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1 **Partitioning of microbially respired CO₂ between indigenous and exogenous carbon sources during**
2 **biochar degradation using radiocarbon and stable carbon isotopes**

3

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 Pyrolysed carbon in biochar can sequester atmospheric CO₂ into soil to reduce impacts of
21 anthropogenic CO₂ emissions. When estimating the stability of biochar, degradation of biochar
22 carbon, mobility of degradation products and ingress of carbon from other sources must all be
23 considered. In a previous study we tracked degradation in biochars produced from radiocarbon-free
24 wood and subjected to different physico-chemical treatments over three years in a rainforest soil.
25 Following completion of the field trial, we report here a series of in-vitro incubations of the
26 degraded biochars to determine CO₂ efflux rates, ¹⁴C concentration and δ¹³C values in CO₂ to
27 quantify the contributions of biochar carbon and other sources of carbon to the CO₂ efflux. The ¹⁴C
28 concentration in CO₂ showed that microbial degradation led to respiration of CO₂ sourced from
29 biochar carbon (≈ 0.5 - 1.4 μmoles CO₂ / g biochar C / day) along with a component of carbon closely
30 associated with the biochars but derived from the local environment. Correlations between ¹⁴C

31 concentration, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and Ca abundance indicated that Ca^{2+} availability was an important
32 determinant of the loss of biochar carbon.

33

34 **Key Words**

35 Biochar, ^{13}C , ^{14}C , Respiration, Degradation, Immobilisation

36

37 **Introduction**

38 Biochar is pyrolyzed carbon (PyC) derived from the incomplete combustion of biomass. When
39 incorporated into soil, biochar has the potential to provide long-term carbon sequestration that is
40 potentially able to offset a significant fraction of anthropogenic emissions (Woolf et al. 2010, Wang
41 et al. 2014). However, biochar includes a range of carbon compounds with variable degrees of
42 resistance to degradation (Bird et al. 1999; Kanaly and Harayama 2000; Hammes et al. 2008; Bird et
43 al. 2015).

44 The degree to which biochar is susceptible to degradation is controlled by the temperature of
45 pyrolysis, the nature of the material pyrolyzed and environmental conditions that influence the
46 activity of microbial communities and organo-mineral interactions during degradation (e.g. soil type,
47 temperature, moisture, pH and Ca^{2+} availability (Pietikainen et al. 2000; Hockaday et al. 2007;
48 Whittinghill and Hobbie 2012; Bird et al. 2017). Recent research has mostly emphasised the role of
49 microbial degradation of biochar (e.g. Forbes et al. 2006; Fang et al. 2014; Kuzyakov et al. 2014;
50 Tilston et al. 2016) and these studies have directly demonstrated respiration of PyC using both
51 $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ and radiocarbon (^{14}C) as tracers of PyC conversion into CO_2 , microbial biomass, and soil
52 organic carbon. In contrast, a year-long in-vitro experiment by Zimmerman (2010) found abiotic CO_2
53 production rates equivalent to those of microbial oxidation in several types of biochars.

54 Recently Bird et al (2017) examined the controls on the degradation of biochars produced at
55 different temperatures from radiocarbon-free wood by subjecting them to different physico-
56 chemical treatments over three years in a humid tropical rainforest soil in NE Australia. Mass
57 balance calculations and measurements of ^{14}C concentration in the biochars demonstrated a strong
58 relationship between degradation and loss of indigenous (biochar) carbon, with carbon losses offset
59 to various degrees by the simultaneous addition of exogenous (leaf litter derived) carbon from the
60 local environment. High net carbon loss in biochars pyrolysed at 300°C implied a relatively rapid total
61 degradation of the material to gaseous or solubilized forms over a few decades. Substantially lower

62 net losses of C in biochar pyrolysed at 500°C showed these biochars to be comparatively resistant to
63 degradation. The strong relationships between loss of indigenous carbon from the degraded
64 biochars and amount and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of CO_2 efflux in incubation trials led to two main hypotheses
65 which remained unproven: 1. Biochar degradation was predominantly microbial and 2. High local
66 Ca^{2+} concentrations immobilized degradation products in situ at high pH, rather than leaching and
67 loss of degradation products at low pH.

