1	Short-term effects on soil quality of biogas digestate applied in combination with young
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Abstract

We assessed the suitability of digestate (D) from biogas production and green biochar (B) to improve soil biological activity and antioxidant capacity, and investigated whether there is an interaction between digestate and biochar applied to soil in combination. In a short-term (100-d) laboratory incubation, we monitored soil chemical and biological parameters. We compared soil amendments with 1% D (D1), 5% D (D5), 1% B (B), digestate-biochar combinations (D1+B and D5+B), and soil with no amendment. In D5, CO2 production, antioxidant capacity (TEAC), and dehydrogenase activity (DH-ase) and the contents of microbial biomass C, DOC and alkali-soluble phenols increased to the highest level. The biochar increased the total organic C (TOC) and TEAC of soil but decreased DOC, CO2 production, microbial biomass C and DH-ase. The addition of biochar to digestate reduced soluble compounds (DOC and phenols), thus limiting the amount and activity of the soil microbial biomass (CO2 production and DH-ase). After 100 days of incubation D5+B showed the highest TOC content (82.8% of the initial amount). Both applied alone and in combination with digestate, the biochar appears to enrich the soil carbon sink by reducing CO2 emissions into the atmosphere.

Keywords: digestate, biochar, short-term incubation, biological activity, soil antioxidant capacity.

Introduction

The anaerobic digestion of waste for biogas production is of great interest for livestock waste management, and is in line with EU policies concerning renewable energy production (Holm-Nielsen *et al.* 2009). Anaerobic digestion produces a residual material (digestate), whose management or disposal must be addressed in order not to constrain the development of anaerobic digestion systems. In addition, intensive agriculture has led to soil degradation and a loss of organic matter and fertility, increased production costs, and contributed to CO₂ emissions.

Recycling digestate in agricultural systems reduces mineral fertilizer applications, which then leads to resource conservation, climate change mitigation and soil quality maintenance. Several studies have shown the positive effects of digestate from agricultural biogas production on soil quality (Elste et al. 2010; Risberg et al. 2017). However, digestate can contain inorganic (Kupper et al. 2014) and organic pollutants (Spielmeyer et al. 2014), thus explaining the negative effects on the soil microbial community (Sänger et al. 2014; Abubaker et al. 2013). There is therefore a need for research in order to assess the appropriate use of digested materials in soil. The addition of biochar to soil has been proposed as a way to improve soil quality and sequester carbon (Xie et al. 2016), however the value of biochar as an amendment is currently being discussed. With regard to the suitability of biochar for short-term C stabilization in soil, CO₂ emissions have been found both to increase (Scheer et al. 2011) and decrease (Malghani et al. 2013). How biochar affects soil biological processes is also very controversial. Khodadad et al. (2011) and O'Neill et al. (2009) reported the different behaviors of soil microbial biomass in biochar amended soils. Lehmann et al. (2011) explained the positive effect of biochar on the soil microbial biomass as its ability to increase the concentration of dissolved organic matter and soil nutrients, to remove toxic compounds from soil solution by adsorption, and to change the quality of soil water and its pH. However, Dempster et al. (2012) reported the toxic effect of biochar on soil microbial biomass due to its polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and various highly volatile organic compound substances. The value of digestate as an amendment could be improved by combining it with other sources of organic and mineral fertilizers (Bougnom et al. 2012). Biochar has been mixed with digestate in order to enhance the amendment quality of the materials. Mukherjee et al. (2016) reported a much lower soil respiration (up to 11-fold) in soil/digestate/biochar with 1% biochar addition compared to soil/digestate mixtures without biochar. Mukherjee et al. (2016) also reported that dissolved organic C (DOC) can be sorbed by the biochar, reducing the microbial accessible DOC in the liquid phase and as a consequence also the CO₂ production. They suggested that more specific research is

