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1 **Biochar composition-dependent impacts on soil nutrient release, carbon**
2 **mineralization, and potential environmental risk: A review**

3
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30

31 **HIGHLIGHTS**

- 32 • Nutrient contents in biochar highly dependent on the feedstock type.
- 33 • Pyrolysis temperature alters the proportion of aromatic and aliphatic C fractions.
- 34 • Chemical and physical properties of biochar affect the nutrient release from biochar.
- 35 • Application of unsuitable biochar can negatively affect environmental quality and
- 36 human health.
- 37 • Biochar can be a potential source of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and
- 38 polychlorinated dibenzodioxins.

39

40

41 **ABSTRACT**

42 Biochar application has multiple benefits for soil fertility improvement and climate change
43 mitigation. Biochar can act as a source of nutrients and sequester carbon (C) in the soil. The
44 nutrient release capacity of biochar once applied to the soil varies with the composition of the
45 biochar, which is a function of the feedstock type and pyrolysis condition used for biochar
46 production. Biochar has a crucial influence on soil C mineralization, including its positive or
47 negative priming of microorganisms involved in soil C cycling. However, in various cases,
48 biochar application to the soil may cause negative effects in the soil and the wider
49 environment. For instance, biochar may suppress soil nutrient availability and crop
50 productivity due to the reduction in plant nutrient uptake or reduction in soil C mineralization.
51 Biochar application may also negatively affect environmental quality and human health
52 because of harmful compounds such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs),
53 polychlorinated dibenzodioxins, and dibenzofurans (PCDD/DF). In this review, we discuss
54 the linkage between biochar composition and function, evaluate the role biochar plays in soil
55 fertility improvement and C sequestration, and discuss regulations and concerns regarding
56 biochar's negative environmental impact. We also summarize advancements in biochar
57 production technologies and discuss future challenges and priorities in biochar research.

58

59 **Keywords:** Black carbon; Carbon storage; Policy development; Priming effect; Soil nutrients
60 availability

61

62

63 **1. Background**

64 The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) emphasize soil fertility
65 improvement and C sequestration as one of the SDGs, and propose reasonable targets for
66 nations to achieve by 2030. The SDGs highlight the necessity of soil security by improving its
67 fertility to supply plants with sufficient and balanced nutrients. Maintaining good soil
68 physical, chemical, and biological properties is essential to ensuring soil security, sustaining
69 high crop yield, and improving rural economy (Adhikari and Hartemink, 2016). Recently, an
70 increasing emphasis has been given to the restoration and rehabilitation of low-fertility and
71 degraded soils to achieve the potential maximum production rate to meet the growing demand
72 for food by the burgeoning world population (Lal, 2015; Beiyuan et al., 2016; León et al.,
73 2017).

74 Soil C storage is an important indicator of soil fertility and health, as it plays a vital role in
75 different biogeochemical processes in the soil (Doetterl et al., 2016). Considerable attention
76 has been given to tackle soil C loss in the form of CO₂. In the last two decades, anthropogenic
77 CO₂ emissions have increased by more than 3% annually, thereby threatening various
78 ecosystems on the earth (Woolf et al., 2010). The rising atmospheric CO₂ concentration is
79 triggering an alarming increase in global temperature and causing extreme weather events,
80 such as droughts and floods, leading to desertification, declining glacial area, and
81 unprecedented sea-level rise (Hansen et al., 2017). Applicable strategies of climate change
82 mitigation, including the rapid phasing out of fossil fuel use, enhancement in soil C sinks and
83 deployment of feasible CO₂ removal approaches, are urgently needed to overcome this threat
84 to mankind (Von Stechow et al., 2015; Fellmann et al., 2018). Carbon sequestration in soils is
85 a viable approach to compensate for the increased CO₂ efflux from soils (Lal et al., 2015;
86 Awad et al., 2017; Minasny et al., 2017).

87 Different management strategies have been applied to improve soil fertility and mitigate
88 climate change. Conventional organic soil amendments, including animal manure, sewage
89 sludge, mulches and composts, have been used for such purposes (Lal, 2004; Stefaniuk et al.,
90 2018). However, most of these management approaches make limited or no contribution to C
91 storage in soils due to the fast decomposition of organic carbon (OC), thereby resulting in CO₂
92 emissions and loss of their efficacy in maintaining the C balance in the soil (Lehman, 2007;
93 Schmidt et al., 2011; Paustian et al., 2016; Agegnehu et al., 2017). Moreover, manure, sewage
94 sludge, and composts may contain pathogens, potentially toxic metals, and harmful
95 pharmaceutical compounds (Verlicchi and Zambello, 2015). These components may cause
96 soil contamination in the long-term. Soil application of composts and manures may also
97 contribute to excessive nitrate concentration in soils and increased emissions of nitrous oxide,
98 ammonia, and methane, which could pollute the groundwater and surface water and contribute
99 to global warming (Ding et al., 2016; Van Groenigen et al., 2017).

100 Since the green revolution, inorganic fertilizers have been widely applied to soils to
101 increase soil productivity (Vanlauwe et al., 2010). However, intensive agricultural practices
102 with sole reliance on inorganic fertilizers are usually costly and detrimental to soil quality and
103 ecosystem health (Karer et al., 2015; Ding et al., 2016; Srinivasarao et al., 2014; Carlson et al.,
104 2015). Consequently, it is imperative to employ eco-friendly and pragmatic alternate
105 approaches to improve soil fertility (Inyang et al., 2015; Ok et al., 2015). In the last two
106 decades, biochar has received growing interests for its application to soil due to its multiple
107 benefits for soil quality improvement, waste management, energy production, and climate
108 change mitigation (Usman et al., 2016; Awad et al., 2018; El-Naggar et al., 2018a,b). Biochar
109 is a carbonaceous material produced by pyrolysis of biomass waste (Lehmann and Joseph,
110 2009). It is a promising and cost-effective strategy to improve soil fertility and simultaneously

111 sequester C in soils (Ahmad et al., 2016; Igalavithana et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2016; Hussain
112 et al., 2017).

113 Recent studies on the impact of biochar on soil quality, however, have reported
114 contrasting results showing positive, negative, or neutral effects (Beiyuan et al., 2017;
115 Igalavithana et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019). For instance, biochars derived from different
116 feedstocks (wood, rice straw, and grass residues) display different potentials to improve the
117 fertility of two soils (sandy and sandy loam) in an incubation experiment (El-Naggar et al.,
118 2018c), where the application of rice straw biochar significantly increased the contents of N,
119 available P, and exchangeable cations, and enhanced the CO₂ efflux as compared to wood and
120 grass biochars in the sandy soil. In a greenhouse experiment with biochars produced from five
121 different feedstocks, the results were strongly dependent on the biochar type (Albuquerque et
122 al., 2014). For example, wheat straw and olive tree pruning-derived biochars increased the soil
123 dissolved OC, while olive stone, almond shell, and pine wood chip-derived biochars had
124 minimal effect on soil dissolved OC. The authors also reported that soils treated with wheat
125 straw and pine wood chip biochars exhibited greater field capacity than soils treated with other
126 types of biochars. The contradictory results of these studies can be partly attributed to factors
127 such as the soil type and experimental setup. However, one of the most important reasons for
128 the contrasting performance of the biochars is the different composition of each biochar type.
129 Each biochar produced from a specific feedstock using a specific production method (e.g.,
130 pyrolysis, gasification, and hydrothermal carbonization) using a specific temperature and
131 with/without an activation or modification process will yield a unique biochar material
132 (Igalavithana et al., 2017a; Yoo et al., 2018; You et al., 2017, 2018; El-Naggar et al., 2019).
133 Taking this fact into account, it would be problematic to generalize the role of biochar in
134 different applications without defining the production conditions and biochar composition.

135 Some review papers have documented variations in biochar properties and functions in
136 soil based on feedstock type and production condition (e.g., Khura et al., 2015; Xie et al.,
137 2015; Ding et al., 2016; Agegnehu et al., 2017; Igalavithana et al., 2017a). However, to our
138 knowledge, none of the current literature has highlighted their important effects on soil quality
139 as the main focus. Therefore, in the current review, we aim to elucidate the biochar
140 composition-dependent impact in three main areas: nutrient content and release, C
141 sequestration and dynamics, and the potential negative impact on the environment.