68 Here we present new evidence of the role of microbial activity in the degradation of the biochar
69 samples previously studied by Bird et al. (2017). We determined the efflux rate of CO_2 in in-vitro
70 incubation experiments and measured both ^{14}C concentration and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in the CO_2 efflux with
71 the aim of quantifying the contributions of indigenous radiocarbon-free PyC and exogenous C
72 sources to CO_2 efflux from degrading biochar. We also tested the hypothesis that high local Ca^{2+}
73 concentrations lead to the immobilization of degradation products on the biochars.

74

75 **Methods**

76 *Biochar samples*

77 Detailed characteristics of the initial biochar material and the field trial was reported by Bird et al.
78 (2014, 2017). In brief, a c. 8 million year old wood log obtained from a brown coal seam was
79 pyrolyzed at 305, 414 or 512 °C using the system described by Bird et al. (2011). The radiocarbon
80 contents of the initial biochars were negligible and the TOC content and the proportion of stable
81 polycyclic aromatic carbon (SPAC) at high temperature increased with increasing temperature of
82 pyrolysis (McBeath et al. 2015). As temperature increases, the number of carbon rings increases,
83 leading to the development of recalcitrant microcrystalline graphitic sheets (Preston and Smith
84 2011). The biochar was used in a 3-year environmental degradation trial at the James Cook
85 University Daintree Rainforest Observatory, Cape Tribulation, Queensland (16.103 °S; 145.447 °E;
86 70m asl). This site is in a hot (mean monthly temperature ranging from 22 - 28 °C) and humid (3,500
87 mm annual rainfall) rainforest environment, where interactions between biochars and the
88 environment can be expected to be comparatively rapid.

89 In the field trial, aliquots of each biochar type contained in triplicate 125 μm aperture nylon mesh
90 bags, were pegged to the soil surface from June 2009 to August 2012 and subjected to one of the
91 following four treatments: (i) NL - all litter removed from the surface and aliquots laid directly on the
92 soil surface; (ii) L - as for NL but aliquots then covered with a ~5 cm thick layer of local leaf litter
93 replenished each six months; (iii) NL-LM - as for NL but aliquots then covered with a ~5 cm thick

94 layer of limestone chips (sieved at 2-10 mm); (iv) L-LM - as for NL but aliquots covered with a layer of
95 limestone chips (sieved at 2-10 mm) mixed with an equal volume of periodically replenished local
96 leaf litter each six months. The purpose of the limestone chips was to increase local pH, as alkaline
97 conditions have been shown to be a significant determinant of PyC degradation behaviour
98 (Braadbaart et al., 2009; Huisman et al., 2012).

99 Following three years of environmental exposure, Bird et al. (2017) identified correlated increases in
100 ash content (mineral matter after combustion at 550°C), mass of organic carbon, radiocarbon
101 concentration and decrease in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in the biochars. The changes were more substantial in
102 300°C compared to 500°C biochars and there were substantial changes in both biochar types
103 according to their physicochemical treatment. The changes were most pronounced in the no-litter
104 (NL) treatments, followed by the changes in the litter (L) treatments while both the no-litter –
105 limestone (NL-LM) and litter – limestone (L-LM) treatments were the least changed after three years.

106 *In vitro incubations and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ and $^{14}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ measurements*

107 In the present study we conducted two in-vitro experiments to measure the rate and isotopic
108 composition of CO_2 efflux from the field-exposed degraded biochar samples. A small-volume
109 experiment was initially carried out over 66 days to investigate whether there were changes in the
110 rate of CO_2 production and whether changes in C sources may be revealed through changes in the
111 stable isotopic composition of the CO_2 efflux. Subsequently we conducted a second shorter-term
112 (14-18 days) in-vitro experiment to produce larger sample volumes necessary for the measurements
113 of CO_2 ^{14}C concentration.

114 In the longer-term experiment, aliquots (≈ 80 mg) of dried 300°C and 500°C biochar (each treatment
115 in duplicate) were placed on a wet pre-combusted quartz sand bed (≈ 750 mg) in 12 mL capacity
116 Exetainer vials sealed with a septum cap for incubation in the dark at 25 °C over 66 days, with no
117 applied nutrient source. Milli-Q™ grade water, filtered at 0.2 μm and UV-sterilized was added to the
118 surface level of the combusted sand. The wet sand base provided a stable source of moisture
119 available by capillary action without saturating the samples over the course of the experiment. Vials
120 were filled with CO_2 -free air immediately after sample loading. No new microbial material was added
121 as the purpose was to measure the response of a reinvigorated microbial population present on the
122 biochars in relation to the labile carbon supply inferred to exist based on the radiocarbon
123 measurements of Bird et al. (2017).

