceed allowable limits. Therefore, important efforts have been made
679 in the remediation of soils containing cadmium (and other heavy metals).

680 There are different types of remediation techniques applicable to soils containing cadmium in
681 concentrations that can affect its use for agricultural purposes. Based on the descriptions previously
682 presented, physical remediation cannot be considered as a feasible type of remediation to remove
683 cadmium from soils dedicated to agriculture. The movement of enormous amounts of soil both
684 during removal and substitution required for fields occupying, perhaps, tens of thousands of
685 hectares, makes unrealistic the application of physical remediation of soils for agriculture. These
686 strategies aim to contain polluted soil and prevent further pollution. Currently, there are cases of
687 highly polluted soils as a result of many decades of mining activities. These soils cannot be used for
688 agriculture; the implementation of processes for the removal of the pollutants may be too expensive.
689 However, the nature of pollution and the influence of environmental factors could mobilize
690 hazardous pollutants to unpolluted zones, thus affecting especially water and productive soils. In
691 such cases are feasible the soil substitution, surface capping, landfilling and encapsulation.
692 Employing these techniques is not possible for the recovery of soils for agricultural purposes.

693 Chemical remediation is a type of remediation that can be applied for the recovery of
694 contaminated soils for agricultural uses. The treatments by most of these techniques, which include
695 soil washing, electrokinetic methods and immobilization, do not necessarily imply the movement of
696 materials to other locations and this is itself an important advantage. There are reported Cd removal
697 efficiencies for chemical techniques such as soil washing (reaches up to 90%), immobilization
698 (between 28.38 and 30.81%), electrokinetic methods (between 40 and 85%) [33,37,81]. Electrokinetic
699 methods are expensive since the energy requirements are considerable, thus limiting their
700 applicability for soils destined for agriculture. Washing the soils does not require only water, but also
701 certain chemicals, usually chelating agents and surfactants that can negatively affect living organisms
702 in the soil. A detail that may be underestimated when soil is washed to extract cadmium (and,
703 perhaps, other heavy metals) is the biodegradability of the chelating agents and surfactants since a
704 certain amount of these chemicals remains in the soil. The recalcitrant nature of these compounds is
705 not necessarily the only inconvenience, but also the associate toxicity for microorganisms and
706 animals, like earthworms, can affect the productivity of the treated soils. It must be considered that a
707 "healthy" soil contains a very rich microbial flora and a variety of microscopic and macroscopic
708 invertebrates, which also harbor a complex microbial community [166,167]. There is still limited data
709 on the effects on soil biota of emerging pollutants (for example), however, some authors suggested
710 that these compounds can represent a risk to the soil compartment [168]. If there is a risk due to
711 emerging pollutants, i.e., compounds that can be found in concentrations in order of milligrams or
712 nanograms per kilogram of soil, it would not be difficult to imagine the implications to soil biota of
713 recalcitrant, toxic and even xenobiotic substances introduced to this compartment for heavy metal
714 removal purposes. The loss of microbial and animal diversity in the soil would easily rebound on the
715 fertility of the soil and, therefore, the productivity of crops. The degradation of productive soils,
716 which currently is already a serious issue, can be accelerated with further consequences including
717 even threats to food security. On the other hand, if the chelating agents and surfactants used in soil
718 remediation are biodegradable, depending on their concentration in soil, naturally occurring bacteria
719 and other organisms could eliminate them in a relatively short frame of time. Therefore, a minor

720 impact on soil biota can be expected and, in this sense, natural self-purification processes could
721 eliminate any substance introduced during the treatment.

722 It is also concerning the effects of solutions containing chelating agents, surfactants and other
723 substances used to wash soil on the concentration of micronutrients. These substances could interact,
724 in a non-selective way, with other metals essential for growth and development for plants (i.e.,
725 micronutrients). In such cases, soil washing leads to a negative affectation on soil quality and crops
726 are negatively affected, as observed by Im et al. [177]. Electrokinetic methods and the use of
727 amendments can have the same drawback of removing micronutrients and affecting the productivity
728 of the treated soil. Although many reports on chemical remediation methods focused on the removal
729 of cadmium and other toxic heavy metals, the unintended removal of mineral micronutrients (e.g.,
730 calcium, zinc, etc.) was not properly addressed. In this sense, bioremediation methods could
731 overcome such drawbacks at the same time that any chemical compound, biodegradable or not, is
732 added.