142

143 **2. Biochar application to improve soil fertility**

144 The application of biochar can enhance soil water availability (Ma et al., 2016), water
145 holding capacity (Mohamed et al., 2016), soil aeration (Cayuela et al., 2013), soil organic
146 carbon (SOC) content (El-Naggar et al., 2018b), soil microbial biomass and activity
147 (Igalavithana et al., 2017b), enzymatic activity (Awad et al., 2018), and nutrient retention and
148 availability (El-Naggar et al., 2015, 2018a,b), which result in less fertilizer needs and reduce
149 nutrient leaching (Lehmann et al., 2003). A summary of the impact of biochar application on
150 soil properties is presented in Table 1. Although many studies showed the efficacy of biochar
151 as a soil amendment (Table 1), some studies reported decreasing crop productivity after
152 biochar application (Schmidt et al., 2015), which could be related to reduction in plant nutrient
153 uptake or reduction in soil C mineralization (Ippolito et al., 2012). These contradictory results
154 on crop yield in biochar-amended soils were likely due to the variability in biochar and soil
155 properties. For example, biochar produced at high pyrolytic temperatures (≥ 600 °C) may
156 adsorb plant nutrients, thereby restricting plant uptake. In addition, the negative priming effect
157 (PE) induced by nutrient adsorption by biochar may also cause a reduction in nutrient
158 availability for plant uptake in soils containing low OC (Kuppusamy et al., 2016). Therefore,

159 these two key factors (nutrient content of biochar and induced PE) need to be further studied
160 when investigating the impact of biochar on soil fertility.

161

162 **3. Biochar as a source of available nutrients**

163 *3.1. Effects of feedstock type and pyrolysis methodology on nutrient content in biochar*

164 Biochar could be a valuable source of nutrients for plants if the pyrolysis process is
165 managed to preserve the nutrients. The total nutrient content of biochar is not only a function
166 of feedstock composition, but also a function of many different factors, including pyrolysis
167 temperature, duration, and gaseous environment (e.g., CO₂, N₂). The influence of feedstock
168 type and pyrolysis temperature on biochar properties has been documented from a large
169 number of biochar studies (Figure 1). The nutrient contents in biochar are highly dependent
170 on the feedstock type. For instance, the N and P contents are usually higher in biochars
171 produced from manure, followed by those produced from grass and wood, while C content is
172 usually higher in biochars produced from wood than those produced from grasses, followed by
173 manure (Figure 1). Several types of feedstock have been used for biochar production. In
174 general, organic wastes with rich nutrient contents produce biochars with a higher nutrient
175 content (Table 1). Figueredo et al. (2017) found that biochar produced from sewage sludge at
176 350 °C had a higher N content (3.17%) compared to that produced from sugarcane and
177 eucalyptus wastes (1.4 and 0.4%, respectively). In another study, pyrolysis of swine wastes
178 increased N and P concentrations from 1.8 and 1.6% in the raw swine solids to 2.1 and 3.8% in
179 the biochar produced at 420 °C, respectively, while the biochar produced from wood chips
180 under the same conditions contained less N and P (1 and 1.3%, respectively) (Marchetti and
181 Castelli, 2013).

182 The increase in nutrient concentrations in the biochar as compared to that in the raw
183 feedstock is mainly due to the weight loss during pyrolysis. Thus, nutrients become enriched

184 in the biochar as compared with the feedstock, even though a significant portion of the
185 biomass is lost during biochar production. For instance, in the previous study (Marchetti and
186 Castelli, 2013), the total N content decreased by 58% in the swine waste biochar and by 53%
187 in the wood chip biochar, while the total P content decreased by 17% and 27% in the swine
188 waste and wood chip biochars, respectively. Nitrogen loss during pyrolysis was attributed to
189 the volatilization of NH_4^+ . Similarly, Hass et al. (2012) observed that chicken manure-derived
190 biochar at 350 °C recovered 57% of the original dry mass as compared to 38% at 700 °C. In the
191 same study, a large portion of the C and N was lost during pyrolysis. The preferential
192 volatilization of N over C resulted in an increase in the C/N ratio of the biochar with increasing
193 temperature. The total N, P, and K contents of biochar produced from chicken manure at 350
194 °C was 38, 27, and 56 g kg⁻¹, respectively (Hass et al., 2012). Increased pyrolysis temperature
195 and activation could decrease the macro- and micronutrient contents and their availability to
196 plants following soil application of biochar. Sahin et al. (2017) indicated that acid activation of
197 biochar reduced its N and micronutrient contents. Borchard et al. (2012) found that the
198 physical activation of biochar decreased the contents of available NO_3^- -N and P by about 55
199 and 90% (w/w), respectively. The loss of available N was attributed to the release of volatile
200 N-containing compounds during the activation process and to the net transfer of labile N into
201 heterocyclic N forms (Borchard et al., 2012).

202

203 *3.2. Relationship between biochar chemical composition and nutrient release*

204 The total nutrient content in biochar does not necessarily reflect the release of all nutrients
205 from biochar when it is applied to the soil. Nutrients, especially N, in biochar tend to be less
206 available compared to those in the original feedstock. For instance, El-Naggar et al. (2015)
207 found that only 4.5% of the N content of the added wood biochar was turned into soil-available
208 N compared to 15.6% for the N in the original feedstock. The high C/N ratio of biochar, and N

209 enmeshment in the stable biochar material would result in N immobilization. This might be the
210 reason for the insignificant contribution of biochar to the N budget of crops (Asai et al., 2009;
211 Hangs et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2017). In a short-term experiment, Nelson et al. (2011)
212 suggested the need for N fertilization in addition to biochar application in order to improve the
213 N status in biochar-amended soils.

214 In a batch extraction and column leaching experiment, Mukherjee and Zimmerman (2013)
215 determined nutrient release from a variety of new and aged biochars to solution (Figure 2).
216 Different biochar samples, except for N-rich biochars, exhibited minor N release after
217 successive batch extractions. The nutrient release from biochar to solution varied with
218 feedstock type. Ammonium is the major form of N released from biochar, followed by organic
219 N, while nitrate ranged between 2% and 30% in the leachates, while organic N was up to 59%.
220 The release of dissolved OC, N, and P into the soil solution was significantly correlated with
221 biochar volatile matter contents and acid functional group density (Mukherjee and
222 Zimmerman, 2013).

223 The release of nutrients from biochar to soil solution differs from one element to another
224 depending on the sorption affinity of the individual element with the biochar and/or the soil.
225 Angst and Sohi (2013) conducted a sequential leaching experiment with deionized water to
226 study nutrient release from hardwood biochars. They found that P release decreased gradually,
227 where the sixth extraction yielded 44–73% P in comparison with the first extraction. Similarly,
228 K release was higher at the beginning and declined rapidly, where the sixth extraction yielded
229 only 6 to 18% K as compared with the first extraction. In comparison to rapid K release, the
230 gradual release of P from biochar suggested a sustainable gradual supply throughout the
231 crop-growing season. Therefore, the differences in the release patterns of individual nutrient
232 elements and the type of crops concerned should be considered when managing crop nutrient
233 supply with the application of biochar.

234

235 *3.3. Relationship between physical properties of biochar and nutrient release*

236 The physical properties of biochar are a function of production conditions (Kim et al.,
237 2012). For instance, the surface area of mulberry wood biochar increased from 16.5 to 58.0 m²
238 g⁻¹ when the pyrolysis temperature increased from 350 to 550 °C, respectively (Zama et al.,
239 2017). The feedstock type also plays an important role in determining the physical properties
240 of biochar. For instance, the surface area of oak bark-derived biochar was greater than that of
241 oak wood-derived biochar (8.8 m² g⁻¹ and 6.1 m² g⁻¹, respectively) (Mohan et al., 2014). The
242 biochar produced from hardwood jarrah had greater microporosity than the softwood pine
243 biochar (Shaheen et al., 2018). The disparities in the biochar physical properties from different
244 feedstocks might be due to the varied contents of lignin, hemicellulose, and cellulose. This
245 variation in biochar physical properties affects the functions of biochar in soils, including the
246 retention/release of soil nutrients.