124 Duplicate samples of the pre-exposure 300 and 500°C biochar and two vials with wet sand only
125 (blanks) were included in the incubation experiment. The volumetric concentration and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values

126 of the evolved CO₂ were measured after 1, 4, 7, 11, 18, 30, 38, 49 and 66 days of incubation using a
127 Wavelength-Scanned Cavity Ring-down Spectrometer (Picarro G2131-i). Vial gases were extracted
128 and supplied to the spectrometer via a syringe penetrating the vial septum with simultaneous entry
129 of CO₂-free air through a second syringe. This procedure allowed for the maintenance of sufficient
130 O₂ to support CO₂ production throughout the incubation period. The Picarro G2131-i records CO₂
131 concentration and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values at approximately 1 Hz. Integrated CO₂ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values over the \approx 2-5
132 min analysis time (dependent on CO₂ concentration) were derived using an in-house Excel™
133 calculation template. The integration window was selected to include all data sets with CO₂ > 40
134 ppm vol. Calibration of concentration values were carried out by analysis of CO₂-free air and a
135 certified CO₂-in-air standard gas (1050 ppm vol) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were calibrated to the VPDB scale by
136 analysing CO₂ evolved from two in-house carbonate standards ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = -4.67\text{‰}$, -24.23‰) tied to the
137 certified reference materials NBS-18 and NBS-19. Precision of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ measurement is $\pm 1 \text{‰}$.

138 A shorter-term, up-scaled incubation experiment was used to produce larger CO₂ samples for ¹⁴C
139 analysis. A 200-1000 mg aliquot (depending on expected reactivity) of each biochar was placed on a
140 \approx 10 g pre-combusted wetted quartz sand bed in 300 mL Pyrex flasks, equipped with high vacuum
141 greaseless stopcocks and Viton-O-ring seals, for incubation in the dark at 25°C for 14-18 days. Flask
142 were filled with CO₂-free air immediately after sample loading. Two empty flasks were included as
143 blanks. At the end of the incubation period 12 mL gas samples were extracted from the experimental
144 flasks with a syringe and transferred into Exetainer vials for measurement of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values as described
145 above. The remaining volume of gas was extracted and CO₂ purified and transferred into sealed
146 quartz tubes using a cryogenic vacuum system. Carbon dioxide samples were graphitised and AMS
147 ¹⁴C measurements carried out using the ANTARES facility at the Australian Nuclear Science and
148 Technology Organisation (ANSTO; Fink et al., 2004). Raw measurement results were corrected for
149 possible contamination in graphitisation stage only (Hua et al. 2001). All results are reported as
150 percent modern carbon (pMC) and precision (1σ) ranged from 0.5 - 2.3 pMC (see Bird et al., 2014 for
151 further method details).

152 *Calcium analysis of biochars*

153 To assess the potential transport of calcium from soil, leaf litter and limestone into biochar samples
154 during the 3-year field trial we undertook water and acid extractions of all biochar samples. Aliquots
155 of \approx 0.5 g biochar were first extracted in 5 mL of deionised water over a 14-day period. Upon
156 completion, all extracts were mildly to moderately acidic (pH = 4.1- 6.8). The extraction residues
157 were then subjected to a further 24-hour extraction in 5 mL of 5% HNO₃. Calcium concentrations

158 were analysed by Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICPMS). Analytical quality control
159 included analysis of certified reference waters, replicate samples and spiked samples.

160

161 **Results**

162 *Short-term incubation experiments*

163 The rate of CO₂ efflux was significantly ($p=0.002$) higher in the 300°C (13.7 ± 4.5 μmoles/g C/d)
164 compared to the 500°C biochars (6.1 ± 2.5 μmoles/g C/d) across all treatments in the short-term (14-
165 18 days) incubation experiment (Table 1). There was also a significant ($p = 0.018$) difference in ¹⁴C
166 concentration in CO₂ derived from the two biochars. The lower pMC (percent Modern Carbon)
167 produced from the 300°C biochar (range 24 - 76, mean 53, $n = 8$) compared to the 500°C biochar
168 (range 61 - 87, mean 76, $n = 7$) across all treatments (Table 1) suggest that less modern C and/or
169 more radiocarbon-dead C is available for conversion to CO₂ in the 300 °C biochar compared to the
170 500 °C biochar.

