New biochars from raspberry and potato stems absorb more methane than wood offcuts and sunflower husk biochars**

Adam Kubaczyński * Anna Walkiewicz Anna Pytlak, and Małgorzata Brzezińska

Institute of Agrophysics, Polish Academy of Sciences, Doświadczalna 4, 20-290, Lublin, Poland

Received July 20, 2020; accepted August 25, 2020

Abstract. The reduction in greenhouse gas emissions from agriculture is of particular importance at present. In recent times, biochar addition to the soil was suggested as a means of mitigating greenhouse gases emissions from arable fields. More specifically, biochars with useful properties and those produced from easily available waste materials are still being sought. In the presented experiment, the CH₄ absorption potential of four biochars incubated at 60 and 100% water holding capacity with the addition of 1% CH₄ (v/v) was investigated for 28 days at 25°C. The potato stem and raspberry stem biochars showed much higher potentials for CH4 uptake than wood offcuts biochar and sunflower husk biochar. Potato stem and raspberry stem biochars incubated at 60% water holding capacity were characterized by a methane uptake rate of 8.01 \pm 0.47 and 5.78 \pm 0.17 mg CH₄-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively. The methane removal potentials of the other biochars were clearly lower. The advantage of the biochars from raspberry and potato stems over the wood offcuts biochar also results from their significantly lower production of carbon dioxide. Consequently, these materials have a high potential for agricultural use, in view of their impact on the greenhouse gas balance of the soil.

K eywords: biochar, methane, greenhouse gas removal, raspberry stems, potato stems

INTRODUCTION

Biochar may be defined as biomass that has been pyrolysed in a zero or low oxygen environment (Lehmann and Rondon, 2006). The application of biochar to soil is expected to enhance soil fertility, improve its water retention properties and increase carbon sequestration (Coomes and Miltner, 2017; Luo et al., 2016). Biochar addition may also stimulate soil microbial activity and reduce the emission of greenhouse gases (GHGs) such as carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄) (Wu et al., 2019) due to its specific properties, such as a large surface area and its high porosity value (Jeffery et al., 2016; Kammann et al., 2017; Sokołowska et al., 2020). Oxygen in the soil environment is crucial for the functioning of microbiota and plant roots (Lehmann et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2017). A high degree of oxygen uptake by biochar may lead to the development of anoxic microhabitats in the soil (Ribas et al., 2019). Under such conditions, methane is formed by anaerobic microbiota and released to the atmosphere rather than being removed from it (Chistoserdova and Kalyuzhnaya, 2018). Moisture levels modify the air-water conditions and a range of between 50 and 70% water holding capacity (WHC) is considered optimal for gas diffusion and soil microbiota (Walkiewicz et al., 2020a). On the other hand, temporary flooding also occurs which results in a reduction in gas diffusion (Yu et al., 2012). In order to mirror the variable conditions of the soil environment, we used 60 and 100% WHC. It has already been reported that the water held in the pores of the biochar may lead to a decrease in the amount of methane absorbed (Farzad et al., 2007). For this reason, it is important to test biochars (especially those produced from new feedstocks) at different moisture levels.

^{*}Corresponding author e-mail: a.kubaczynski@ipan.lublin.pl

^{**}This work was partially conducted as a part of the project "Water in soil - satellite monitoring and improving the retention using biochar" no. BIOSTRATEG3/345940/7/NCBR/2017 which was financed by Polish National Centre for Research and Development within the framework of "Environment, agriculture and forestry" -BIOSTRATEG strategic R&D programme (2018-2020).

^{© 2020} Institute of Agrophysics, Polish Academy of Sciences

Biochar is increasingly used in environmental protection as a low-cost sorbent of heavy metals and hazardous gases (La *et al.*, 2018; Xiong *et al.*, 2019). Additionally, CH₄ can be removed through biochar filtration (Syed *et al.*, 2016). This gas is known for its explosive properties, which may pose a serious threat to safety in mines and landfills (Kammann *et al.*, 2017; Pytlak *et al.*, 2014), but mainly for its high infrared radiation absorption potential which results in a 28-fold higher global warming potential than CO_2 (IPCC, 2014). Nevertheless, there is an apparent deficit in studies describing the potential of biochar to remove higher than ambient CH₄ concentrations (Huang *et al.*, 2019; Syed *et al.*, 2016).

Due to the growing number of biochar applications, modifications of established products, as well as new materials for its production are being sought (Kammann et al., 2017). New feedstocks could be a way to provide biochars with interesting and desirable properties (Thomazini et al., 2015; Tomczyk, 2020). Another advantage of biochar is that it can be produced from waste biomass, which for various reasons is not suitable for other purposes such as feed, litter or fuel production (Qi et al., 2020; Schwede et al., 2017). In these circumstances, the production of biochar is economically, environmentally and ethically justifiable. For this reason, we decided to study agricultural waste from potato and raspberry stems as potential feedstock for biochar production. Potato stems are left in the fields after harvest and raspberry bushes are trimmed and discarded after each growing season. According to the FAO, in 2007 the global area used to grow potatoes amounted to around 19.3 million ha. In Europe, 7.5 million hectares were used for this purpose and the cultivation area is still increasing (Mackay, 2009). Raspberry crops are less prevalent but they have a local significance. In 2010-2012, the average global area used for raspberry production was 92,000 hectares but the amount of stem biomass harvested per hectare was considerable (Zaremba, 2014). The availability of both potato and raspberry biomass is thus high. It should be noted that the stems are often a habitat for pathogenic microorganisms and parasites and for this reason they often have to be disposed of properly (Guo et al., 2019; Vincent et al., 2003). Biochar production may be a beneficial way of making biohazardous plant debris safe. In this way, hazardous waste biomass may be neutralized through pyrolysis and returned safely to the environment thereby contributing to carbon sequestration and a reduction in GHG emissions.

