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Tracking N-cycling genes in biochar-supplemented ecosystems: A perspective

CH Orr¹, TK Ralebitso-Senior^{1*}

Abstract

Introduction

Since biochar has the potential to mitigate climate change and enhance agricultural outputs, new research is exploring its dual role relative to greenhouse gas emissions from agronomic soils, with particular focus on nitrous oxide (N₂O). It is well accepted that definitive investigations of sustainable contemporary biochar applications in different (bio) technologies must be underpinned by combined physico-chemical and microecophysiological analyses. Nevertheless, recent nitrogen cycle research has measured principally the occurrence and emission of different N species to then infer shifts in microbial activity in response to biochar augmentation, with a few emerging studies assessing its effects on the functional genes/communities. As a result, a wide scope for critical and exciting research exists. This must be informed by comprehensive multidisciplinary studies of the dynamics of functional N-cycle genes, enzymes, strains and communities across different ecosystems and environmental biotechnologies – agriculture, contaminant remediation, wastewater treatment, malodorous gas biofiltration and landfill. This review aims to summarize the state-of-the-art and highlight critical research that is required to assess the effect of biochar addition on N-cycling in different ecosystems.

Conclusion

We conclude that despite emerging research there are still critical knowledge gaps on the microbial response to biochar, which need to be addressed before the material can be

applied in specific key environmental biotechnologies.

Introduction

Char/biochar has multiple and memorable descriptors including: (i) charcoal used to sequester carbon and supplement soil; (ii) a recalcitrant carbon-rich compound that is a by-product of pyrolysis of organic wastes and other biomass; (iii) “black is the new green”; and (iv) the new “black gold” (e.g.^{1,2}).

These encapsulate its extensive, but as yet little, exploited potential to address several key challenges across the spectrum of climate change mitigation, global agricultural productivity demand, sustainable carbon-neutral energy production, and contaminant attenuation.

Although the combined and enhanced roles of biochar and soil microbial populations are recognised, a considerable paucity of knowledge remains on its impacts on microbial diversity and functional response, in general, and nitrogen cycling, in particular.

Depending on the feedstock and pyrolysis production conditions, different biochars may be applied to pristine (agricultural) land or used for different waste managements² (Figure 1). Therefore, this perspective considers the current understanding and identifies the knowledge gaps in biochar-induced microbial dynamics of the N-cycle in agronomic and non-agronomic contexts. The latter exploitation potentials include environmental biotechnologies such as contaminated soil/sediment remediation, wastewater treatment, malodorous gas biofiltration and landfill gas and leachate attenuation.

The aim is to present a cohesive and succinct synopsis of key findings published up to 2014 and extend existing comprehensive reviews

related directly^{3,4,5,6,7} and indirectly^{8,9,10} to nitrogen-biochar interactions.

Generally, focussed overlaps of current discussions identify viable, innovative and empirical research, and justify new studies, that must underpin informed and sustainable exploitation of biochar relative to the nitrogen biogeochemical cycle.

Discussion

The authors have referenced some of their own studies in this review. The protocols of these studies have been approved by the relevant ethics committees related to the institution in which they were performed.

Agronomic contexts

Quilliam et al.¹¹ reviewed critically biochar beneficiation of agricultural soils through a range of mechanisms. Protracted C storage, reduced nutrient leaching, pesticide adsorption and soil physico-chemical parameter effects, which may, subsequently, have positive impacts on microbial activity, were all identified. Collectively, these may lead to increased crop yields, which are often attributed to increased activity and diversity of specific functional soil microorganisms¹².

After water, nitrogen is a key plant growth limiter that is needed in relatively high concentrations (20-40 Kg ha⁻¹ every 3 months) by most agricultural crops¹³. For nitrogen to be used by crops it must be available in the correct moiety.

Consequently, considerable energy inputs are necessitated by the Haber Process to manufacture ammonia-based fertilizers and so incur a high carbon footprint. Therefore, biochar-promoted fixation to increase soil nitrogen capital (Figure 1) could reduce this dependency provided that the potential attendant benefits of inimical N₂O emission mitigation are proven.