733 Bioremediation, which includes techniques of microbial remediation, phytoremediation and
734 animal remediation, could be less “aggressive” to the soil. The fact that bioremediation techniques
735 use living organisms for both immobilization and removal of cadmium (and other heavy metals) from
736 soils is an important advantage that should not be underestimated. Bacteria can modify the chemical
737 form of cadmium into an insoluble form, thus making it less available for plants and limiting its
738 leaching potential. Certain fungi could promote the accumulation of cadmium in non-edible parts of
739 the plant, like roots, and facilitate the progressive removal of the heavy metal from soil. Also,
740 cadmium hyperaccumulator plants can resist relatively high concentrations of cadmium in soil and
741 concentrate this heavy metal in their tissue. There are studies that report Cd remotion efficiencies for
742 different techniques like phytoremediation (reaching a Cd accumulation of 15% of total Cd), animal
743 remediation (reaching a Cd removal of 36.53%) [94,101]. All these biological strategies based on
744 microorganisms, plants and even their combination, have no adverse effect on soil structure and
745 mineral nutrients. In fact, the use of other plants different from commercial crops in agricultural soils
746 could be useful as a strategy to protect productive soils and prevent their degradation. Crop rotation
747 is a recommended agricultural practice consisting of intercalating with different plants the use of the
748 soil. Plants used in crop rotation programs have different nutritional requirements and allow the soil
749 to recovery certain nutrients. However, when it comes to remediation of soils containing cadmium,
750 selected plants (cadmium hyperaccumulators) could be included in the program to achieve the
751 progressive removal of the toxic heavy metal from soil. Potential benefits of such strategy should be
752 studied in future works, however, benefits as the increase of diversity in crop soils can be anticipated.
753 The combined use of surfactants and/or chelating agents and phytoremediation should be carefully
754 evaluated since combinations of this type could induce the removal from soil not only of the target
755 toxic heavy metal but also metals acting as micronutrients. In this sense, is highly recommended a
756 study that compares the removal of micronutrients from the soil due to the application of washing
757 soil and phytoremediation together, and phytoremediation alone. It is not only important the removal
758 of toxic heavy metals like cadmium, but also the conservation of healthy soil conditions.

759 The remediation of soils of cocoa crops can be more challenging compared to soils of other crops.
760 The cocoa tree is an evergreen tree (i.e., it remains green and functional through more than one
761 growing season) that requires about five years to produce its first fruit or cacao pod. Most of the
762 existent cocoa trees in producing countries are several decades old, therefore, trees cannot be
763 removed to perform the remediation of the soil. This is a different scenario compared to maize or
764 another annual crop in which the soil could be treated after the crop is harvested. Any remediation
765 strategy to remove cadmium from soils of cocoa crops must be applied to maintain the trees on the
766 field. Clearly, techniques of chemical remediation are very limited, in this case not only due to the
767 impact that they could produce on the soil structure and micronutrient content but also due to the
768 possibility of manipulating the soil (it cannot be removed from the place). The use of amendments
769 could still be a possibility if the roots of the trees are not affected. Techniques of bioremediation seem
770 to be the best option for cadmium removal from soils of cocoa crops; perhaps some plants can be

771 grown between cocoa trees and maybe certain microorganisms could also be applied. These
772 techniques and their variations should be the subject of study in the future to gradually lower the
773 content of cadmium in cocoa beans from currently producing areas.
774

775 **Section 5: Conclusion**

776 Cocoa beans can accumulate cadmium in concentrations beyond limits established by
777 regulators. The origin of such contamination was attributed to soils of cocoa crops, which contain
778 variable concentrations of cadmium. Cadmium is a ubiquitous pollutant and the remediation of soils
779 containing this toxic heavy metal was studied not only to ensure the safety of cocoa beans (and
780 chocolate) but also other agricultural products.

781 Techniques of physical remediation for the removal of cadmium from soils do not apply to crop
782 soils and their applicability is restricted to scenarios with soils containing high concentrations of
783 heavy metals, which are usually related to pollution attributable to mining activities. Techniques of
784 chemical remediation for the removal of cadmium from soil have characteristics that make feasible
785 their application in crop soils. Soil washing has low selectivity; solutions of surfactants and chelating
786 agents typically used in soil washing can remove toxic heavy metals as well as micronutrients, thus
787 affecting the productivity of soils. Moreover, the addition of foreign substances into soils, especially
788 if they have limited biodegradability, can affect microbial communities and animals present in
789 healthy soil. Electrokinetic methods could also affect the content of micronutrients in the soil. Similar
790 to the other techniques, the use of amendments to immobilize cadmium must be evaluated in terms
791 of the effect they have on the availability of micronutrients.

792 Phytoremediation seems to be the best technique for the removal of cadmium from crop soils.
793 This technique could easily be incorporated to crop rotation programs to gradually remove cadmium
794 and other toxic heavy metals from soil. It can also be combined with the use of certain specialized
795 microorganisms (bacteria or fungi) to facilitate de removal of heavy metals.

796 In the context of cocoa crops, due to the characteristics of the cocoa tree (an evergreen tree),
797 remediation strategies for the removal of cadmium from soils must take into account that trees cannot
798 be removed. Therefore, feasible techniques can be the use of amendments of soil and
799 phytoremediation. Implications of these techniques on both the productivity of the crops and the
800 content of cadmium in cocoa over the time should be quantified in future studies in this field. It is
801 remarkable to know that biological methods have the best results but changing the soil properties,
802 biological are the best in terms of keeping soil conditions but they are time-consuming; heavy metals
803 removal from agricultural soils is important but, depending on the technique used, there are future
804 implications like soil fertility decreasing. In future works, researchers could study soils
805 micronutrients status after remediation techniques because of most of them will be used to new
806 cultivars and purpose forms to mitigate problems in the future to enhance productivity and crop
807 yields.
808

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811

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