171 In contrast to CO₂ efflux rate and ¹⁴C_{CO2} concentration there was no significant ($p=0.12$) difference in
172 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -CO₂ values derived from the 300°C and 500°C biochars in the short-term incubation
173 experiment. However, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values varied substantially between treatments, with the lowest $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
174 values (-27 to -30 ‰) recorded in the L and LM (no limestone) treatments of the 300°C biochar while
175 the highest $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were measured in the NL-LM and L-LM (with limestone) treatments of both
176 300°C and 500°C biochars (Table 1).

177 The variation in CO₂ efflux rate and ¹⁴C_{CO2} concentration in replicate field samples reflects
178 unavoidable differences in the individual field placements including the thickness of covers, ingress
179 of exogenous matter and water as well as rate of microbial colonisation.

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188 Table 1. CO₂ efflux rate and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and ¹⁴C concentration in CO₂ derived from the short-term
 189 (14-18 days) incubation experiment of two biochars (300°C, 500°C) each subjected to 4 different
 190 physico-chemical treatments during 3 years of environmental exposure (NL: no litter; L: litter; NL-
 191 LM: no litter; limestone; L-LM: litter, limestone; field replicates are indicated by appended number).
 192 pMC = percent Modern Carbon.

BC ID	Treatment	CO ₂ efflux rate (μmoles/g C/d)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - CO ₂ (‰)	ANSTO lab code	¹⁴ C _{CO2} (pMC)	¹⁴ C _{CO2} ±1σ error
300	NL-1	20.4	-27	OZU899	75.97	0.75
	NL-2	18.1	-28	OZU900	66.22	0.45
	L-1	15.4	-30	OZU901	64.38	0.43
	L-2	16.3	-27	OZU902	71.61	0.48
	NL-LM-1	10.2	-25	OZU903	26.80	0.27
	NL-LM-2	9.4	-21	OZU904	58.05	0.65
	L-LM-1	11.7	-22	OZU905	36.52	0.29
	L-LM-2	7.8	-20	OZU906	24.00	0.26
500	NL-1	10.0	-25	OZU912	84.95	0.46
	NL-2	6.5	-24	OZU913	74.66	0.82
	L-1	8.3	-25	OZU914	86.87	0.58
	L-2	6.5	-22	OZU915	84.52	0.46
	NL-LM-1	3.4	-21	OZU916	66.82	0.49
	NL-LM-2	3.1	-21	OZU917	61.29	0.76
	L-LM-1*	4.7	-25	OZU918	72.68	0.73

193 *: Replicate sample L-LM-2 failed AMS analysis

194

195 Calcium concentrations in the initial biochar samples before environmental exposure were <10
 196 mg/kg (sum of water and acid extraction, see Supplementary Material File 1). After 3 years of
 197 environmental exposure biochars covered with limestone had gained substantially higher amounts
 198 of Ca (≈ 300-1200 mg/kg, n=8) than biochars without limestone cover (≈ 115-185 mg/kg, n=8).