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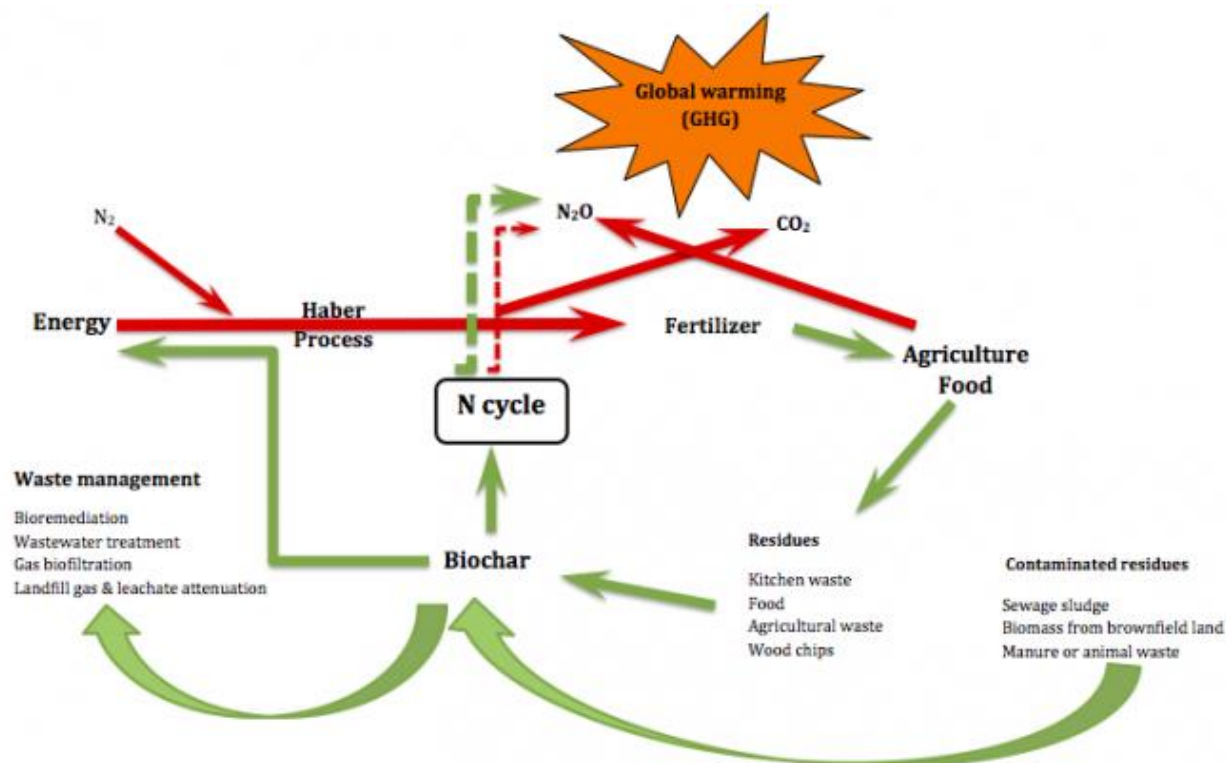


Figure 1: Climate change imperatives: Potential nitrogen cycle-biochar interactions. (Red arrows indicate inimical impacts, Green arrows highlight positive exploitation potential, Dashed arrows identify potential to mitigate (green) or increase (red) N₂O emission.).

Previous publications^{3,4,5,7} have reported nitrogen species amount and type differences resulting from biochar applications with nitrate and ammonia absorption, decreased nutrient leaching and reduced emissions of greenhouse gas nitrous oxide.

The nitrogen cycle is characterised by three principal microbial-mediated processes: nitrogen fixation; nitrification; and denitrification.

Consequently, several genes that encode key enzymes are identified routinely to measure changes in their respective functional microbial communities. The most common are: *nifH* encoding nitrogenase, essential for nitrogen fixation; *amoA* encoding ammonium monooxygenase, for nitrification; and *nirS*, *nirK* and *nosZ*, for different stages of denitrification. The *nir* genes encode nitrate reductase, for reducing nitrate-N to nitric oxide, while *nosZ* encodes nitrous oxide reductase, which reduces N₂O to N₂. Most published investigations of the effects of biochar

on N cycling have, however, quantified different N species and, through data extrapolation, assumed microbial activity changes^{5,14,15}. For direct microbial response studies, terminal-restriction fragment polymorphisms (TRFLP), 454 sequencing and real-time or quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) were the most common approaches but these recorded variable results (Table 1).