The new aspects of our study are: i) the utilization of new agricultural waste feedstocks, ii) performing experiments on a single biochar (usually biochar with soil was under investigation), iii) comprehensive approach which included monitoring CH_4 , CO_2 and O_2 exchange.

Since the ability of biochar to sequester CH_4 may depend on the feedstocks used, we hypothesize that biochars produced from raspberry and potato stems may be

used to remove CH_4 from the atmosphere and that the process is moisture-dependent since a high water content may impair gas diffusion.

The aim of the study was to determine the potential of CH_4 removal as well as the accompanying CO_2 production and O_2 uptake by new biochars prepared from plant waste materials (raspberry and potato stems) in comparison with widely available biochars made from wood offcuts and sunflower husks. In addition, we studied the differences between these materials based on their physicochemical properties.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

New biochars were produced in 2018 from raspberry (Br) and potato stems (Bp) (left after crop collection) by pyrolysis (at 600 °C, for half an hour, in an N₂ atmosphere), using an LAC L15/12 electric furnace with a Ht40 AL controller, and a working volume of 15 dm³. After pyrolysis, nitrogen flushing was maintained until the furnace cooled to room temperature. Common biochars made from wood offcuts (Bo) and sunflower husks (Bs) were produced by New Technology Trade Ltd. (Kobylany, Poland) at a temperature of 600 and 550 °C, respectively (Table 1).

All biochars were sieved with a 2 mm mesh sieve and stored in the dark at room temperature in hermetic containers. The content of the dissolved organic carbon (DOC), total carbon (TC) and nitrogen (TN), pH, oxidation-reduction potential (Eh) and bulk density were measured before incubation (Table 1). The DOC content was measured with a TOC-VCPH analyser (Shimadzu, Japan) (Yu et al., 2018). The pH and Eh of the biochar were determined at a 1:5 biochar to water ratio, using a glass electrode and a redox electrode respectively (Sokołowska et al., 2020; Yoo et al., 2014) with a HQ40D Portable Multi Meter analyser (Hach Lange). The water holding capacity (WHC) of the tested biochars was determined according to Yoo et al. (2014) using the modified funnel method. The biochar C and N contents were determined using an elemental analyser (Perkin Elmer CHN 2400). The bulk density of the biochar was calculated based on its weight at 15°C, at a volume of 10 cm³ (Özçimen and Karaosmanoğlu, 2004).

The tested biochars (5 g of air-dried biochar per sample in three replications) were weighed into 120 cm³ glass bottles and adjusted to 60% or 100% WHC by the addition of distilled water. All samples were closed and subjected to three days of preincubation at 25°C. Next, after ventilation, the samples were closed with rubber stoppers and aluminum caps, and then the headspace was enriched with 1% CH₄ (v/v) to improve analytical precision. During the following 28 days of incubation (at 25°C, in darkness), the composition of the atmosphere (CH₄, CO₂ and O₂) above the biochar was analysed using a gas chromatograph. A GC-2014 (Shimadzu, Japan) gas chromatograph was used. It was fitted with a flame ionization detector (FID)

_	Biochar					
Parameter	Wood offcuts (Bo)	Sunflower husk (Bs)	Raspberry stem (Br)	Potato stem (Bp)		
	Common – produced by the local company New Technology Trade Ltd., Kobylany, Poland		New – produced in the Institute of Agrophysics PAS, Lublin, Poland			
Pyrolysis temperature (°C)	600	550	600	600		
C content (%)	86.13 ± 0.24	78.30 ± 0.01	74.21 ± 0.34	44.62 ± 0.02		
N content (%)	0.35 ± 0.01	0.98 ± 0.03	0.90 ± 0.01	1.35 ± 0.00		
C/N ratio	246.09	79.90	82.46	33.05		
DOC mg dm ⁻³)	214.33 ± 0.22	106.57 ± 2.77	139.70 ± 1.19	100.04 ± 0.24		
pН	6.99 ± 0.01	9.19 ± 0.02	9.17 ± 0.02	9.60 ± 0.05		
Eh (mV)	105 ± 0.36	-16 ± 0.17	32 ± 0.44	25 ± 0.46		
Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)	0.31 ± 0.01	0.35 ± 0.01	0.21 ± 0.01	0.19 ± 0.01		
WHC (g H ₂ O g biochar ⁻¹)	2.58 ± 0.26	2.58 ± 0.06	4.31 ± 0.16	4.45 ± 0.09		

Table 1. Characteristics of four biochars: wood offcuts biochar (Bo), sunflower husk biochar (Bs), raspberry stem biochar (Br) and potato stem biochar (Bp)

for CH₄ and CO₂ analysis and an electron capture detector (ECD) for O₂. Poraplot Q and Restek Q-bond columns (column flow $-5 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$, split ratio 5:1, oven temp. -30°C , injection volume $-150 \,\mu\text{L}$, purge flow 3 cm³ min⁻¹) with helium as a carrier was used to separate the gases. External standards (1% CH₄ in He; 20.9% O₂ in N₂, Air Products) were used for calibration (Walkiewicz *et al.*, 2020a, 2020b).