247 In an incubation experiment, biochars produced from vegetable waste and pinecone
248 residues at different pyrolysis temperatures (i.e., 200 and 500 °C) were applied to
249 contaminated soils at 5% (w/w) rate (Igalavithana et al., 2017b). The two biochars produced at
250 200 °C increased the size of the microbial communities, while the biochars produced at 500 °C
251 suppressed the microbial communities in the soils. This was mainly attributed to the fact that
252 the biochars produced with a lower pyrolysis temperature (200 °C) had higher volatile matter
253 contents and lower resident material (lower structural stable C) than those produced with a
254 higher pyrolysis temperature (500 °C); thus, the biochars pyrolyzed at 200 °C supplied the
255 microbes with labile components through the readily released nutrients.

256 Weathering of biochar surfaces and pore edges in soil might also enrich the biochar
257 surfaces with more oxidized functional groups and facilitate biochar-soil mineral interactions
258 (El-Naggar et al., 2018b). In a field experiment, the particulate organic matter fraction of

259 biochar had physical interactions with soil minerals in the coarse sand fraction, while the
260 biochar formed organo-mineral complexes with soil minerals in the clay/silt fraction, because
261 the clay/silt fraction of soil had higher exchangeable cations (e.g., Ca, Mg, Na and K) than the
262 coarse sand fraction (El-Naggar et al., 2018b). Taherymoosavi et al. (2018) observed physical
263 interactions on the surfaces of biochar produced at 450 °C between C and elements (Na, Ca,
264 Mg, K, and Al) originated from mineral phyllosilicates. They also reported that the addition of
265 basalt with wheat straw biochar produced at 550 °C led to the formation of organo-mineral
266 complexes with the basalt minerals (e.g., Si, Al, K, and O) on the biochar surfaces (Figure 3),
267 which protected the biochar surface from oxidation (as revealed by X-ray photoelectron
268 spectroscopy results) more than that of wheat straw biochar having no such complexes on its
269 surface. In the same study, wheat straw biochar with basalt produced at 650 °C was also
270 examined. The scanning electron micrograph images and EDS mapping revealed that the
271 biochar macropores were filled with minerals of basalt (e.g., Si, Al, K, and O) (Figures 4 and
272 5), thereby confirming the existence of physicochemical interactions within the porous
273 structure of biochar. The organo-mineral complexes, coating, and pore interactions of biochar
274 with minerals of soil or other amendments strongly affect the dynamics of releasing/retaining
275 nutrients in soils. However, this area needs more investigation using integrated spectroscopic
276 techniques to elucidate all related mechanisms and effects on soil nutrients.

277

278 **4. Biochar application and soil carbon**

279 *4.1. Biochar as a source and sink of carbon*

280 Carbon sequestration in soil is one of the principal strategies to combat climate change
281 that is caused by anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (Paustian et al., 2016). Cultivation of cover
282 crops is one of the conventional approaches to sequester C from the atmosphere, as plants
283 sequester CO₂ in their biomass, which is then transferred to the soil in the form of organic

284 matter (Lackner et al., 2003). The addition of plant residues to soil also plays a vital role as a
285 source of C in the soil. However, the turnover of these organic materials is usually fast due to
286 their fast decomposition rate; thus, the C added to the soil is quickly released back to the
287 atmosphere. Converting plant residues into biochars through pyrolysis transforms the C into a
288 more stable and recalcitrant form that could remain in the soil for thousands of years
289 (Lehmann et al., 2007). Thus, biochar is considered not only a C source, but also a C sink in
290 the soil (El-Naggar et al., 2018b). With biochar, annual net emissions of CO₂ could be offset
291 by a maximum of 0.21 Pg CO₂-C equivalent, which is equal to about 12% of current
292 anthropogenic CO₂-C emissions (Woolf et al., 2010).

293 Biochar is a C-rich material; however, the C contents in biochar vary mainly with
294 feedstock type and pyrolysis temperature (Usman et al., 2015; El-Naggar et al., 2018c). For
295 instance, biochar produced from wood biomass usually shows higher C contents than that
296 produced from rice straws and crop residues (El-Naggar et al., 2018c). The C stability in
297 biochar varies with feedstock type; for instance, wood biochar usually shows higher stability
298 in soil than rice residue-derived biochar (El-Naggar et al., 2018c). The higher lignin content in
299 wood biomass compared with that in crop residues contributes to the greater C stability in
300 wood-derived biochar (Bird et al., 1999). Pyrolysis temperature is another critical factor that
301 affects the C stability in biochar because it alters the proportion of aromatic and aliphatic C
302 fractions, as well as the condensation of aromatic C in biochar (Kloss et al., 2012; Usman et
303 al., 2015). Biochar produced under high pyrolysis temperatures usually contains more
304 aromatic C than that produced under low pyrolysis temperatures. Thus, biochar produced
305 under high pyrolysis temperatures is less degradable in soil than a low pyrolysis temperature
306 product. Biochar stability in the soil is of paramount importance for its role in improving and
307 maintaining soil properties relevant to crop production. Once applied to the soil, biochar

308 stability determines the period over which the biochar product impacts C sequestration and
309 climate change mitigation, as well as soil fertility improvement.

310

311 *4.2. Biochar and soil carbon mineralization: positive or negative priming effect*

312 Soil priming is known as the change in the decomposition rate of SOC following the
313 addition of fresh organic amendment into the soil as compared with soil without amendment
314 addition (Kuzyakov et al., 2000). The PE is a term that refers to the acceleration or inhibition
315 of the rate of organic matter mineralization as a result of applying amendments (Gontikaki et
316 al., 2013; Xu et al., 2018a). The prediction of PE following the addition of soil amendments is
317 of great importance to understand the dynamics of SOC and the influence of different
318 amendments on soil C stock and mineralization.

319 The application of biochar to soil was found to affect the mineralization of SOC in the
320 long-term, thereby leading to a positive or negative PE in the soil (Figure 6) (Zimmerman et
321 al., 2011; El-Naggar et al., 2018c). Whether biochar causes a positive or negative PE is still
322 under debate (El-Naggar et al., 2015, 2018c; Xu et al., 2018a). One could hypothesize that
323 biochar induces a negative PE when it is applied to the soil because biochar is highly porous in
324 nature, which imparts its strong affinity for organic matter (Zimmerman et al., 2011). Biochar
325 may sequester native soil organic matter within its pore network, thereby reducing the
326 degradability of the organic matter in soil via microbial decomposition (Zimmerman et al.,
327 2011). In contrast, biochar may also stimulate soil C mineralization, which is known as a
328 positive PE (Luo et al., 2017). Biochar might provide a suitable habitat for microorganisms by
329 supplying them with labile C, N, P and micronutrients, thereby improving the microbial
330 growth and proliferation (Chan and Xu, 2009). This act might enhance the microbial activity
331 and induce a positive PE in the soil (Figure 7).

332 The governing factors of biochar-induced PEs in soil include abiotic factors, such as soil
333 moisture content, texture, clay content and SOC content, and biotic factors, such as
334 fungi/bacteria composition and the abundance of saprophytic fungi and soil animals (Wang et
335 al., 2016). The influence of these factors on inducing PE in soil depends on the initial soil
336 properties and biochar feedstock type (El-Mahrouky et al., 2015). In a long-term incubation
337 experiment, three types of biochars (rice straw, umbrella tree wood, and grass) were applied at
338 30 t h⁻¹ to two types of soils (a sandy and a sandy loam soil). The results showed that the sandy
339 loam soil had 2–3 times higher CO₂ emissions than those of the sandy soil due to the higher
340 microbial community abundance in the sandy loam soil (Figure 8; El-Naggar et al., 2018d). In
341 the study, different types of biochar did not significantly influence the soil PE in the sandy
342 loam soil, but induced a positive PE in the sandy soil. The rice hull biochar treatment induced
343 the highest rate of CO₂ emission, which was attributed to its high aliphatic dissolved OC
344 content as compared to that of biochars produced from wood and grasses. Wang et al. (2016)
345 conducted a meta-analysis based on 116 observations to estimate the PEs following biochar
346 addition to soil. They reported that biochar commonly showed a negative PE in the soil
347 (-3.8%) as compared to soils without biochar addition. In this meta-analysis study, sandy soils
348 usually showed a positive PE following biochar addition (20.8%) due to the stimulation of
349 microbial activities in soils with a poor soil fertility.