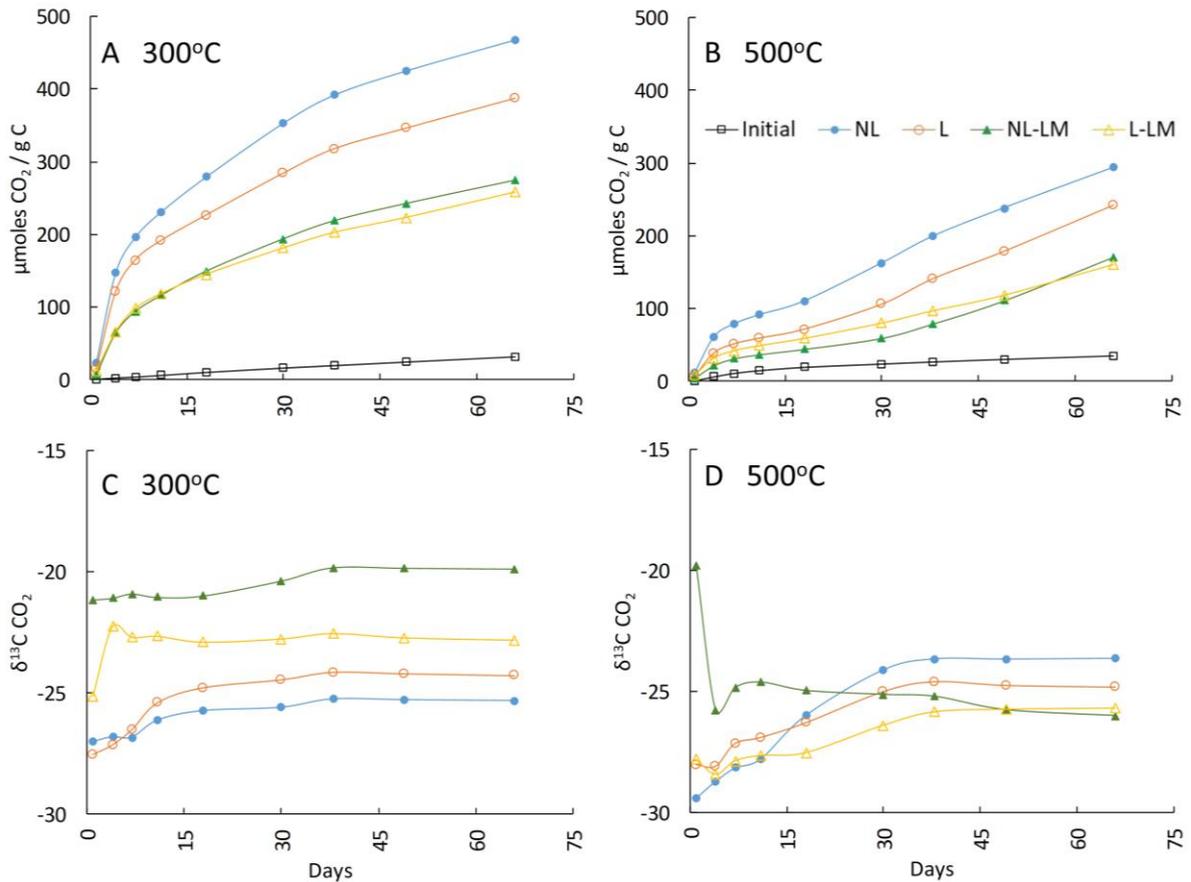
199

200 *Long-term incubation experiments*

201 For the 300°C biochars, the CO₂ efflux rate peaked at ≈ 18-41 μmoles CO₂/day/g C between day 1
202 and 4 depending on treatment but slowed to ≈ 1.9-2.5 μmoles CO₂/day/g C by the end of the
203 experiment (day 49-66, see Supplementary Material File 2). Efflux of CO₂ was substantially higher in
204 the two treatments without limestone (NL and L) than in the treatments with limestone (NL-LM and
205 L-LM) (Fig. 1a). Compared to the 300°C biochars, CO₂ efflux rate and cumulative CO₂ efflux were
206 lower in the 500°C biochars (initial rate ≈ 6-16 μmoles CO₂/day/g C, final rate ≈ 2.5-3.8 μmoles
207 CO₂/day/g C) but the relative differences between the treatments were similar between the two
208 biochar types (Fig. 1b). The initial biochar sample of both biochar types produced considerably lower
209 CO₂ efflux than the 3-year environmentally exposed samples.

210 The δ¹³C values of CO₂ in the long-term incubation experiment varied over the course of the
211 experiment for most treatments in both biochar types (Fig. 1 c, d). In both 300°C and 500°C biochars
212 without limestone (NL and L) δ¹³C values were initially low (≈ -27 to -29‰) before rising towards the
213 end of the experiment (≈ -23 to -25‰). In contrast, the δ¹³C_{CO₂} values in the limestone treatments
214 (NL-LM and L-LM) differed between the two biochar types with the 300°C biochars stabilizing at
215 higher values (≈ -20 to -23‰) than the 500°C biochars (≈ -26‰) towards the end of the experiment.
216 While δ¹³C_{CO₂} values derived from the short-term and long-term incubations varied by 2-3 ‰ at
217 equivalent incubation times the relative difference in values between limestone and no-limestone
218 treatments were similar.