The methane and oxygen uptake rates were determined based on the difference between the initial and final gas concentrations on the last incubation day, and divided by the time of apparent CH₄ uptake (the lag phase for CH₄ was excluded) (Eq. (1)). The carbon dioxide production rate was calculated similarly, but in this case the difference in CO₂ concentration between the last and first incubation day was calculated due to the continuous emission of this gas (Eq. (2)) (Walkiewicz *et al.*, 2020a):

$$CH_4 uptake \ rate = \frac{C_{initial} - C_{final}}{t},\tag{1}$$

 $C_{initial}$ is the initial uptake CH₄ concentration in the head-space (mg CH₄-C kg⁻¹), C_{final} is the final CH₄ concentration in the headspace (mg CH₄-C kg⁻¹), *t* is the number of incubation days with CH₄ uptake.

$$CO_2 \ production \ rate = \frac{C_{final} - C_{initial}}{t}, \tag{2}$$

 C_{final} is the final CO₂ concentration in the headspace (mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹), $C_{initial}$ is the initial CO₂ concentration in the headspace (mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹), t is the number of incubation days.

Based on the final CO_2 emission and O_2 consumption, the CO_2/O_2 ratio was calculated for each biochar separately for 60% and 100% WHC, as a measure of biochar stability.

Net GWP was calculated by making a comparison between the cumulative CH_4 and CO_2 fluxes in mg CO_2 equivalent per kg of biochar (Walkiewicz *et al.*, 2020b).

In these calculations, the GWP value for CH_4 and CO_2 was considered to be 28 and 1, respectively, over a 100-year time horizon (IPCC, 2014).

The results were statistically processed with Statistica 13 software (StatSoft Inc.). A one-way ANOVA (Tukey HSD post-hoc test) was used to test the significance of the differences in CH_4 uptake and CO_2 emission rates between the tested biochars (separately for 60 and 100% WHC).

RESULTS

For the group of four biochars incubated at 60% WHC, the added methane was completely taken up by the potato (Bp) and raspberry (Br) biochars (Fig. 1a). The most efficient in terms of CH₄ removal were samples containing Bp, where after a 13-day long lag phase, the CH_4 uptake rate reached 8.01 \pm 0.47 mg CH₄-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹, resulting in methane depletion within 25 days of incubation (Table 2). The incubation of Br showed a similar lag phase duration (15 days), and almost complete CH₄ removal occurred 13 days later. The methane uptake rate for the raspberry stem biochar achieved 5.78 \pm 0.17 mg CH₄-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 60% WHC. Methane wasn't completely absorbed by sunflower husk biochar (Bs) and only ca. 11% (10.23 \pm 3.46 mg CH_4 -C kg⁻¹) of the added CH_4 was absorbed by the end of incubation (till the 28th day) after a 24 ± 2 days lag phase. The wood offcuts biochar (Bo) did not show any apparent ability for CH₄ uptake at 60% WHC. Within the applied experimental timeframes, less than 1% of the added CH₄ $(0.95 \pm 0.25 \text{ mg CH}_4\text{-C kg}^{-1})$ was removed by the wood offcuts biochar.

The tested biochars differed in the CO₂ emissions that accompanied CH₄ uptake (Fig. 1b), but special attention needs to be paid to the wood offcuts biochar. During the experiment, Bo produced several times more CO₂ than the other biochars, with an average CO₂ production rate as high as 19.98 ± 1.22 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹. On the last day of incubation, CO₂ concentration in Bo was *ca*. 573 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹,



Fig. 1. Uptake of added CH₄ (1% v/v) (a), which accompanies CO₂ production (b) and O₂ uptake (c) by four biochars produced from: wood offcuts (Bo), sunflower husks (Bs), raspberry stems (Br) and potato stems (Bp) incubated at 60% WHC (avg. \pm SD, n = 3).

Table 2. Methane uptake and accompanying carbon dioxide emission rate for the entire biochar incubation period with 1% CH₄ (v/v)

Biochar type	CH4 uptake rate (CH ₄ uptake rate (mg CH ₄ -C kg ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)		CO_2 emission rate (mg CO_2 -C kg ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	
	60% WHC	100% WHC	60% WHC	100% WHC	
Bo	$0.17^{\rm a}\pm0.06$	$0.33^{\text{A}} \pm 0.18$	$19.98^{\circ} \pm 1.22$	$21.62^{\circ} \pm 1.32$	
Bs	$2.74^{\rm b}\pm0.57$	$1.51^{A} \pm 0.55$	$3.88^{\mathrm{a}}\pm0.08$	$2.44^{\text{A}} \pm 0.33$	
Br	$5.78^{\rm c}\pm0.17$	$3.03^{\rm B}\pm0.35$	$9.05^{\mathrm{b}}\pm0.40$	$6.72^{\rm B} \pm 0.16$	
Bp	$8.01^{\text{d}}\pm0.47$	$5.52^{\circ} \pm 0.81$	$8.39^{\mathrm{b}}\pm0.35$	$2.55^{\text{A}} \pm 0.04$	

Different letters indicate significant differences between biochars, separately for 60% (small letters) and 100% WHC (capital letters), separately for CH_4 and CO_2 , Tukey test, p < 0.05.



Fig. 2. Uptake of added CH₄ (1% v/v) (a), which accompanies CO₂ production (b) and O₂ uptake (c) by four biochars produced from: wood offcuts (Bo), sunflower husks (Bs), raspberry stems (Br) and potato stems (Bp) incubated at 100% WHC (avg. \pm SD, n = 3).

while the CO₂ concentration determined in the other tested biochars remained below 300 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹. The Br and Bp biochars showed similar dynamics and CO₂ production rates (respectively: 9.05 ± 0.40 and 8.39 ± 0.35 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹). At 60% WHC moisture level, the production of CO₂ was definitely lowest in Bs (with a rate of 3.88 ± 0.08 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹) where the final concentration of this gas didn't exceed 130 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹.