350 The above discussion indicates that there is still a lack of understanding in terms of the
351 plausible impact of biochar on the PE of soil C, which warrants further studies involving
352 biochar produced from various feedstock types and under different soil and crop types.
353 Previous reports have suggested that biochar could remain in the soil on a centennial scale, and
354 that it has many direct and indirect impacts on soil organic matter dynamics and C
355 sequestration.

356

357 **5. Limitations and concerns of using biochar as a soil amendment**

358 Since the potential use of biochar for environmental protection and agricultural
359 production has been realized (Lehmann, 2007), biochar has been produced from a wide range
360 of biomass feedstock types using different pyrolysis procedures (Zhao et al., 2013; Ahmad et
361 al., 2014; Mohan et al., 2014). The biochar industry and market are growing worldwide (Jirka
362 and Tomlinson, 2013), therefore, some key issues need to be considered when biochar is
363 applied to agricultural systems. These concerns are mainly related to the negative impact that
364 biochar might impart on soil fertility and plant nutrition, or the occurrence of accompanying
365 compounds that are potentially harmful to human health and the environment.

366

367 *5.1. Potential negative impacts of biochar on nutrient availability and crop yield*

368 Although most literature reported direct or indirect positive effects of biochar on soil
369 nutrient availability, several reports showed that biochar applications could reduce the
370 availability of some nutrients, thereby resulting in a yield reduction (Hussain et al., 2017). In a
371 laboratory experiment, high rates of biochar application of over 1.7% (over 60 t ha⁻¹) caused a
372 decline in perennial ryegrass dry matter production (Baronti et al., 2010). The decline was
373 attributed to the modification of soil chemical and physical properties under high rates of
374 biochar application. Mikan and Abrams (1995) reported the failure of woody plants to
375 establish and survive due to the large accumulation of charcoal and deficiency of
376 micronutrients caused by increased soil pH from soil biochar application. Similarly, Karer et
377 al. (2013) indicated that although wood-based biochar improved the water holding capacity in
378 a Cambisol, its contribution to the macro- and micronutrients supply to crops was inhibited. A
379 negative impact of biochar on yield and nutrient uptake was observed when biochar was
380 applied at a rate of 72 t ha⁻¹, where maize and wheat grain yields decreased by 46 and 70%,
381 respectively. The decrease in yield was attributed to the immobilization of N and

382 micronutrients, which reduced their availability to plants under increased pH conditions.
383 Bruun et al. (2012) compared different biochars produced at different fast and slow pyrolysis
384 conditions and studied their effects on soil C and N dynamics. They found that the application
385 of biochars produced with fast pyrolysis from wheat straw immobilized 43% of the inorganic
386 N during 65 days of incubation, while biochars produced through slow pyrolysis increased the
387 N mineralization rate by 7%.

388 In general, these results suggest that biochar could be a useful material for environmental
389 management and agricultural production if an accurate application rate of biochar produced
390 from appropriate feedstock using suitable pyrolysis technology is applied to the soil. As
391 biochar application is a relatively new agricultural practice, there is a scarcity of field data
392 about the long-term effect of biochar on the soil chemical, physical, and biological properties.
393 There is also limited knowledge about the sustainability of biochar use for agricultural
394 production, especially for the recommended annual biochar application rates in long-term and
395 different cropping systems and its subsequent impact on nutrient availability and inherent soil
396 fertility. We need to study and determine the maximum amount of biochar that can be applied
397 to the soil (e.g., over several applications over several years) before the applied biochar begins
398 to cause negative effects on nutrient availability and plant productivity.

399

400 *5.2. Biochar regulations and concerns regarding potential environmental risks*

401 Biochar can potentially be used for the treatment and restoration of infertile soils that are
402 contaminated with various pollutants, such as potentially toxic metals (Beesley et al., 2011;
403 Mandal et al., 2017a; Xu et al., 2018b), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) (Denyes et al.,
404 2012), pesticide residues (Zheng et al., 2010; Mandal et al., 2017b), and polycyclic aromatic
405 hydrocarbons (PAHs) (Stefaniuk and Oleszczuk, 2016). Although biochar was found to be
406 useful for immobilizing soil pollutants (Stefaniuk et al., 2017), several studies reported that

407 some biochar products and production methods increased the availability of harmful organic
408 compounds, which might represent a potential source of hazards to human health. For
409 instance, Lyu et al. (2016) found that biochar could be a potential source of contaminants,
410 particularly for PAHs and PCDD/DF, which could be generated during the pyrolysis or
411 gasification process. Kookana et al. (2011) reviewed the potential unintended consequences of
412 biochar, and reported that residues of some pollutants (e.g., PAHs, cresols, xylenols,
413 formaldehyde, acrolein, etc.) could accumulate in biochar and pose a risk to microorganisms,
414 plants and soil health. However, the content of those organic toxicants in the biochar and their
415 ecotoxicological impacts on soil flora and fauna are not well documented (Kookana et al.,
416 2011).

417 The production condition of biochar including the residence time during the pyrolysis
418 specifically appears to be responsible for influencing the PAH concentrations in biochar.
419 Brown et al. (2006) analyzed the concentrations of PAHs in biochars produced in a range of
420 pyrolysis temperatures (450-1000 °C). They reported that PAH concentrations in biochar
421 strongly depend on the production temperature of the material. Higher concentrations of low
422 molecular weight PAHs were found in the biochars produced at low temperatures, while
423 higher concentrations of high molecular weight PAHs were found in the biochars produced at
424 high temperatures (Brown et al., 2006). Moreover, the pyrolysis process (slow or fast) plays a
425 major role in determining the content and type of PAHs in biochar (Wang et al., 2017). Slow
426 pyrolysis and long residence time was found to result in lower PAH yields than fast pyrolysis
427 and short residence time (Wang et al., 2017).

428 In a greenhouse experiment, kiln wood biochar application increased the content of
429 PAHs by 10 times in soils (José et al., 2016). This increase in the PAH content was attributed
430 to the usage of traditional kilns in which syngas and tar oils are not removed. The use of
431 modern gasification reactors to remove or capture syngas and tar oils could potentially address

432 this issue of PAHs in biochar produced in kilns (José et al., 2016). This is in agreement with
433 Garcia-Perez et al. (2008), who reported that PAHs escape with the gas during slow pyrolysis.
434 Therefore, different organizations set threshold values for PAHs in biochar. The International
435 Biochar Initiative set 6–20 mg kg⁻¹ as the threshold value for the total concentration of 16
436 PAHs that were reported as toxic by the EPA (IBI, 2012). The European Biochar Foundation
437 similarly set values of 12 mg kg⁻¹ dry matter (DM) for basic grade biochar and under 4 mg kg⁻¹
438 DM for premium grade biochar (EBC, 2013). Wang et al. (2017) reported that PAH
439 concentrations showed a wide variation from less than 0.1 mg kg⁻¹ to more than 10,000 mg
440 kg⁻¹ in various biochar products. This is why special care should be taken to decide the
441 pyrolysis process and intended characteristics of the produced biochar before its application to
442 agricultural soils.

443

444 **6. Advancements in biochar production for soil fertility improvement and soil carbon** 445 **sequestration**

446 The chemical and physical properties of biochars depend on the production condition and
447 feedstock type (Novak et al., 2009; Al-Wabel et al., 2013). The potential of biochar to improve
448 the fertility of soils differs accordingly. There is a growing interest in improving biochar
449 efficacy to promote soil fertility and soil C storage by applying advanced technology in the
450 biochar production process. Products of these types of modification processes are known as
451 designer/engineered biochar (Mandal et al., 2016; Rajapaksha et al., 2016). Designing the
452 appropriate biochar (with desired properties) for the appropriate soil (with specific soil quality
453 issues) is a promising strategy in the field of biochar application to soil (Novak et al., 2009;
454 Atkinson et al., 2010; Singh et al., 2010; Abiven et al., 2014). This strategy can be developed
455 by designing or modifying biochar through physicochemical alterations or controlling the

456 pyrolytic process. These modification methods include co-composting biochar with organic or
457 composted materials.