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needed, where the DOC production should be monitored over time. Maintaining the level of soil organic matter can also be achieved by protecting the organic matter. Rimmer (2006) postulated that the protection of organic matter from degradation is linked to the soil antioxidant capacity. The mechanism explaining this effect has often been attributed to the antioxidant activity of phenol compounds in soil organic matter, which are able to slow the rate of oxidation down, thus controlling the rate of breakdown in more labile and easily degradable fractions (Cardelli *et al.* 2012; Saviozzi and Cardelli 2104). Thus, the accumulation of soil organic matter could be stimulated using amendments with a higher phenol content, which could slow the C mineralization. The aims of this study were to: i) evaluate the suitability of digestate and biochar to improve the biological activity and antioxidant capacity of soil, and ii) verify the interaction effect between digestate and biochar applications on soil quality.

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Materials and methods

- 91 Soil sampling
- 92 Surface (0–15 cm) soil was collected from a dedicated agricultural area at the Interdepartmental
- 93 Centre E. Avanzi, which is located at a distance of approximately 4 km from the sea (43°40′N,
- 94 10°19′E) and 1 m above sea level (Pisa, Italy). The soil sample was air-dried and passed through a
- 95 2-mm sieve to remove large residue fragments. The main soil characteristics were: 73.3% sand,
- 96 12.2% silt, 14.5% clay, 8.3 pH, 7.7% inorganic C, 14.1 g kg⁻¹ total organic C (TOC), 0.17 g kg⁻¹
- 97 dissolved organic C (DOC), 1.30 g kg⁻¹ total N, 40.4 mg kg⁻¹ available P, 350.3 mg kg⁻¹ available
- 98 K, 12.1 cmol (+) kg⁻¹ cation exchange capacity (CEC). The soil was classified as Xerorthent.
- 99 Organic materials
- 100 The biochar was produced from orchard pruning residues of fruit trees (Pirus communis, Malus
- domestica, Persica vulgaris, Vitis vinifera) by slow pyrolysis with a transportable ring kiln (215 cm
- in diameter and holding around 2t of hardwood). The average heating rate before reaching the peak
- 103 of 550°C was 15-18°C min⁻¹.

- The digestate was the by-product of methane and heat production in a biogas plant from organic
- waste, and was taken to a facility in northern Italy (Lodi, Italy).
- 106 Experimental design
- Six treatments were tested: a) control, soil without any inorganic or organic fertilizer; b) soil
- amended with digestate 1% w/w (D1); c) soil amended with digestate 5% w/w (D5); d) soil
- amended with biochar 1% w/w (B); e) soil amended with digestate 1% w/w plus biochar 1% w/w
- 110 (D1+B); f) soil amended with digestate 5% w/w plus biochar 1% w/w (D5+B).
- Organic materials were mixed with the soil in a concrete mixer and transferred into 2-L containers.
- The soil and soil-mixture parameters were monitored for 100 days through aerobic incubation. The
- samples were watered at appropriate intervals to maintain a constant moisture level (60% maximum
- water holding capacity), closed with parafilm to permit gaseous exchange, and incubated at 28 ± 1
- °C for 100 days. Four sampling times were selected to monitor the soil parameters: at 0 (T1), 15
- 116 (T2), 45 (T3), and 100 (T4) days after the amendments.
- 117 Soil analyses
- 118 The particle-size distribution of the soils was obtained by the pipette method. The pH was
- determined according to the SISS (1995); inorganic carbon (CaCO₃) with a Scheibler apparatus;
- TOC by dry combustion (induction furnace 900 CS, Eltra); total N by the Kjeldahl procedure after
- acid digestion (Bremner and Mulvaney 1982); available P was measured on the 0.5 N NaHCO₃
- extract at pH 8.5 ± 0.1 (Olsen *et al.* 1954); exchangeable K was determined on the 1 N CH₃COONH₄
- extract at pH 7.0 (Thomas 1982), and cation exchange capacity (CEC) according to Bascomb
- 124 (1964).
- The DOC was determined by stirring soil samples with distilled water (soil / H₂O 1:25) for 24 h at
- room temperature, centrifuging the suspension at 10,000 rpm for 10 min, and filtrating it through a
- 127 0.45 mm glass fiber. In this extract, DOC was determined with an organic C analyzer for liquid
- samples (Hach QbD1200).