The highest CO_2 production by Bo corresponded to its highest O_2 uptake. At 60% WHC, the differences in the O_2 uptake of new biochar were clearly visible (Fig. 1c). During incubation, the oxygen level dropped to 12.8 and 9.8% in Br and Bp respectively while for the Bs and Bo variants, the final O_2 levels were as low as 6.5 and 5.7%, respectively (v/v).

Biochars incubated at higher moisture levels (100% WHC) showed different dynamics of CH₄ uptake. Within the applied timeframes, none of the tested biochars absorbed all of the added CH₄ (Fig. 2a). The lag phases were generally longer than at 60% WHC, and CH₄ absorption was slower. Methane uptake rates in potato (Bp) and raspberry (Br) stem biochar reached values of 5.52 ± 0.81 and 3.03 ± 0.35 mg CH₄-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively (Table 2). The lag phases in the Bp and Br biochars lasted for about 16 and 18 days, respectively. The CH₄ uptake rate by Bp was highest and resulted in a reduction of 87% in the added CH₄.

Biochar type	Moisture WHC (%)	GWP-CO ₂	GWP-CH ₄	Net GWP
			(g CO _{2(eq)} kg ⁻¹)	
Во	60	$2.049^{d}\pm 0.125$	$-0.035^{a} \pm 0.009$	$2.014^{\circ} \pm 0.120$
	100	$2.217^{\circ} \pm 0.135$	$-0.096^{A} \pm 0.043$	$2.122^{B} \pm 0.100$
Bs	60	$0.398^{\mathrm{a}}\pm0.008$	$-0.382^{b} \pm 0.129$	$0.016^{a} \pm 0.137$
	100	$0.250^{\rm A} \pm 0.034$	$-0.565^{B} \pm 0.204$	$-0.315^{A} \pm 0.217$
Br	60	$0.928^{\circ} \pm 0.041$	$-2.805^{\circ} \pm 0.082$	$-1.876^{b} \pm 0.085$
	100	$0.690^{\rm B} \pm 0.016$	$-1.131^{\circ} \pm 0.130$	$-0.441^{A} \pm 0.115$
Bp	60	$0.696^{\rm b} \pm 0.012$	$-2.883^{\circ} \pm 0.009$	$-2.187^{d} \pm 0.021$
	100	$0.262^{\rm A} \pm 0.004$	$-2.440^{\rm D} \pm 0.088$	$-2.178^{\circ} \pm 0.091$

Table 3. Global warming potential (GWP) contributions from CO_2 emission and CH_4 uptake by biochars (Bo, Bs, Br and Bp) incubated under 60 and 100% WHC (calculated based on GHGs data for the last incubation day)

Different letters indicate significant differences between biochars, separately for 60% (small letters) and 100% WHC (capital letters), Tukey test, p < 0.05.

Despite a lower CH₄ uptake rate than Bp, Br was also able to remove a relatively large portion of the CH₄ added (*ca.* 39% of the initial level). Clearly, less CH₄ was taken up by Bs and Bo, as at 100% WHC those biochars absorbed just $15.14 \pm 5.46 \text{ mg CH}_4\text{-C kg}^{-1}$ (*ca.* 17%) and $2.56 \pm 1.14 \text{ mg}$ CH₄-C kg⁻¹ (*ca.* 3%) respectively, after quite a long lag phase duration (18 days) (Fig. 2a).

The CO₂ emissions of the new Bp and Br biochars at 100% WHC were also lower than at 60% WHC (Fig. 2b). The rate of CO₂ emission by the wood offcuts biochar (Bo) was not significantly affected by the tested moisture conditions, it showed the highest production among the tested materials (Table 2). The Br biochar was characterized by a medium CO₂ production rate $(6.72 \pm 0.16 \text{ mg CO}_2\text{-C kg}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1})$ (Table 2), but the final concentration didn't exceed 200 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ At 100% WHC, the tested Bp and Bs showed similarly low CO₂ production rates (Bp: 2.55 ± 0.04 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ and Bs: 2.44 ± 0.33 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹). For these variants, the final gas concentration was below 100 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹. With regard to O₂ uptake, under given conditions, it was highest in the Bo and Bs incubations, with significantly lower values in Br and Bp (Fig. 2c).

The CO_2/O_2 ratio at 60% WHC had the following values: 0.65 (Bo), 0.23 (Br and Bp) and 0.19 (Bs). At 100% WHC, the CO_2/O_2 ratio was generally lower than at 60% WHC: 0.45 (Bo), 0.15 (Br), 0.07 (Bs) and 0.06 (Bp).

The values of net GWP which were calculated for each biochar under the tested moisture conditions are presented in Table 3.

DISCUSSION

Biochar is currently the focus of attention for scientists worldwide as a useful and beneficial soil additive. To date, however, most studies have been focused on gas exchange and microbial activity in biochar mixed with soil (Han *et al.*, 2016; He *et al.*, 2017; Lehmann *et al.*, 2011). Only a small group of studies have described the sole incubation of biochars. Moreover, those experiments were performed with the use of small portions of biochar (less than 1g) (Spokas and Reicosky, 2009; Thomazini *et al.*, 2015). In those studies, the uptake of CH₄ and CO₂ emissions brought about by the biochar, could usually be explained by abiotic processes (Jeffery *et al.*, 2016; Thomazini *et al.*, 2015). In our study, we presented newly developed biochars from common agricultural wastes. To the best of our knowledge, these materials had not been considered at the time of writing.

The new biochars from raspberry and potato stems were prepared under comparable temperature conditions as widely available materials produced from common feedstocks (wood offcuts and sunflower husks) (Sokołowska *et al.*, 2020; Zubkova *et al.*, 2019). Considering their potential application to soil we determined their basic physicochemical properties (Table 1). It was found that the newly produced materials may improve the soil environment by increasing C and N content, the pH value (of acidic soils) and water storage ability (especially under drought conditions); this corresponds with current, global-scale problems. With respect to the aforementioned advantages, the newly developed biochars from raspberry (Br) and potato (Bp) stems seem to be even better than the well-known wood offcuts (Bo) and sunflower husk (Bs) biochars.