Wang et al.¹⁶ researched biochar supplemented pig manure compost piles and correlated *nosZ* copy number increases to short-term N₂O emission decreases. Harter et al.¹⁷, Ducey et al.¹⁸ and Anderson et al.¹⁹ used qPCR to measure nitrogen cycling gene copy numbers in various experiments. Specifically, Anderson et al.¹⁹ determined *nirS*, *nirK* and *nosZ* genes in a field experiment and recorded increased *nirS* and *nosZ* copies when biochar was added with exogenous nitrogen. Copy number increases for *nirS* occurred within the first 10 days whereas those for *nosZ* were recorded > 20 days. Ducey et

al.¹⁸ and Harter et al.¹⁷ measured *nifH*, *amoA*, *nirK*, *nirS* and *nosZ* in pot experiments with the former team reporting increases in the *nirS* and *nifH* copy numbers and the latter observing an increase in *nosZ*.

Generally, these studies reported consistent increases in nitrogen cycling gene copy numbers in response to biochar augmentation in the presence of inorganic N. This mirrors conventional farming practices but suggests that biochar addition could have a lesser impact in low-input and organically managed farmland.

Although qPCR analysis results are indicative of functional microbial community activity, they do not show diversity changes hence TRFLP and 454 sequencing approaches have been applied^{19,20,21}. Dempster et al.²¹, for example, used community level physiological profiling to assess the heterotrophic microbial community, in general, and TRFLP for *amoA* gene-based nitrification, specifically.

Biochar supplementation effected structure changes and decreased

Table 1: Summary of biochar type, application regime, analyses, N-cycle genes targeted and N-molecule dynamics.

Biochar substrate	Pyrolysis conditions -T and residence time	Biochar application regime	Soil type or properties	Analyses	N-cycle genes	N-molecule dynamics	References
Monterey pine (<i>Pinus radiata</i>)	500°C	0, 15 and 30 t ha ⁻¹ ; Field plots before soil was used for pot experiments	Templeton silt-loam	TRFLP & 454 sequencing of 16S rRNA	n/a	n/a	Anderson et al 2011 [20]
Coppiced woodlands	500°C	0, 3 and 6 kg m ⁻² ; 3 and 14 months	Silty-loam growing wheat (cv. <i>Neolatino</i>)	Measured emissions of N ₂ O, CH ₄ and CO ₂	n/a	Lowered N ₂ O emissions but did not affect net nitrification rates	Castaldi et al 2011 [27]
Monterey pine (<i>Pinus radiata</i>)	500°C	Lysimeters; Various ratios of biochar and biosolids	Templeton silt-loam; Ashley Dene silt-loam	Chemical analysis	n/a	Reduction in nitrate leaching	Knowles et al 2011 [28]
Jarrah wood (<i>Eucalyptus marginata</i>)	600°C for 24 hours	0, 5, 25 t ha ⁻¹ ; With organic (500 kg ha ⁻¹) or inorganic (100 kg ha ⁻¹) N; Wheat field	Grey Orthic Tenosol	TRFLP of <i>amoA</i> and CLPP	<i>amoA</i>	Decrease in N mineralization, change in AOB community structure when biochar added in combination with inorganic N.	Dempster et al 2012 [21]
Green waste	550°C	0.5%(w/w) anaerobic digestate, rapeseed meal, bioethanol residue or biochar; With organic supplements; Pot trials; 30 days	Arable Typic Dystrudept	Measured C, N, nitrate, ammonium, P, microbial biomass C and enzyme activity	n/a	No effect	Galvez et al 2012 [29]
Silage maize	350°C and 550°C	10 g fresh biochar kg ⁻¹ dry soil; Pot experiments; 168 hours after ¹⁵ N addition	Arable loamy sand soil	¹⁵ N tracing	n/a	Increased N mineralization, nitrification and ammonium consumption	Nelissen et al 2012 [14]
Rice husks	450°C	0, 10, 25 and 50 t ha ⁻¹ ; Pot experiments; With and without nitrogen fertilizer	Upland Orthic Anthrosols; Paddy Stagnic Anthrosols	Emissions of CO ₂ , CH ₄ and N ₂ O	n/a	Reduction in N ₂ O emissions when applied with N fertilizer	Wang et al 2012 [15]
Wheat straw	350-550°C	0, 10, 20 and 40 t ha ⁻¹	Hydroagric Stagnic Anthrosol	Emissions of CO ₂ , CH ₄ and N ₂ O	n/a	Decreased N ₂ O emissions	Zhang et al 2012 [26]
Brush	500°C	2% (w/w)	15 different agricultural soils	¹⁵ N tracing	n/a	Decreased N ₂ O emission	Cayuela et al 2013b APR [5]
Switchgrass (<i>Panicum virgatum</i>)	350°C and steam activated at 800°C	1%, 2%, 10% (w/w); Pot trials; 6 months	Portneuf (coarse-silty, mixed, superactive, mesic Durinodic Haplocalcid)	qPCR	<i>nifH</i> , <i>amoA</i> , <i>nirS</i> , <i>nirK</i> , <i>nosZ</i>	Increases in <i>nifH</i> and <i>nirS</i>	Ducey et al 2013 [18]