Alkali-soluble phenols were determined on 2 M NaOH solution extracts (soil / solution 1:5). The 129 130 NaOH extraction was performed under N₂ for 16 h at room temperature; after centrifuging (6000 rpm x 15 min), the product was filtered on cellulose acetate (pore size 0.2 mm) and treated with a 131 10% TCA solution to remove proteins. The alkali-extracted phenols were determined using a Folin-132 Ciocalteu reagent, following Kuwatsuka and Shindo (1973). 133 134 The Trolox Equivalent Antioxidant Capacity (TEAC) was determined on the 2M NaOH solution 135 extract used for phenols. Before the TEAC assay, the NaOH extract was neutralized from approximately pH 13 to pH 7 ± 0.2 using 2M HCl. The method (Re et al. 1999) is based on the use 136 of ABTS+, a stable colored radical in aqueous solution. The antioxidant capacity measurement is 137 138 expressed as a decrease in absorbance of the ABTS+ solution after the addition of an antioxidant. To measure the antioxidant capacity, 3 ml of a solution of ABTS+ radical, obtained by reacting an 139 ABTS stock solution (7 mM) overnight with a 24.5 mM potassium persulfate solution, were placed 140 141 directly into spectrophotometer cuvettes. Thirty ml of each extract were then added and, in blank cuvettes, 30 ml of deionized H₂O. The absorbance of the blank was read with a spectrophotometer 142 set at a wavelength of 734 nm. Each cuvette was then sealed with parafilm, shaken and placed to 143 144 incubate in the dark at 25°C. After 6 min, the absorbance of the mixture was read again. The 145 decrease in absorbance due to the activity of the soil extract on the antioxidant ABTS+ radical was 146 expressed as a percentage of initial absorbance. Soil microbial biomass C was determined at T4 according to Vance et al. (1987) with the extraction 147 of organic C from fumigated and unfumigated soils by 1 N K₂SO₄. The organic C was then 148 149 measured as described by Jenkinson and Powlson (1976) using dichromate digestion. An extraction 150 efficiency coefficient of 0.38 was used to convert the difference in soluble C between the fumigated 151 and unfumigated soils into microbial biomass C. 152 On samples collected at T4, the CO₂ evolution was monitored daily during a 21-d incubation period. One hundred g of soil alone or soil mixtures were placed in 250-ml microcosms closed with rubber 153 stoppers, moistened at 50% of the maximum water holding capacity, and incubated at 25 ± 1 °C. 154

At appropriate time intervals, deionized water free of CO₂ was added to the samples in order to
maintain a constant moisture level. The CO₂ evolved was trapped in an NaOH solution and the
alkali excess was titrated with HCl after precipitation of carbonates with a 2N solution of BaCl₂.

Daily opening of the microcosms to replenish the NaOH for CO₂ absorption prevented any
decomposition inhibition owing to a lack of oxygen. The results were expressed as mg of C
mineralized / 100 g of dry soil.

The soil dehydrogenase activity (DH-ase) was assayed on freshly-sieved samples by a colorimetric

- assay of 2,3,5 triphenylformazan (TPF) produced by the microorganism reduction of 2,3,5
- triphenyltetrazolium chloride (TTC) (Casida *et al.* 1964).
- 164 Statistics
- Statistica 7.0 software (StatSoft Inc., Tulsa, Oklahoma, USA) was used for the statistical analysis.
- Data were expressed on the basis of the oven-dry weight of the soil. Results were the means of
- determinations carried out on three replicates. Differences among mean replicate values for
- treatments were compared at the 0.05 significant level by analysis of variance (ANOVA).