According to Thomazini *et al.* (2015), CH₄ uptake by wood chip biochar (produced at 550°C) wasn't observed, while CO₂ emissions from this material were 24 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ (in moisture conditions of 0.3 mL water per 1 g biochar). In our study, the wood offcuts biochar showed a similar CO₂ production rate (19.98 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 60% WHC and 21.62 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 100% WHC) and CH₄ uptake was also not observed. In contrast to this result, the potato stem biochar showed a three-fold lower CO₂ production rate at 60% WHC (8.39 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹), while at 100% WHC this rate was nearly 10 times lower (2.55 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹) than that found in the Thomazini *et al.* (2015) study. At 60% WHC, the CO₂ production rate of raspberry stem biochar (9.05 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹) was at a similar level to Bp. Furthermore, potato stem and raspberry stem biochars also demonstrated a high level of CH₄ removal.

Spokas and Reicosky (2009) tested 16 different biochars in terms of CH₄ uptake and CO₂ production. Only three wet biochars (1 mL H₂O per 0.5 g biochar) from this group showed an ability for CH4 uptake. Peanut hull biochar and corn stover biochar had an identical methane uptake rate $(2.6 \pm 0.6 \text{ ng CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1})$. The biochar whose feedstock was BiosourceTM showed the highest methane uptake rate of all $(4.1 \pm 0.9 \text{ ng CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1})$. On the other hand, those biochars exhibited a high rate of CO₂ production: peanut hull biochar $168.5 \pm 23.5 \ \mu g \ CO_2 \ g^{-1} \ d^{-1}$; corn stover biochar 162.4 \pm 15.0 µg CO₂ g⁻¹ d⁻¹ and biochar with BiosourceTM as a feedstock produced as much as $1022.4 \pm 109 \,\mu g \, \text{CO}_2 \, \text{g}^{-1} \, \text{d}^{-1}$ (Spokas and Reicosky, 2009). In our study, the methane uptake rate of the raspberry stem biochar at 60% WHC was 5.78 ± 0.17 mg CH₄-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ (corresponding to 7 706.66 ± 226.66 ng CH_4 g⁻¹ d⁻¹). The potato stem biochar at a similar moisture level showed an even higher rate at 8.01 ± 0.47 mg CH_4 -C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ (corresponding to 10 680 ± 626.66 ng CH_4 $g^{-1} d^{-1}$). Therefore, the methane uptake rates of the biochars were several thousand times higher than any biochar tested by Spokas and Reicosky (2009). It is important to note that during efficient methane absorption by biochar from raspberry and potato stems, CO₂ emissions remained at a very low level. At 60% WHC, the average CO₂ production rate from the raspberry stem biochar was 9.05 ± 0.40 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ (corresponding to $33.15 \pm 1.47 \ \mu g \ CO_2 \ g^{-1} \ d^{-1}$). The biochar that was the most effective at methane removal, the one made from potato stems, showed an even lower CO₂ production rate, 8.39 ± 0.35 mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ (corresponding to $30.73 \pm 1.28 \ \mu g \ CO_2 \ g^{-1} \ d^{-1}$).

As yet, there are only a few studies describing the potential of biochars to remove CH_4 present at higher than ambient concentrations. However, this is particularly important when considering the use of biochar as a gas sorbent in ecosystems with increased CH_4 concentrations, such as those occurring in periodically waterlogged arable soils, paddy fields and landfills (Malyan *et al.*, 2016; Reddy *et al.*, 2014; Walkiewicz *et al.*, 2020a). For this reason, we included a widely available biochar from common feed-stock (Bo) in our experiment. However, Syed *et al.* (2016) conducted a long-term incubation of biochar from pine bark (prepared by pyrolysis at 450°C) at changing CH_4 concentrations. According to that study, non-inoculated biochar

was able to remove from 25% to over 80% of 10000 ppm (1%) CH₄, but a higher effectiveness of methane removal was observed only after 100 days of incubation.

The mechanisms of effective removal of methane by raspberry and potato stem biochars haven't been elucidated yet. The pattern of CH4 uptake in our experiment with a multi-day lag phase and a gradual decrease in CH₄ concentration may suggest biological oxidation, especially in the case of the newly produced biochars (Br and Bp). Further evidence for the microbial mechanism of the observed CH₄ oxidation may be deduced from the parallel CO_2 emission and O_2 consumption which were higher at 60% WHC (Fig. 1). These incubation conditions (including a temperature of 25°C) are widely accepted as optimal for methanotrophic bacteria (Malyan et al., 2016; Skopp et al., 1990; Walkiewicz et al., 2020b). In fact, biochar may contribute to CO₂ emissions both biotically (via microbial degradation) and abiotically (via the release of inorganic C contained in the biochar (Gomez et al., 2014; Gul et al., 2015; Jones et al., 2011). In the case of the exclusively physical interaction of biochar with the tested gases, higher CO₂ emissions would be expected under full saturation conditions (100% WHC). Carbon dioxide binds to oxygen-containing functional groups via hydrogen bonds (Banik *et al.*, 2018). Thus, water molecules and CO_2 are likely to adsorb to similar functional groups. As such, the direct competition for active sites between water and CO₂ molecules may be observed resulting in higher desorption rates at 100% WHC (Pytlak et al., 2020). The lower bulk density of the new biochars (Br and Bp) in comparison with the well-known materials (Bo and Bs) may result in a higher degree of aeration, gas availability and surface area available for microbial colonization (Table 1). In a field experiment described by Noyce et al. (2016) DNA was isolated from biochar which had a long-term (four year) contact with soil. That study showed that biochar was inhabited by similar groups of microorganisms as the adjacent soil. Also, the studies on biochar inoculated with methanogenic Archaea confirm that it may be inhabited by microbes, despite the poor habitat conditions (Schwede et al., 2017).