458 Adding biochar to the composting process can stimulate the process and enhance the
459 quality of the end product (co-composted biochar). The benefits of biochar addition to the
460 composting process include stimulating microbial activity, improving the C/N ratio,
461 maintaining the temperature and homogeneity of the mixture, and enhancing the product's
462 organic matter content (Prost et al., 2013; Zhang and Sun, 2014). It could also enhance the
463 structure of the compost and reduce nutrient loss. At the same time, the composting process
464 will also enhance the biochar properties, such as charging its surface with nutrients. The
465 potential of co-composted biochar to improve soil fertility and soil C sequestration has been
466 reported (Khan et al., 2014). For instance, the application of co-composted biochar at 2% to
467 soil increased the crop yield by 305%, while the unmodified biochar reduced the crop yield by
468 60% (Kammann et al., 2015). In a pot experiment, co-composted biochar increased the total C
469 and CEC at an application rate of 1.5%, and enhanced the crop yield by 70.8–309% as
470 compared to the control (Luo et al., 2016). In a greenhouse experiment, the application of
471 co-composted biochar increased the total OC by up to 212% compared to the control (Schulz
472 et al., 2013). In a field experiment, the application of co-composted biochar at 24.2 Mg ha⁻¹ rate
473 significantly increased the total OC (up to 82% increase) in the topsoil as compared to that in
474 the control or with adding only compost to the soil (Busch and Glaser, 2015).

475 Biochar coating with organic matter is another promising approach to enhance its efficacy
476 in low-fertility soils. The organic materials coated on biochar surfaces act as glue for retaining
477 dissolved nutrients in the soil (Conte and Laudicina, 2017). Hagemann et al. (2017) reported
478 that coating the biochar surfaces with organic substances increased the mesoporosity and
479 enhanced the potential of biochars to retain nutrients and water in the soil. However, the

480 concept of designing suitable biochars for specific environmental issues still needs to be
481 developed and confirmed by several field investigations.

482

483 **7. Future research priorities and challenges**

484 Biochar has been recommended as a promising soil amendment to improve soil fertility
485 and sequester C in the soil. Several perspectives require further research to ensure the efficacy
486 and cost-effectiveness of biochar for such purposes, particularly in the following areas:

487 (1) Standardization or recommendation of biochar production conditions and application rates

488 that are more suitable for soil fertility improvement, nutrient supply to plants, and C
489 sequestration. Those standards or guidelines will be an important help in maximizing the
490 benefits of biochar application and in minimizing any potential environmental risks. The
491 suggested model for biochar production standardization includes the types of feedstock,
492 pyrolysis temperature, and pre/post-treatment of biochar. However, the relationship
493 between feedstock and production conditions of biochar and its performance in soils still
494 needs more documentation concerning the new advancements in biochar production
495 methods. It remains a challenge to establish standard models for creating biochar with
496 desired properties for specific applications in soil and the environment.

497 (2) Prediction of long-term decay of biochar in the field under different cropping practices.

498 This can be achieved by investigating the decomposition rate of the stable phase of biochar
499 in soil, which is proposed to remain in the soil for a long time (thousands of years), and
500 setting relationships between biochar properties and its labile phase, which may quickly
501 decompose in the soil. Any estimates of biochar stability in soil should be confirmed at the
502 field scale; thus, long-term field experiments are very important in this aspect.

503 (3) Elucidation of the mechanisms of interactions between biochar, plant roots, soil organisms,
504 and individual soil components (e.g., clay minerals, dissolved organic matter) in the

505 rhizosphere. This will allow us to understand the release dynamics and biogeochemical
506 cycling of nutrients in biochar-amended soils.

507 (4) Determination of the adsorption-desorption capacities of biochars to soil nutrients in order
508 to predict the nutrient bioavailability and slow release to plants in the biochar-soil
509 complexes. However, this aspect should be tested on different biochar types applied to
510 various soils with different properties.

511

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515

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- 920

921 **Table 1.** Impact of biochar on soil fertility parameters

Feedstock	Pyrolysis temperature	Application rate	Soil type	Impact on soil properties	Reference
Wheat straw	350–550 °C	20, 40 t ha ⁻¹	Anthrosol	Increased soil pH by +1.2% and +8.0% with both application rates, respectively	Zhang et al. (2010)
Sewage sludge	550 °C	50, 100 g kg ⁻¹ soil	Acidic soil	Both application rates increased soil pH (+20.9% and +34.1%, respectively), total carbon (+554.5% and +818.2%, respectively), and total nitrogen (+350% and +550%, respectively)	Khan et al. (2013)
Wheat straw	450 °C	10, 20, 40 t ha ⁻¹	Anthrosol	Increased soil pH and soil organic carbon by +16.2, +33.2, and +51.0% with different application rates, respectively	Cui et al. (2013)
Rice straw	350–550 °C	4.5, 9 t ha ⁻¹	Anthrosol	Increased organic carbon by +50% and +101% and increased total nitrogen by +9.8% and 13.4% with both application	Zhao et al. (2014)

rates, respectively

Crop straws	500 °C	16 t ha ⁻¹	Entisol	Soil water holding capacity increased by +19.1% to +38.8%	Liu et al. (2016)
NA	400 °C	9 t ha ⁻¹	Slightly acidic	Increased soil water holding capacity by +11%	Karhu et al. (2011)
Municipal biowaste	450–550 °C	40 t ha ⁻¹	Anthrosol	Increased soil organic carbon by +20.2%	Bian et al. (2013)
Eucalyptus wood	350 °C, 800 °C	0, 1, 2, and 4% w/w	Ultisol	The maize biomass decreased with the biochar pyrolyzed at 800 °C (up to -25%)	Butnan et al. (2015)
Wheat straw and peanut shell	500 °C	8 t ha ⁻¹	Entisol	Increased soil organic carbon (up to +56%)	El-Naggar et al. (2018b)

922 NA: information not available

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928 **Figure captions**

929 **Figure 1.** Effects of pyrolysis temperature and biochar feedstock on biochar properties,
930 including contents of ash (n=542), volatile matter (n=306), pH (n=358), P (n=198),
931 C (n=615), and N (n=616). Data were obtained from the UC Davis Biochar
932 Database, 2015.

933 **Figure 2.** Release of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), total N, and total P to solution in batch
934 extractions of fresh biochars (a, b, and c) and aged biochars (d, e, and f) with
935 replacement of supernatant (Reproduced from Mukherjee and Zimmerman (2013),
936 with permission from the publisher).

937 **Figure 3.** Scanning electron micrograph images of wheat straw and wheat straw + basalt
938 biochars produced at 550 °C. a) C-rich phase, b) accumulation and abundance of Si,
939 Al, K, and Na, and c) abundance of Fe and O minerals inside biochar pores
940 (Reproduced from Taherymoosavi et al. (2018), with permission from the
941 publisher).

942 **Figure 4.** Scanning electron micrograph images and energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy
943 spectra of wheat straw + basalt biochar produced at 650 °C. Arrows represent the
944 position of the points a and b (Reproduced from Taherymoosavi et al. (2018), with
945 permission from the publisher).

946 **Figure 5.** Elemental mapping of wheat straw + basalt biochar produced at 650 °C for the
947 elements a) C, b) Si, c) Al, d) Ca, e) K, f) O, g) Fe, and h) Na (Reproduced from
948 Taherymoosavi et al. (2018), with permission from the publisher).

949 **Figure 6.** Schematic diagram of the biochar-induced priming effect on the soil. Case A shows
950 the negative priming effect (N-PE). Case B shows the positive priming effect
951 (P-PE).

952 **Figure 7.** Schematic diagram of biochar-induced priming effects on soils (Reproduced from
953 Luo et al. (2017), with permission from the publisher).

954 **Figure 8.** Cumulative CO₂-C emission from sandy and sandy loam soils treated with 30 t ha⁻¹
955 of different biochars as compared to untreated soil (control). Error bars indicate the
956 standard deviation of the mean. Data were obtained from El-Naggar et al. (2018d).