169 Results and discussion

Figure 1 shows the effects of the amendment applications on soil pH. Both digestate application 170 doses (pH = 8.0) immediately increased the soil reaction (8.3) by ½ unit (8.8). Then, it rapidly 171 172 decreased as a consequence of nitrification, showing already lower pH values (around 7.8) at day 15 than those found in the control (8.2). Similar results were reported by De la Fuente et al. (2013) 173 in a study on the addition of digestate to an alkaline soil. The pH in the D1 and D5 treatments 174 175 gradually decreased during incubation, likely attributable to the production of acidifying nitrates and/or to a release of functional groups of an acidic character during oxidation of the organic matter. 176 177 Figure 1 shows that at T1 B led to a slight increase in the soil reaction compared to the control. This was expected, given the high pH values (10.2) of biochar (Table 1), due to the carbonates, 178 basic oxides and organic carboxylates produced during pyrolysis (Yuan et al. 2010). The alkalizing 179 effect of B on pH could also be due to the poor soil buffering due to the low level of organic matter 180

in the system. Artiola et al. (2012) also reported an increase in soil reaction in an alkaline soil (pH of 8.10-8.15) amended with 2-4% fresh biochar. The pH elevation in B was temporary as the biochar alkali salts and functional groups reacted with carbonic acid from microbial activity and atmospheric CO₂ to form bicarbonates, thus lowering the soil pH. The presence of biochar in mixtures initially did not affect the alkalinizing influence of digestate, with significantly similar values to those induced by the material alone. Towards the end of incubation, D1+B and D5+B resulted in a more substantial decrease in soil pH than D1 and D5. It should also be noted that in the samples in which the amount of digestate was added at the highest dose, the pH had the largest decrease (pH = 6.5). As expected, the addition of amendments to the soil initially increased the amount of organic carbon in the soil, with values which were almost proportional to the added amount (Figure 2). During the incubation period, the TOC content remained substantially unchanged but at T4, the TOC decreased as a result of mineralization, however significantly only for D5, D1+B and D5+B treatments. By adding biochar, there was less of a TOC reduction during incubation, particularly at the highest dose of digestate. In D5, the TOC content was 8.5% lower at T4 than at T1, while it was only 7.2% lower in D5+B. The ability of biochar to reduce the mineralization of the TOC of digestate could be attributed to the virtually absent mineralization of TOC of the biochar and/or the lower availability of the labile substrate in digestate due to its adsorption by the biochar. These two hypotheses were confirmed by the respiration results (Figure 3). First, the addition of biochar to soil did not change the CO2 production compared to the control, as a consequence of the organic fraction of this material being particularly stable. Other studies have reported no variations in the CO₂ efflux following the biochar treatments (Kuzyakov et al. 2009; Novak et al. 2010). Second, digestate-biochar mixtures showed a lower CO₂ production than in D1 and D5, both as absolute values and as expressed as a percentage of applied C (3.1 and 5.3 respectively). Similar results were reported by Mukherjee et al. (2016), who attributed the decrease in CO₂ production to the lower availability of labile substrate found in digestate-biochar mixtures. The addition of digestate to soil