Along with the advantageous environmental effects of biochar application to soil it is important to consider some economic aspects. Biochar production under anaerobic and high temperature pyrolysis is associated with considerable costs. High energy use leads to adverse environmental consequences as it generates GHGs, mainly CO₂ (Fungo *et al.*, 2014). It should be noted, however, that biochar has the ability to remove CH₄ which (mole for mole) has a Global Warming Potential several dozen times higher than the CO₂ emitted during energy production (Wu *et al.*, 2019). CO₂ was also emitted during the incubation time and that allowed for the determination two important biochar parameters. The first is the CO₂/O₂ ratio, which may be considered as a biochar stability parameter. A low

 CO_2/O_2 ratio indicates higher biochar stability. Accordingly, it may be assumed that biochar from Bp and Bs (at 100%) WHC) were the most stable, while the one originating from Bo showed the lowest stability under both moisture levels. Moreover, CO₂ production during biochar incubation were more variable than O₂ uptake, which was similar to the results observed by Almeida et al. (2019). The climate change mitigation potential of biochars, may be expressed as the changes in the global warming potential (GWP) of the gases which are either adsorbed or released during incubation. It was observed that the effect of biochars on CH₄ and CO₂ exchange depended on the feedstock type and moisture level. At 60% WHC, the change in net GWP in the headspace of potato (Bp) and raspberry (Br) biochar incubations was negative and amounted to -2.187 and -1.876 g $CO_2(eq)$ kg⁻¹, respectively. These values resulted from the great potential of the new biochars to adsorb CH₄. For the sunflower husk biochar (Bs) incubations, net GWP was close to zero (0.016 g $CO_2(eq)$ kg⁻¹) while for the wood offcuts biochar (Bo) it was positive (2.014 g CO₂(eq) kg⁻¹) which was a consequence of the highest CO₂ production and minimal CH₄ absorption. At 100% WHC, net GWP in incubations with Bp was characterized by similar negative values (-2.178 g $CO_2(eq)$ kg⁻¹) as at lower moisture levels. That confirmed usefulness of Bp, especially for waterlogged ecosystems emitting CH₄ into the atmosphere. At higher moisture levels, in the Br and Bs headspaces, net GWP was still negative, yet lower, not exceeding -0.5. At both moisture levels studied, Bo incubations were characterized by a strongly positive net GWP (2.122 g $CO_2(eq)$) kg⁻¹) value. The negative net GWP values (Table 3) and relatively high Br and Bp stability under both moisture levels could be the economic and environmental justification for the application of new biochars. Furthermore, the positive effects of soil enrichment with biochar are long-lasting and apply to many areas, *i.e.* fertility, hydrological and aeration conditions which result in increased crop productivity and a reduced necessity for agrotechnical practices. The tradeoffs of economic profits and a reduction in GHG emissions should be included in the evaluations of the consequences of biochar application.

Therefore, it is important to continue research with biochars from new materials produced at lower temperatures in order to find optimal pyrolysis parameters to combine the lowest possible economical costs with maintained or even improved expected properties.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The methane uptake of four biochars was evaluated in a lab experiment. The results showed that two new biochars (from potato and raspberry stems) were able to efficiently remove added 1% CH₄, especially at 60% water holding capacity.

2. The high CH_4 consumption presented by the new biochars has great potential compared to common biochars from wood offcuts or sunflower husks and this could be a way of managing agricultural waste.

3. The advantage of new biochars from raspberry and potato stems over wood offcuts biochar is their significantly lower production of carbon dioxide, yet high methane absorption potential. At 60% water holding capacity, as well as at 100% water holding capacity, the potato stem biochar still showed the highest CH_4 uptake rates with relatively low CO_2 emission and O_2 uptake. Hence the potato stem biochar may be a good choice in ecosystems characterized by relatively high methane concentrations, such as periodically flooded and waterlogged areas, landfills or paddy fields.

4. Based on the CO_2/O_2 ratio, the biochars from sunflower husks and potato stems (at 100% water holding capacity) were the most stable, between the materials tested.

5. As a consequence, it is reasonable to carry out both short-term and long-term studies concerning the various sorptions and emissions of gases by these biochars. It should also be considered whether the observed greenhouse gas dynamics are dependent on physical or biological factors. Knowledge concerning the properties of biochars which enhance methane removal could be used to increase the filtration potential of these highly promising materials

Conflict of interest: The authors do not declare conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

- Almeida R.F., Spokas K.A., Teixeira D.B., and La Scala Jr, N., 2019. Biochar insights from laboratory incubations monitoring O₂ consumption and CO₂ production. Biochar, https://doi.org/10.1007/s42773-019-00021-6
- Banik C., Lawrinenko M., Bakshi S., and Laird D.A., 2018. Impact of pyrolysis temperature and feedstock on surface charge and functional group chemistry of biochars. J. Environ. Qual., 47, 452-461. https://doi.org/10.2134/ jeq2017.11.0432
- Chistoserdova L. and Kalyuzhnaya M.G., 2018. Current trends in methylotrophy. Trends Microbiol., 26, 703-714. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2018.01.011
- Coomes O.T. and Miltner B.C., 2017. Indigenous charcoal and biochar production: potential for soil improvement under shifting cultivation systems. L. Degrad. Dev., 28, 811-821. https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.2500
- Farzad S., Taghikhani V., Aminshahidi B., and Lay E.N., 2007. Experimental and theoretical study of the effect of moisture on methane adsorption and desorption by activated carbon at 273. 5 K. J. Nat. Gas Chem., 16, 22-30. https:// doi.org/10.1016/s1003-9953(07)60021-8
- Fungo B., Guerena D., Thiongo M., Lehmann J., Neufeldt H., and Kalbitz K., 2014. N₂O and CH₄ emission from soil amended with steam-activated biochar. J. Plant Nutr. Soil Sci., 177, 34-38. https://doi.org/10.1002/jpln.201300495