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Table 1: (continued)

Green waste	700°C	0%, 2%, 10% (w/w); 202 g field wet soil; Laboratory-scale microcosms	Calcaric Leptosol with ~50% (w/w/) gravel	qPCR;	nifH; amoA; nirK; nirS; nosZ	N ₂ O emission reduced	Harter et al 2013 [17]
Chipped trunks of <i>Fraxinus excelsior</i> L., <i>Fagus sylvatica</i> L. and <i>Quercus robur</i> L.	450°C for 48 hours	0, 25 and 50 t ha ⁻¹ ; Field plots; 3 years	Eutric Cambisol (sandy clay loam)	Quantify nodules on plant roots; Nitrogen fixation using acetylene reduction assay	n/a	Short term increase in nitrogen fixing ability which diminished over time	Quilliam et al 2013 MAY [30]
Anaerobically digested pig manure; Sitka Spruce (<i>Picea sitchensis</i>)	600°C	0 and 18 t ha ⁻¹ ; With pig manure	Acid Brown Earth	Measured N ₂ O and CO ₂ emissions	n/a	Increased N ₂ O emissions	Troy et al 2013 [31]
Bamboo	600°C	0 and 60 kg biochar + 1200 kg pig manure and 800 kg bulking agent; 82 days	n/a	qPCR and N ₂ O emission measurement	<i>nosZ</i> , <i>nirK</i> , <i>nirS</i>	Increased nitrite concentrations and N ₂ O emissions	Wang et al 2013 [16]
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	450°C	0, 15 and 30 t ha ⁻¹ ; In presence and absence of bovine urine; Field plots; 70 days	Templeton silt-loam	TRFLP & 454 sequencing (16S rRNA), & qPCR (N cycling)	<i>nirS</i> , <i>nirK</i> , <i>nosZ</i>	Increases in nitrifiers and denitrifiers number	Anderson et al 2014 [19]
Grass	400°C	0, 10, 50 and 120 t ha ⁻¹ ; Pot experiments; With red clover (<i>T. pratense</i> L.)	Grassland soil	¹⁵ N tracing and nodule count	n/a	Increased N fixation	Mia et al 2014 [32]
Willow; Pine; Maize; Wood mixture	350-650°C	20 t ha ⁻¹ ; With and without different fertilizers; Pot experiments; 14 days	Silt-loam or Luvisol	Measured emissions of N ₂ O and NO	n/a	Increased N ₂ O and NO emissions when applied in combination with urea and nitrate fertilizers	Nelissen et al 2014 [33]

diversity in the total heterotrophic community with the nitrifying associations affected only when organic/inorganic N sources were added. Anderson et al.^{19,20} applied TRFLP and 454 sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene to monitor shifts in microbial diversity. Although both studies showed no overall microbial community structure changes, the earlier investigation²⁰ recorded relative abundance differences of specific bacterial families in response to biochar, with some of the genera and/or species involved in nitrogen

cycling. Thus, the biochar increased the denitrification families/glades of Bradyrhizobiceae and Hyphomicrobiaceae. Also, abundance decreases and increases were recorded for nitrifying and nitrogen-fixing communities, respectively.