957

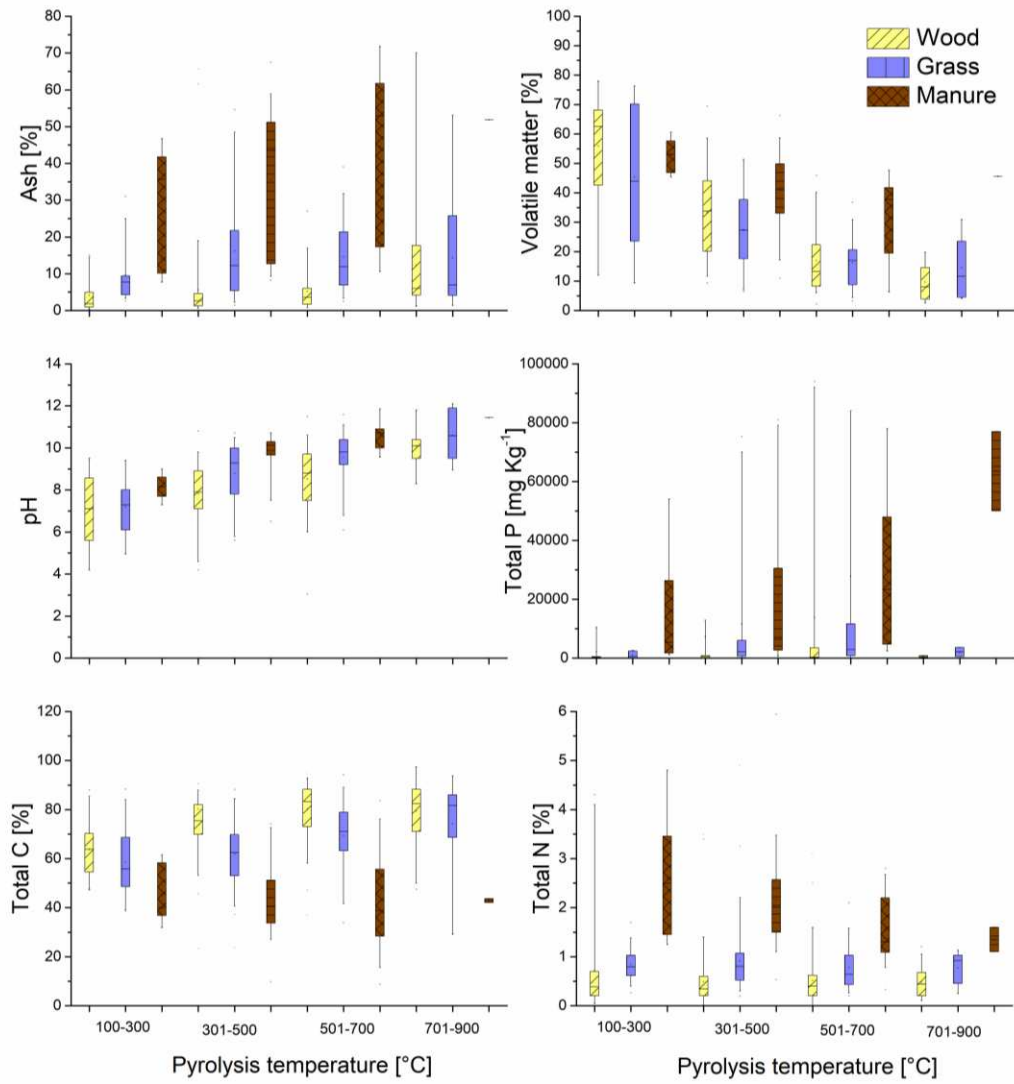
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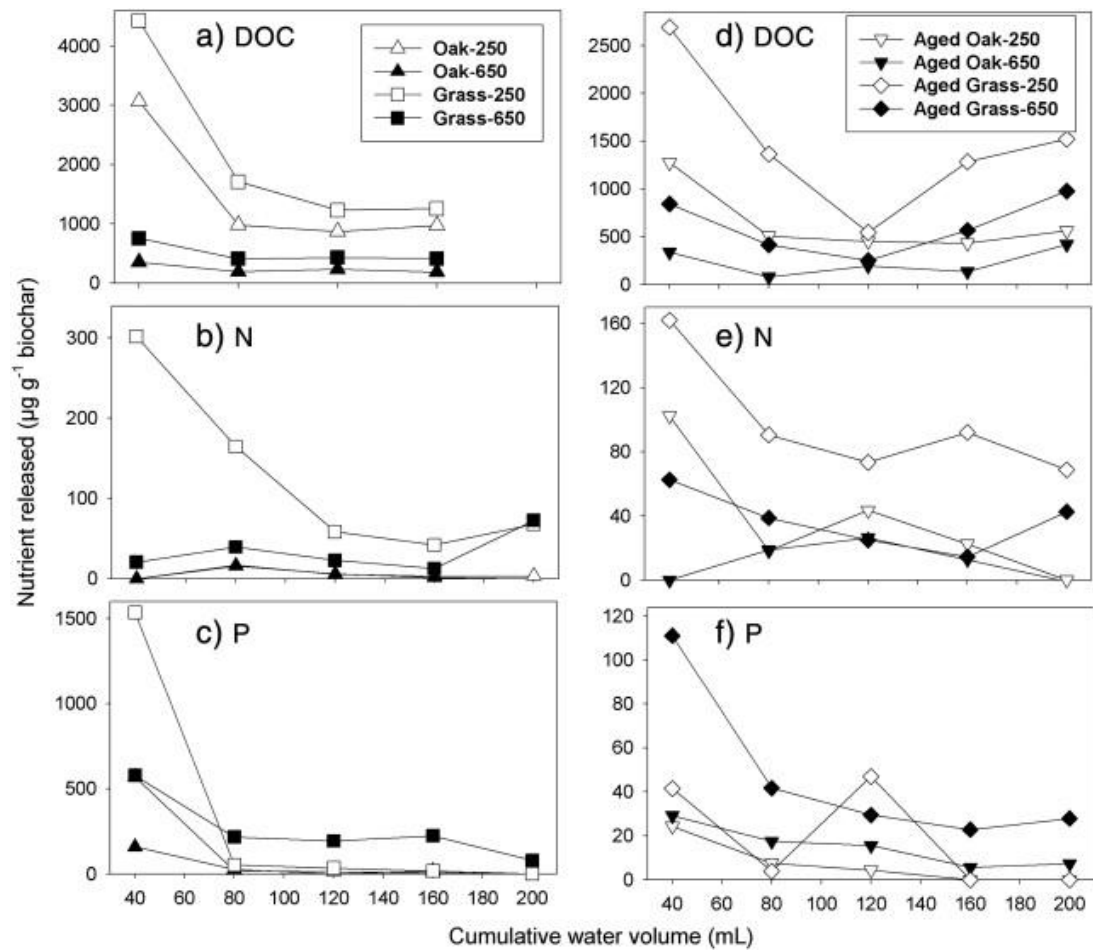
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964 Figure 1.

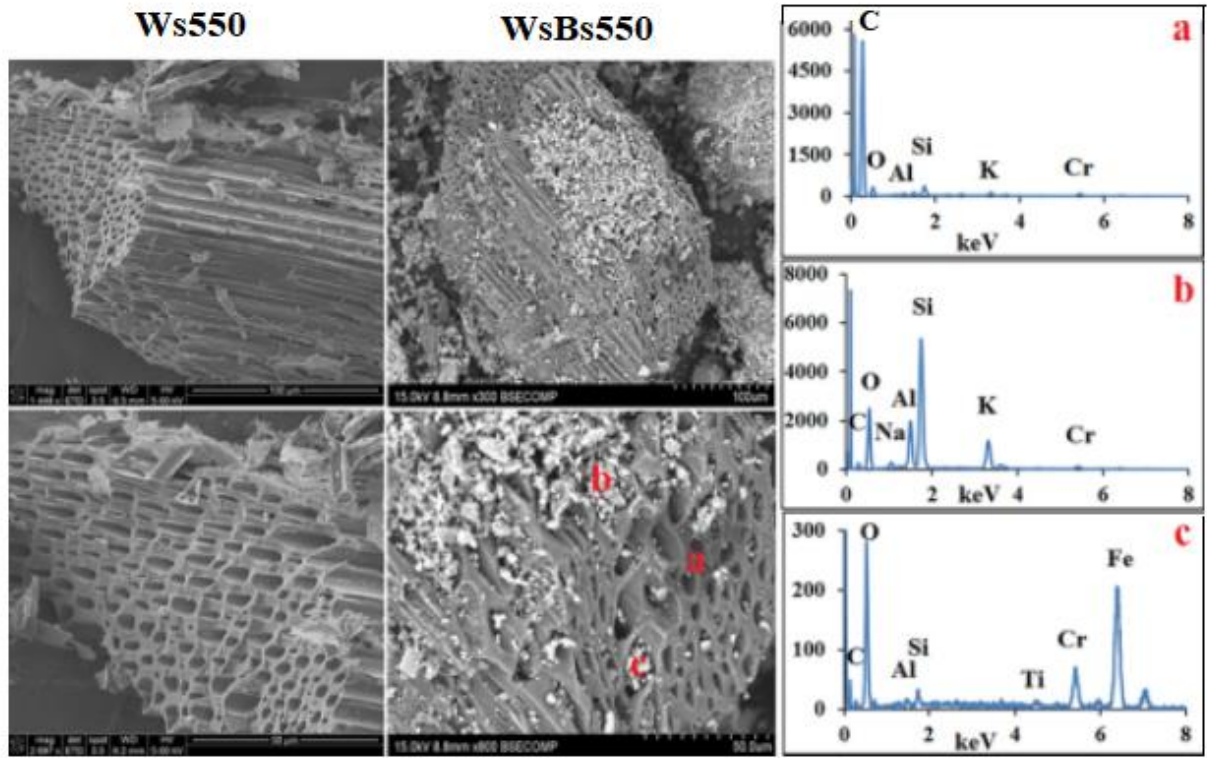
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967 Figure 2.