- Gomez J.D., Denef K., Stewart C.E., Zheng J., and Cotrufo M.F., 2014. Biochar addition rate influences soil microbial abundance and activity in temperate soils. Eur. J. Soil Sci., 65, 28-39. https://doi.org/10.1111/ejss.12097
- Gul S., Whalen J.K., Thomas B.W., Sachdeva V., and Deng H., 2015. Physico-chemical properties and microbial responses in biochar-amended soils: Mechanisms and future directions. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ., 206, 46-59. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.agee.2015.03.015
- Guo W., Feng L., Wu D., Zhang C., and Tian X., 2019. Effectiveness of flame for preplant pest management in leaf vegetable fields. Horttechnology, 29, 788-794. https://doi. org/10.21273/HORTTECH04341-19
- Han X., Sun X., Wang C., Wu M., Dong D., Zhong T., Thies J.E., and Wu W., 2016. Mitigating methane emission from paddy soil with rice-straw biochar amendment under projected climate change. Sci. Rep., 6, 1-10. https://doi. org/10.1038/srep24731
- He Y., Zhou X., Jiang L., Li M., Du Z., Zhou G., Shao J., Wang X., Xu Z., Hosseini Bai S., Wallace H., and Xu C., 2017. Effects of biochar application on soil greenhouse gas fluxes: a meta-analysis. GCB Bioenergy, 9, 743-755. https://doi. org/10.1111/gcbb.12376
- Huang D., Yang L., Ko J.H., and Xu Q., 2019. Comparison of the methane-oxidizing capacity of landfill cover soil amended with biochar produced using different pyrolysis temperatures. Sci. Total Environ., 693, 133594. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.133594
- IPCC, **2014.** Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9781107415416
- Jeffery S., Verheijen F.G.A., Kammann C., and Abalos D., 2016. Soil Biology and biochemistry biochar effects on methane emissions from soils: A meta-analysis. Soil Biol. Biochem., 101, 251-258.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2016.07.021

- Jones D.L., Murphy D. V., Khalid M., Ahmad W., Edwards-Jones G., and DeLuca T.H., 2011. Short-term biochar-induced increase in soil CO₂ release is both biotically and abiotically mediated. Soil Biol. Biochem., 43, 1723-1731. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2011.04.018
- Kammann C., Ippolito J., Hagemann N., Borchard N., Cayuela M.L., Estavillo J.M., Fuertes-Mendizabal T., Jeffery S., Kern J., Novak J., Rasse D., Saarnio S., Schmidt H.P., Spokas K., and Wrage-Mönnig N., 2017. Biochar as a tool to reduce the agricultural greenhouse-gas burden-knowns, unknowns and future research needs. J. Environ. Eng. Landsc. Manag., 25, 114-139. https://doi.org /10.3846/16486897.2017.1319375
- La H., Hettiaratchi J.P.A., Achari G., Verbeke T.J., and Dunfield P.F., 2018. Biofiltration of methane using hybrid mixtures of biochar, lava rock and compost. Environ. Pollut., 241, 45-54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2018.05.039

- Lehmann J., Rillig M.C., Thies J., Masiello C.A., Hockaday W.C., and Crowley D., 2011. Biochar effects on soil biota - A review. Soil Biol. Biochem., 43, 1812-1836. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2011.04.022
- Lehmann J. and Rondon M., 2006. Bio-char soil management on highly weathered soils in the humid tropics. Biological Approaches to Sustainable Soil Systems, 3, 517-530. https://doi.org/10.1201/9781420017113.ch36
- Luo Y., Yu Z., Zhang K., Xu J., and Brookes P.C., 2016. The properties and functions of biochars in forest ecosystems. J. Soils Sediments, 16, 2005-2020. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11368-016-1483-5
- Mackay G.R., 2009. New light on a hidden treasure. Rome: FAO, 136, Exp. Agric., 45, 376-376. https://doi.org/10.1017/ s0014479709007686
- Malyan S.K., Bhatia A., Kumar A., Gupta D.K., Singh R., Kumar S.S., Tomer R., Kumar O., and Jain N., 2016. Methane production, oxidation and mitigation: A mechanistic understanding and comprehensive evaluation of influencing factors. Sci. Total Environ., 572, 874-896. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.07.182
- Noyce G.L., Winsborough C., Fulthorpe R., and Basiliko N., 2016. The microbiomes and metagenomes of forest biochars. Sci. Rep., 6, 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep26425
- Özçimen D. and Karaosmanoğlu F., 2004. Production and characterization of bio-oil and biochar from rapeseed cake. Renew. Energy, 29, 779-787. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. renene.2003.09.006
- Pytlak A., Stępniewska Z., Kuźniar A., Szafranek-Nakonieczna A., Wolińska A., and Banach A., 2014. Potential for aerobic methane oxidation in carboniferous coal measures. Geomicrobiol. J., 31, 737-747. https://doi.org/10.1080/014 90451.2014.889783
- Pytlak A., Sujak A., Szafranek-Nakonieczna A., Grządziel J., Banach A., Goraj W., Gruszecki W.I., and Stępniewska Z., 2020. Water-induced molecular changes of hard coals and lignites. Int. J. Coal Geol., 224, 103481. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.coal.2020.103481
- Qi L., Pokharel P., Ni C., Gong X., Zhou P., Niu H., Wang Z., and Gao M., 2020. Biochar changes thermal activation of greenhouse gas emissions in a rice-lettuce rotation microcosm experiment. J. Clean. Prod., 247. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.119148
- Reddy K.R., Yargicoglu E.N., Yue D., and Yaghoubi P., 2014. Enhanced microbial methane oxidation in landfill cover soil amended with biochar. J. Geotech. Geoenvironmental Eng., 140, 1-11.