Nonetheless, the wide distribution of nitrogen fixing and denitrifying genes across and within most microbial phyla preclude assumptions that N cycling species are present when the function has been recorded and identified at family level. For example, Anderson et al.¹⁹ identified

operational taxonomic units at genus level and recorded increases in *Phyllobacterium*, *Bradyrhizobium* and *Hyphomicrobium* following biochar and exogenous N additions.

These genera have been associated with nitrogen fixation and denitrification but identification at the species level would be essential for detailed and conclusive analyses. Therefore, a range of relevant microecophysiology methods (see for example Ennis et al.⁸) should target N cycling genes, not the 16S rRNA gene, to determine diversity, structure and

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composition changes of both the bacterial and archaeal species underpinning nitrogen dynamics following biochar augmentation.

Before 2014, studies that measured community composition and structure changes mainly used short-term pot experiments, which may be unrepresentative of field scale responses. In particular, biochar addition to soil often results initially in a transient pH increase and leads potentially to brief and unsustainable community shifts¹⁶.

Therefore, pilot-scale and long-term investigations, underpinned by relevant complementary physico-chemical and microecophysiology analyses, including ¹⁵N tracer studies, are critical to establish the diversity and functional responses of the microbial community N-cycle drivers in biochar-augmented ecosystems.

The rhizosphere

Understanding rhizosphere microbial ecology in response to biochar application is essential for agriculture and all phyto-based environmental biotechnologies. Studies must explore N availability following biochar addition⁴ and, hence, impacts on rhizospheric interactions, plant biomass and agricultural yield potential, and contaminant attenuation. Findings from multiple seminal studies and reviews (e.g. de Bruijn²²) have proposed/ illustrated elegantly the use of cutting-edge microecophysiology and spectroscopy tools to explore rhizosphere microbial community dynamics and nutrient uptake. Consequently, plants such as clover (*Trifolium* spp), *Arabidopsis* sp., wheat (*Triticum* sp.) and soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.) have been used to explore how rhizospheric manipulations enhance plant yield/ biomass and how the rhizosphere microbiome responds to different plant species and/or their stages of growth. Some of these investigations have then explored the role of the nitrogen cycle in particular.

For example, Faragová et al.²³ researched ammonifying, denitrifying and nitrifying bacteria in wild-type and transgenic alfalfa (*Medicago*

sativa) by colony forming unit analysis on selective media. Such studies can, therefore, serve as templates for focussed research on N-cycle dynamics in the presence of biochar and be extended to include other functional groups, i.e. archaea.

Although not in a N-cycle context, Quilliam et al.¹¹ used ¹³C-glucose and scanning electron microscopy to probe biochar as a habitat provider for soil microbial communities. They added to the recognition that biochar supplementation changed the physico-chemical properties, labile substrates and, subsequently, soil-plant-microbe interactions of the surrounding soil, which they termed the “charosphere”.

Thus charosphere-specific studies should be expanded to the use of natural fertilizers, especially for strategies that entail manipulations and/or enhancements of rhizosphere functional microbial activities. This approach would complement on-going studies of *nifH* gene abundance and diversity relative to site-/soil-specific soil chemistry²⁴ and N₂O flux in response to biochar application to chemical fertilizer augmented soil⁶.

Non-agronomic contexts

According to Clough and Condron³, future research should aim to understand “... N transformation in soils, both chemical and biological mechanisms, and the fate of N applied to biochar treated soils.” This was also proposed by other researchers¹⁷ specifically to investigate and mitigate the potential release of GHGs, including methane and nitrous oxide.

Green House Gas emission is not unique to soil applications since it is an issue in other biotechnologies where biochar will, inevitably, be exploited. It is reasonable to propose, therefore, that biochar augmentation studies are extended to N-based molecule cycling dynamics in: i) contaminated ecosystems (soil, sediment, aquatic); ii) wastewater treatment; iii) malodorous gas biofiltration; and iv) landfills.