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led to a significant increase in CO₂ evolution compared to untreated soil, perhaps because of the higher proportion of easily degradable carbon in digestate. The cumulative respiration data of the soil supplemented with digested 1% are in line with those obtained from Johansen et al. (2013), who found double CO₂ amounts compared to the control at the same application rate of 1%. Accordingly, Abubaker et al. (2015) also reported stimulatory short-term effects on microbial respiration in soil amended with digestate. If the CO₂ values of D1 and D5 were expressed as a percentage of TOC, the breakdown percentages for D1 (6.1) and D5 (9.3) were much higher than the control (3.1), thus confirming the results relative to the absolute values. The higher value in D5 than D1 indicates that even 5-fold higher amounts of digestate did not induce negative effects on mineralization by the microbial activity. The application of digestate to soil immediately increased the amount of DOC (Figure 4). During incubation, D1 and D5 showed a higher decrease in DOC in soil solution than the control. Due to their mineralization, values at T4 were lower than 50% compared to T1, while the DOC in soil was about 21% lower. This may be due to a greater lability of the soluble compounds in digestate compared to soil organic matter. Zimmerman et al. (2011) found a higher amount of labile C fractions in biochar amended soils than in the corresponding untreated soils. In our study, the DOC content in B was constantly lower than the control, suggesting an adsorption of labile soil organic C by biochar (Mukherjee et al. 2016). Since the DOC in B did not change significantly during the study, it can be assumed that the microorganisms did not need soluble organic carbon for their activity, in line with the lack of organic matter mineralization of biochar (Figure 3). However, the behavior of samples treated with biochar was different to that observed by Su et al. (2017), who found that the DOC of biochar was degraded in early incubation. Lower amounts of DOC in D1+B and D5+B than D1 and D5 were consistently observed during incubation (Figure 4), confirming the results observed for the soil-biochar treatment. This may explain the lower CO₂ production in digestate-biochar mixtures than in soil-digestate without biochar (Figure 3).

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Figure 5 presents the amendment effects on the amount of alkali-soluble phenols, a chemically bound form. Results show that the application of digestate initially led to a more marked increase in phenols in the soil compared to biochar. This is due to the large amount of phenols in digestate, much higher than in biochar (Table 1). The alkali-soluble phenols remained virtually constant over time for the biochar-amended soil. This may be due to the recalcitrance of these organic molecules to microbial degradation (Kuzyakov et al. 2009). Phenols decreased significantly in D1, D5 and their mixtures with biochar. However, in the digestate-biochar mixtures, the amounts of alkalisoluble phenols decreased at a lower rate (by about 27% and 18% between T1 and T4 for D1+B and D5+B respectively) than in D1 and D5 (by about 17% and 14% respectively). This could be explained by the lack of mineralization of the phenols present in biochar and/or the adsorption by biochar of phenols of the digestate, thus reducing their extractability. Many studies have shown the ability of biochar to adsorb phenols, due to the large surface area of the micropores and the carbon content of the material (Han et al. 2013; Hall et al. 2014). The addition of digestate initially increased the antioxidant capacity of the soil, although significant differences compared to the control were observed only at the highest rate (Figure 6). The results agree with Rimmer and Smith (2009), who reported greater TEAC in organic materials than soil. There were no significant differences between D5 and B in terms of the antioxidant capacities of the amended soil. However, the addition of biochar to digestate did not result in significant changes in TEAC, i.e. no additive values were observed. Rimmer and Abbott (2011) and Cardelli et al. (2012) reported that TEAC is mainly due to the antioxidant activity of alkali-soluble phenols. Saviozzi and Cardelli (2014) also reported positive correlations between TEAC and DOC in a study on five different organic materials applied to soil. In our study, no clear trends in TEAC values over time were observed, reflecting no positive relationships between TEAC and both alkali-soluble phenols and DOC. The size of the soil microbial biomass at T4, expressed as biomass carbon, is shown in Figure 7.

The microbial biomass content was significantly increased by both doses of digestate. In D1 and