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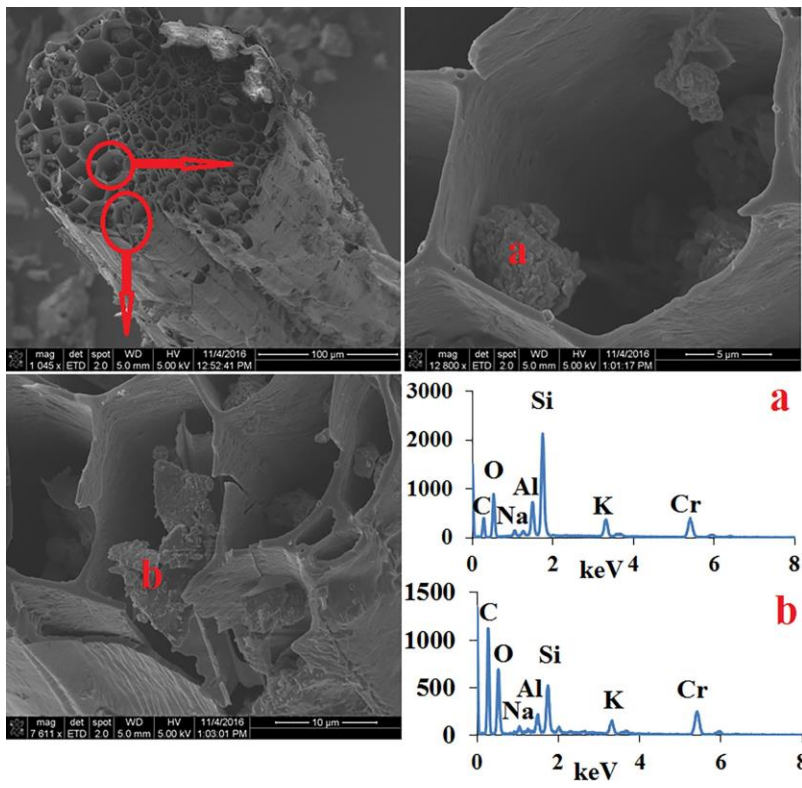


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970 Figure 3.

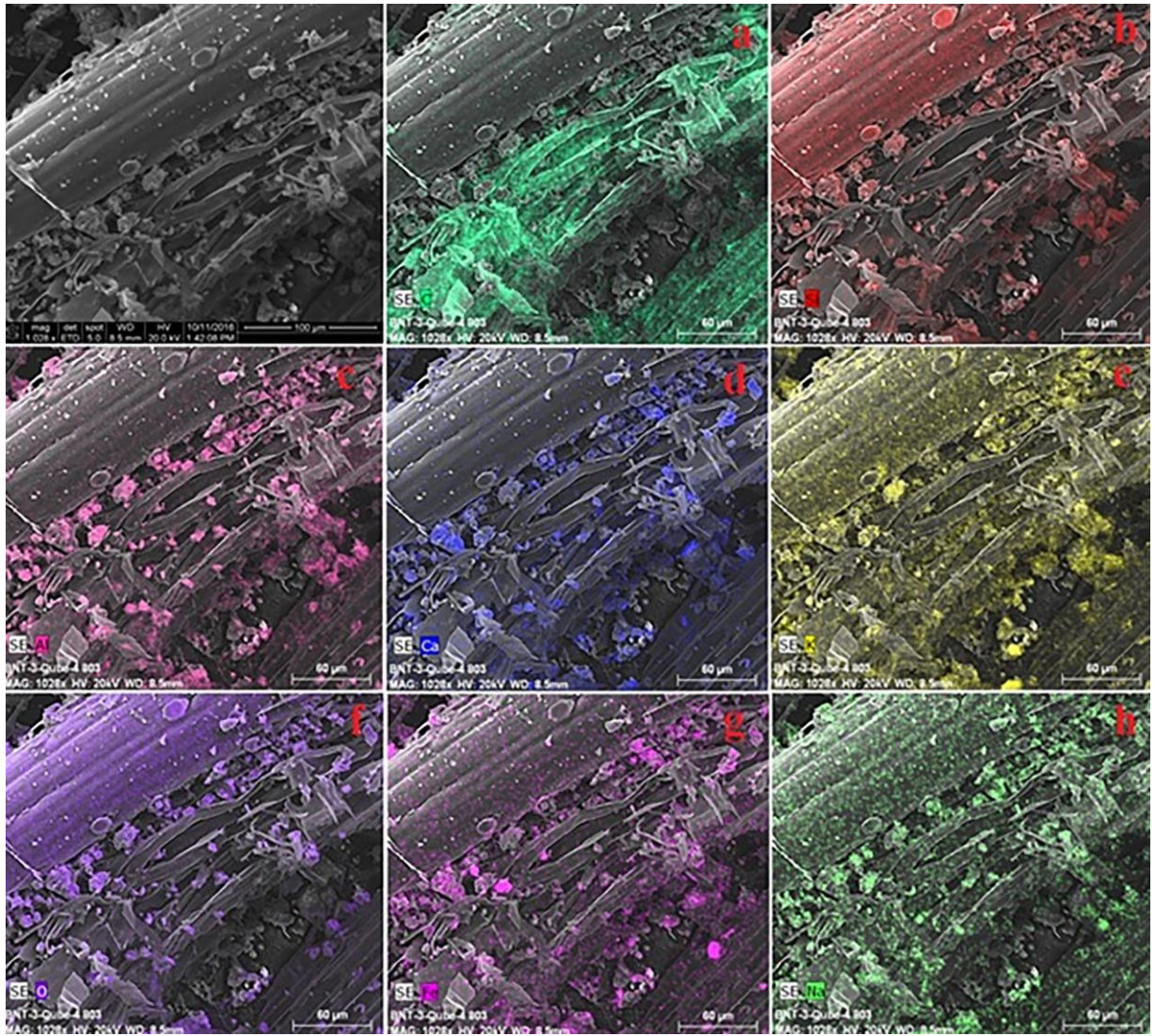
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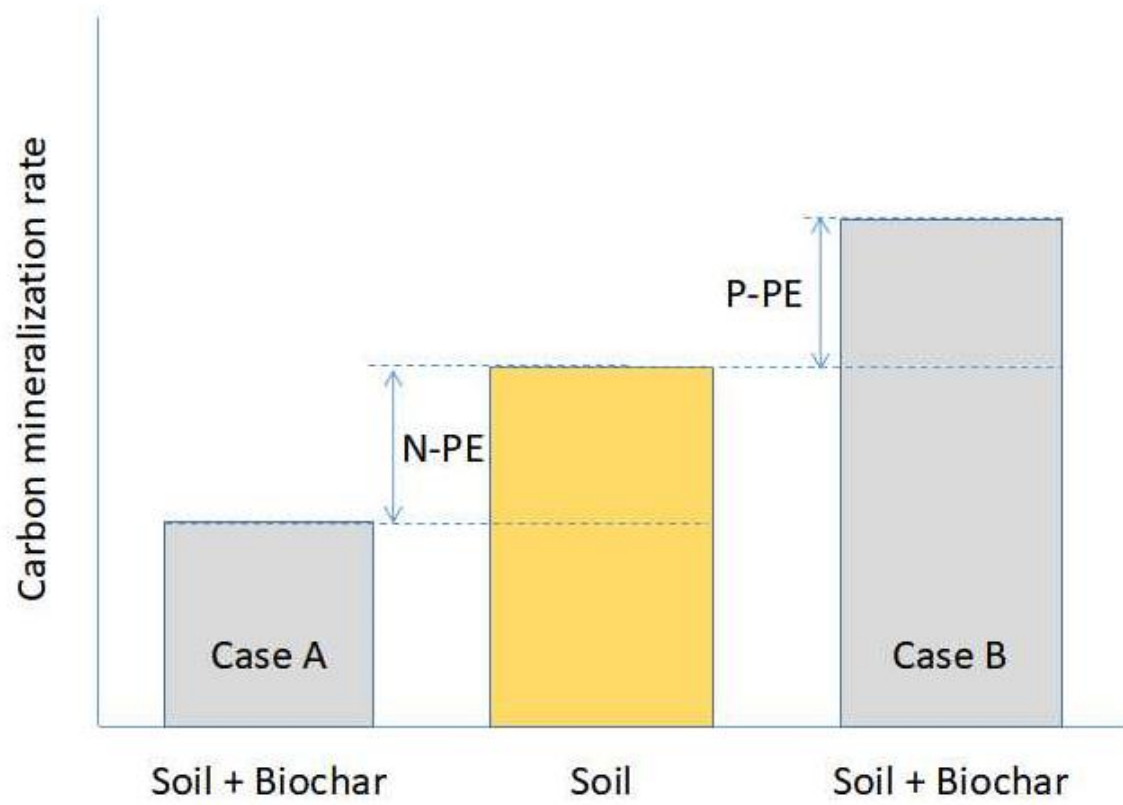
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974 Figure 4.