Contaminated sites

As reported in previous comprehensive reviews (e.g. Lehmann

and Joseph¹, Clough and Condron³), biochar can enhance aeration and soil porosity, which are key variables for N₂O production and diffusion. Thus, studies on catabolic genes, enzymes, strains and communities for N-based contaminants such as herbicides (e.g. atrazine), fungicides (e.g. creosote) and nitrates from different anthropogenic activities/products (e.g. fertilizers, animal waste, manure, sewage) should characterise nitrogen cycling dynamics of biochar-supplemented remediation programmes. These should entail culture-based and omic techniques including relevant tracer ¹⁵N labelling protocols as proposed, for example, by Ennis et al.⁸ and Butterbach-Bahl et al.¹⁰.

Also, phytoremediation rhizospheric interactions, particularly for plant species that are known or unknown nitrogen fixation facilitators, would mandate particular scrutiny.

Wastewater treatment and waste gas biofiltration

For decades, biotrickling filters have treated successfully both liquid and gaseous wastes. They can, therefore, be used to investigate biochar potential as an additional biofilm support⁹. For example, bamboo-derived biochar effected chemical adsorption of aqueous NH₃ while palm-oil char (500°C) recorded a 0.70 mg g⁻¹ adsorption capacity efficiency when exposed to 6 μL L⁻¹ gaseous NH₃ (see Clough and Condron³). These studies could be extrapolated to identify potential physico-chemical removal of ammonia-N in wastewater and malodorous gasses. Thus, ecogenomic analyses should be added for repeated or similar experimental protocols to characterise the N-cycle mechanisms from a microbial community functional, compositional and structural perspective.

Comprehensive analyses must also consider the presence of residual biochar products that may be -static or -cidal to specific functional genes/enzymes/strains underpinning the N-cycle.

Since biochars are generally alkaline, they can be exploited, potentially, as support materials with intrinsic

buffering capacities⁶ for low pH waste gas biofiltration. As for soils, role investigation of key parameters (pH and H₂S) for microbial nitrous oxide production would be essential for biochar-based malodorous gas biofiltration.

Specifically, these variables change depending on the source industry, molecules, concentrations and physico-chemical properties of the specific waste gas⁹.

Landfills

According to Harter et al.¹⁷, 60% (v/v) of anthropogenic N₂O, which accounts for 8% (v/v) of global GHG emissions, originates from agricultural activities. Various studies have reported different landfill emissions that range from 0.0017 to 428 mg N₂O-N m⁻² h⁻¹ (or 20–200 g CO₂ eq. m⁻² h⁻¹) depending on several parameters including landfill category, age, type of cover and location (e.g. Harboth et al.²⁵). Although landfill contributions to the global N₂O capital are considerably lower than from agronomic activities, its global warming potential is reported to be 289 kg CO₂-e compared to 1 and 72 kg CO₂-e for CO₂ and CH₄, respectively.

Therefore, findings that show reduced nitrous oxide (and methane) emissions in response to biochar application^{1,15, 17,26} justify exploitation of the material for the attenuation of landfill leachate and gas. These applications must, however, be preceded by focussed and concerted research of the effects of biochar on the biogeochemical cycling of N₂O and all N-based molecules specifically in landfills. Also, such studies should be considered within the context of whether landfill cover soil that is also inoculated with earthworms would exacerbate or mitigate nitrous oxide emission⁶.

Conclusion

Emerging studies and discourse on the dynamics of microbial communities in response to biochar reflect the recognition of critical knowledge gaps in general but

specifically for the nitrogen biogeochemical cycle. These have, subsequently, identified a wide, novel and interesting scope of research with potential for cutting-edge studies of the functional microorganisms at the genetic level. Addressing this paucity should underpin sustainable and informed contemporary applications of biochar to ensure that the benefits outweigh the disadvantages, e.g. greenhouse gas emissions, including nitrous oxide, are reduced and not increased. Independent of the ecosystem and/or site conditions, shifts in the functional microbial genes/enzymes/communities and, hence, the mechanisms of N-cycling, depend on the application regime and physico-chemical properties of each char. It is well established that these are, in turn, dictated by feedstock, pyrolysis conditions and ageing.

Therefore, while some of the knowledge established thus far for agronomic soils may be transferable, key unique paucity will mandate investigations that are specific to individual environmental biotechnologies.

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