https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)GT.1943-5606.0001148

- Ribas A., Mattana S., Llurba R., Debouk H., Sebastià M.T., and Domene X., 2019. Biochar application and summer temperatures reduce N₂O and enhance CH₄ emissions in a Mediterranean agroecosystem: Role of biologicallyinduced anoxic microsites. Sci. Total Environ., 685, 1075-1086. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.06.277
- Schwede S., Bruchmann F., Thorin E., and Gerber M., 2017. Biological syngas methanation via immobilized methanogenic archaea on biochar. Energy Procedia, 105, 823-829. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egypro.2017.03.396

- Skopp J., Jawson M.D., and Doran J.W., 1990. Steady-state aerobic microbial activity as a function of soil water content. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J., 54, 1619-1625. https://doi. org/10.2136/sssaj1990.03615995005400060018x
- Sokołowska Z., Szewczuk-Karpisz K., Turski M., Tomczyk A., Cybulak M., and Skic K., 2020. Effect of wood waste and sunflower husk biochar on tensile strength and porosity of dystric cambisol artificial aggregates. Agronomy, 10. https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy10020244
- Spokas K.A. and Reicosky D.C., 2009. Impacts of sixteen different biochars on soil greenhouse gas production. Ann. Environ. Sci., 3, 179-193.
- Syed R., Saggar S., Tate K., and Rehm B.H.A., 2016. Assessment of farm soil, biochar, compost and weathered pine mulch to mitigate methane emissions. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol., 100, 9365-9379.

https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-016-7794-z

- Thomazini A., Spokas K., Hall K., Ippolito J., Lentz R., and Novak J., 2015. GHG impacts of biochar: Predictability for the same biochar. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ., 207, 183-191. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2015.04.012
- Tomczyk A., 2020. Biochar physicochemical properties: pyrolysis temperature and feedstock kind effects. Rev. Environ. Sci. Bio/Technol., 19, 191-215. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s11157-020-09523-3
- Vincent C., Hallman G., Panneton B., and Fleurat-Lessard F., 2003. Management of agricultural insects with physical control methods. Annu. Rev. Entomol., 48, 261-281. https:// doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ento.48.091801.112639
- Walkiewicz A., Brzezińska M., Wnuk E., and Jabloński B., 2020a. Soil properties and not high CO₂ affect CH₄ production and uptake in periodically waterlogged arable soils. J. Soils Sediments, 20, 1231-1240. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s11368-019-02525-x
- Walkiewicz A., Kalinichenko K., Kubaczyński A., Brzezińska M., and Bieganowski A., 2020b. Usage of biochar for mitigation of CO₂ emission and enhancement of CH₄ consumption in forest and orchard Haplic Luvisol (Siltic) soils. Appl. Soil Ecol., 156. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2020.103711

Wu Z., Song Y., Shen H., Jiang X., Li B., and Xiong Z., 2019. Biochar can mitigate methane emissions by improving methanotrophs for prolonged period in fertilized paddy soils. Environ. Pollut., 253, 1038-1046. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.envpol.2019.07.073

- Xiong X., Liu X., Yu I.K.M., Wang L., Zhou J., Sun X., Rinklebe J., Shaheen S.M., Ok Y.S., Lin Z., and Tsang D.C.W., 2019. Potentially toxic elements in solid waste streams: Fate and management approaches. Environ. Pollut., 253, 680-707. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2019.07.012
- Yang T., Sun W., and Yue D., 2017. Characterizing the effects of biologically active covers on landfill methane emission flux and bio-oxidation. J. Environ. Eng. (United States), 143, 1-9. https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)EE.1943-7870.0001251
- Yoo G., Kim H., Chen J., and Kim Y., 2014. Effects of biochar addition on nitrogen leaching and soil structure following fertilizer application to rice paddy soil. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J., 78, 852-860. https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj2013.05.0160
- Yu L., Tang J., Zhang R., Wu Q., and Gong M., 2012. Effects of biochar application on soil methane emission at different soil moisture levels. Biol. Fertil. Soils, 49. https://doi. org/10.1007/s00374-012-0703-4
- Yu Z., Chen L., Pan S., Li Y., Kuzyakov Y., Xu J., Brookes P.C., and Luo Y., 2018. Feedstock determines biocharinduced soil priming effects by stimulating the activity of specific microorganisms. Eur. J. Soil Sci., 69, 521-534. https://doi.org/10.1111/ejss.12542
- Zaremba Ł., 2014. Polish and global market of raspberries and their preserves (in Polish). Zesz. Nauk. Szk. Głównej Gospod. Wiej. w Warszawie Probl. Rol. Światowego, 14(29), 148-156.
- Zubkova V., Strojwas A., Bielecki M., Kieush L., and Koverya A., 2019. Comparative study of pyrolytic behavior of the biomass wastes originating in the Ukraine and potential application of such biomass. Part 1. Analysis of the course of pyrolysis process and the composition of formed products. Fuel, 254, 115688.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2019.115688