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D5, the percentages of soil microbial C of total soil organic C (2.4 and 2.2%) were also higher than the control (1.5%). Many macro- and micronutrients, growth promoters and hormones, provided by the material, could have supported a greater proliferation of the microbial biomass present in the soil (Makadi et al. 2012). Biederman et al. (2017) observed a lack of influence of biochar on soil microbial biomass carbon. In B, lower values of biomass than the control were observed, both as absolute values and as a percentage of TOC (0.6%). The presence of volatile compounds in the biochar, as reported by Deenik et al. (2010) and Dempster et al. (2012), could have suppressed the proliferation of the microbial population. The addition of biochar to digestate significantly decreased the amount of biomass found in D1 and D5. As for D1 and D5, the percentages of soil microbial C of total soil organic C in D1+B and D5+B were found to be similar at both digestate application rates. The low levels of microbial biomass in B, D1+B and D5+B agree well with the scarce activity of the treatments where biochar was present, as previously observed for the organic matter mineralization. The soil dehydrogenase activity (DH-ase) is shown in Figure 8. A significant increase in soil dehydrogenase activity was found in the digestate-treated soil compared to the control. This effect may be ascribed to the substrates added to the soil by the digestate, which could have stimulated the synthesis of the enzyme (Alburquerque et al. 2012). On the other hand, the addition of biochar to the soil throughout the incubation period led to a lower DH-ase compared to the control, suggesting that the microorganisms are unable to use biochar as a substrate (Wu et al. 2012) and/or they are inhibited by the presence of volatile compounds. The addition of biochar to digestate also decreased the enzyme activity with respect to the unmixed samples. At T4, a lower DH-ase than at T1 was found in all treatments, with the control showing the lowest value. The results are in accordance with Wu et al. (2012) and Chintala et al. (2014), who explained the decline in activity with the progressive decrease in the substrate available for microorganisms.

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Conclusions

The digestate used in the present study improved the soil chemical and biological characteristics. 284 285 Compared to the untreated soil, the highest application dose of 5% resulted in the highest decrease in pH and led to the greatest increases in TOC, CO₂ production, DOC, alkali-soluble phenols, 286 TEAC, microbial biomass C and dehydrogenase activity. This is because of the supply of carbon, 287 which is partially in an easily available form and can be used and metabolized by soil 288 microorganisms. 289 290 The biochar led to a marked increase in TOC and TEAC in the soil but decreased the biological properties of the soil, probably due to the phenolic compounds in the biochar originating from the 291 292 pyrolysis process. 293 The addition of biochar to digestate reduced the soluble organic compounds (DOC and phenols), thus limiting the amount (microbial biomass C) and activity of microorganisms (CO₂ production 294 295 and DH-ase). 296 Both applied alone and in combination with digestate, the biochar enriched the carbon sink of the soil through a reduction in soil respiration and the related mineralization activities. 297 298 To better evaluate these effects, more research is needed through the regular monitoring of soil pH 299 in long-term digestate and digestate-biochar applications together with further studies on the effects of these amendments on soil antioxidant capacity. The quality of DOC and the alkali soluble 300 301 compounds need to be examined. This increase in understanding should help to improve the assessment of the environmental and 302 303 economic benefits of digestate and biochar additions to agricultural soils.

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Figure captions Figure 1. pH as affected by "amendment treatments x sampling times" interaction. Vertical bars represent 1.s.d. at $P \le 0.05$. Figure 2. Total organic carbon (TOC), as affected by "amendment treatments x sampling times" interaction. Vertical bars represent l.s.d. at $P \le 0.05$. Figure 3. Cumulative CO2-C in studied treatments after 100 days from the addition of the amendments. Columns with different letters are significantly different (P < 0.05). Figure 4. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC), as affected by "amendment treatments x sampling times" interaction. Vertical bars represent l.s.d. at $P \le 0.05$. Figure 5. Alkali-soluble phenols as affected by "amendment treatments x sampling times" interaction. Vertical bars represent l.s.d. at P≤0.05. Figure 6. Trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity (TEAC), as affected by "amendment treatments x sampling times" interaction. Vertical bars represent 1.s.d. at P≤0.05. Figure 7. Microbial biomass carbon after 100 days from the addition of the amendments. Columns with different letters are significantly different (P < 0.05).

Figure 8. Dehydrogenase activity (DH-ase), as affected by "amendment treatments x sampling

times" interaction. Vertical bars represent l.s.d. at $P \le 0.05$.