219



220

221 Fig. 1. Cumulative CO₂ efflux (A, B) and δ¹³C_{CO₂} values (C, D) from 300°C and 500°C biochars in 66-day
 222 incubation experiments (mean of two replicates of each treatment). CO₂ efflux from the initial
 223 samples was insufficient for isotope measurement. NL: no litter cover; L: litter cover; NL-LM: no litter
 224 but limestone cover; L-LM: litter and limestone cover.

225

226 **Discussion:**

227 *CO₂ efflux and ¹⁴C concentration*

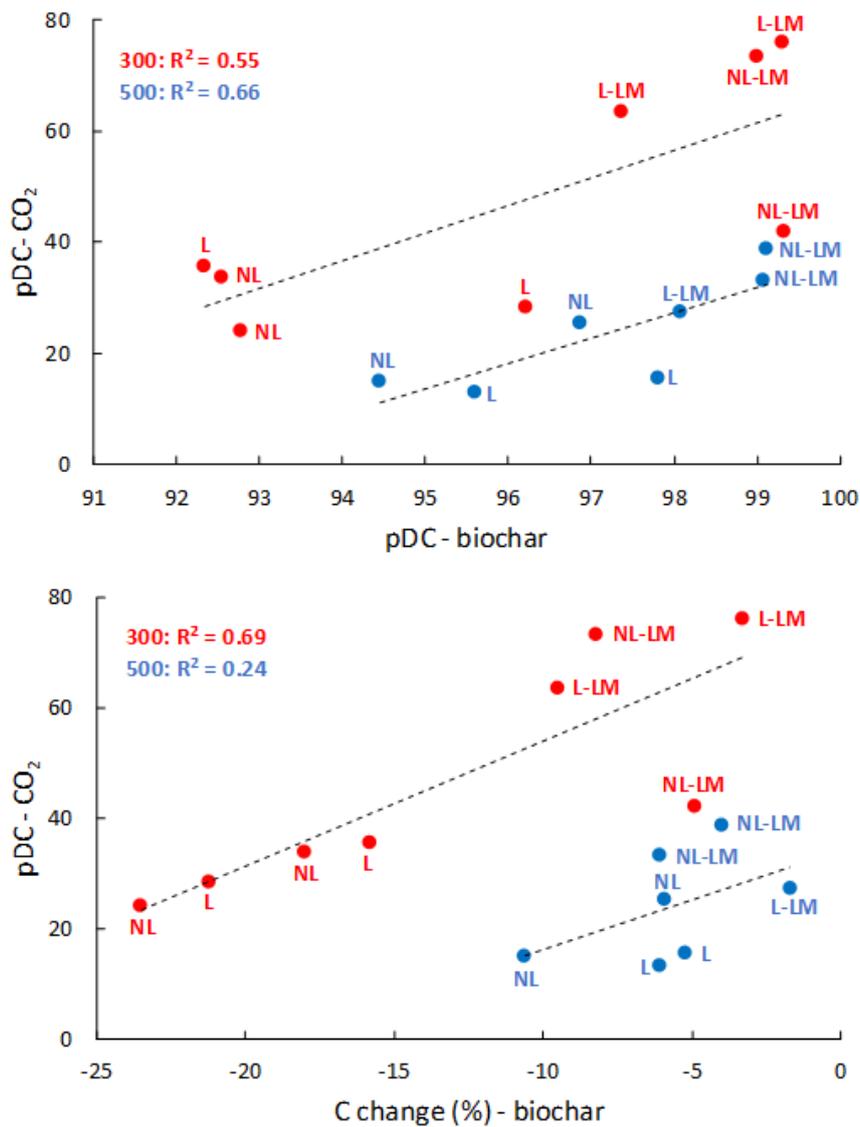
228 Previous studies have used laboratory incubations and ¹⁴C labelling to demonstrate that microbial
 229 mineralisation and respiration of CO₂ are dominant processes in the degradation of biochar (e.g
 230 Singh et al. 2012, Kuzyakov et al. 2014). However, Zimmerman (2010) showed that abiotic oxidation
 231 may be a significant degradation process in some cases. In the present study, we use the link
 232 between ¹⁴C_{CO₂} concentration and degradation to apportion the measured CO₂ efflux to indigenous
 233 biochar C and exogenous C from other sources within the biochars after three years of
 234 environmental exposure.