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976 Figure 5.

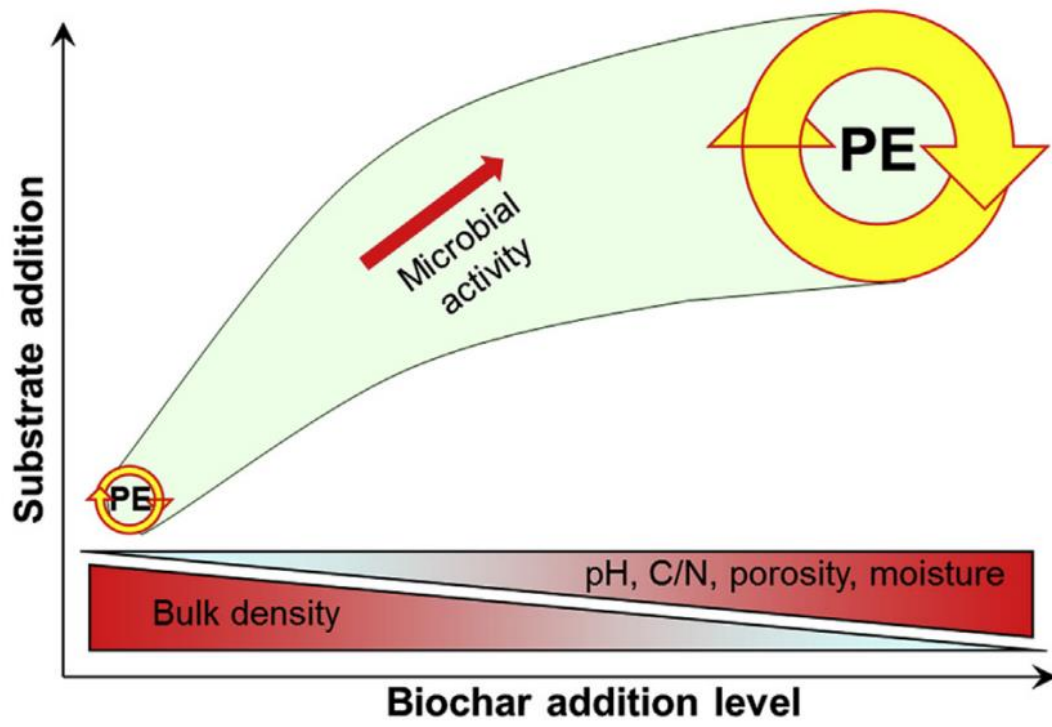


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978 Figure 6.

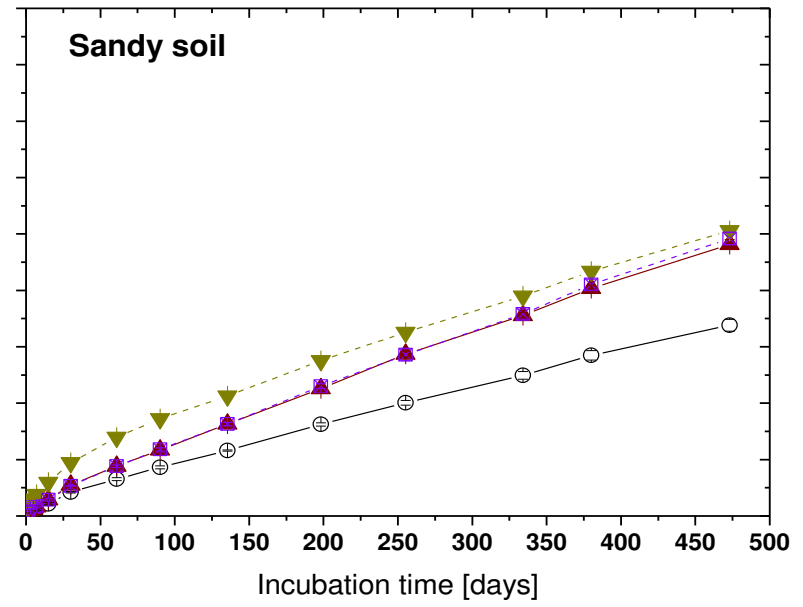
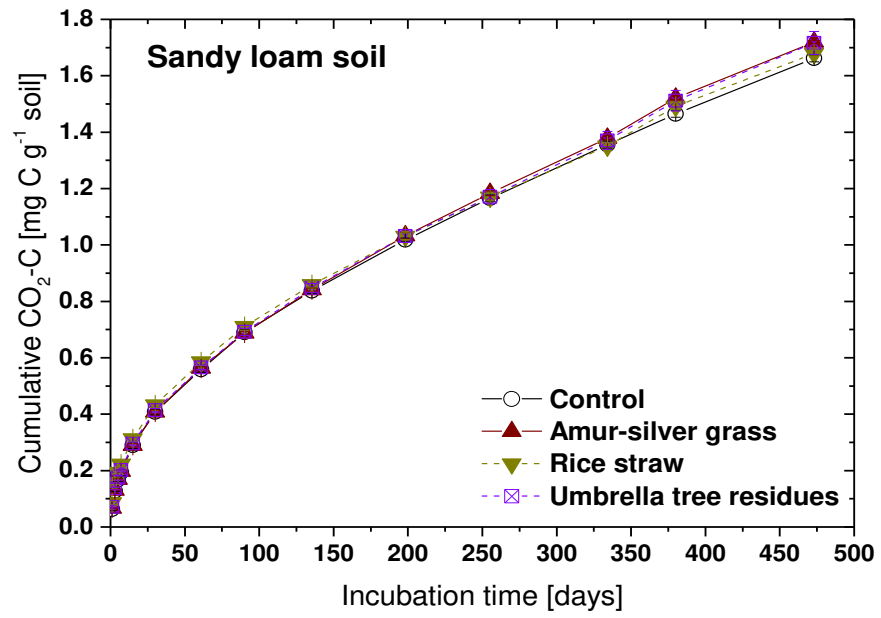
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982 Figure 7.



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984 Figure 8.

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