235 Based on our short-term incubation experiments, we found significant ($p < 0.05$) correlations
236 between ^{14}C concentration in both the 300°C and 500°C biochars after 3 years of exposure (data
237 from Bird et al. 2017) and the ^{14}C concentration in CO_2 obtained from the incubation experiment
238 (Fig. 2a, note that % ^{14}C -dead C is shown ($\text{pDC} = 100 - \text{pMC}$) which represents the indigenous C
239 component). The ^{14}C concentration in CO_2 efflux from the 300°C biochars was also significantly
240 ($p < 0.01$) correlated with relative changes in C concentration in these biochars (data from Bird et al.
241 2017) which is a function of both loss of indigenous C and addition of exogeneous C (Fig. 2b).
242 However, the positive trend between ^{14}C concentration in CO_2 and changes in C concentration in the
243 500°C biochars was not significant ($p = 0.26$).

244 The ^{14}C pDC values were substantially lower in CO_2 than in the corresponding biochar source
245 material in all treatments of both biochars. Furthermore, there was a higher proportion of
246 indigenous C in CO_2 from 300°C biochars compared to CO_2 from 500°C biochars. The limestone
247 treatments of both biochar types had the lowest ^{14}C concentration (highest pDC) in both CO_2 and the
248 biochar source. These findings are consistent with the observations by Bird et al. (2017) that 500°C
249 biochars are more resistant to decomposition than 300°C biochars and that biochars treated with
250 limestone had comparatively lower degrees of indigenous carbon loss and lower ingress of
251 exogeneous C compared to treatments without limestone. These authors also hypothesized that
252 restricted oxygen availability and high Ca^{2+} availability were two factors potentially reducing mobility
253 of degraded biochar C and lower ingress of exogeneous carbon in the limestone treatments.

254

255



256

257 Fig. 2. Relationship between ¹⁴C concentration in CO₂ efflux from biochars (this study) and ¹⁴C
 258 concentration in biochars and change in biochar C content after environmentally exposure (data
 259 from Bird et al. 2017). Radiocarbon concentration is shown as percent ¹⁴C-dead carbon (pDC = 100-
 260 pMC). NL: no litter cover; L: litter cover; NL-LM: no litter but limestone cover; L-LM: litter and
 261 limestone cover. All ¹⁴C analytical errors are within the size of the data points shown (maximum
 262 error is +/- 0.85 pDC).

263

264 The long-term incubation experiments demonstrated a reduction of up to 20-fold in the CO₂ efflux
 265 rate over the duration of the experiment (66 days). In addition, the cumulative δ¹³C_{CO₂} values of
 266 most treatments varied most dramatically over the first approximately 30 days after which time the

267 values became relatively stable. These observations mean that the ^{14}C and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data derived from
268 the short-term in-vitro experiment represents an initial phase of rapid CO_2 efflux sourced from a
269 relatively small pool of the most labile C. The reduced efflux of CO_2 in 500°C biochars compared to
270 300°C biochars and in biochars treated with limestone is consistent with an increased content of
271 recalcitrant SPAC in high temperature biochars and an effect of limestone in reducing loss of C.
272 Comparison of the environmentally exposed and initial biochar samples show an ≈ 15 -fold increase
273 in the cumulative CO_2 efflux in the 300°C biochar with no treatment after 66 days. The 500°C
274 biochars and biochars treated with leaf litter and limestone showed lesser, but still substantial,
275 acceleration in CO_2 efflux from degradation of C.

276

277 *Biochar degradation and CO_2 sources*

278 Carbon dioxide was derived from two sources of labile C contained in the 3-year old biochars:
279 exogenous C mainly derived from leaf litter with high ^{14}C concentration (pMC ≈ 106.2 , Bird et al.
280 2014) and a semi-labile fraction of radiocarbon-dead indigenous biochar C (pMC < 0.05). The
281 proportional contribution of these two sources can be directly linked to the ^{14}C concentration
282 measured in the CO_2 efflux from the short-term incubation experiment.

283 Figure 3 shows the changes in composition of biochars over 3 years based on mass balance
284 calculations (based on data from Bird et al. 2017) and the source apportionment of the CO_2 efflux
285 data presented in this study (see Supplementary Material File 3). The mass of inert indigenous C is
286 the measured content of SPAC (McBeath et al. 2015) and is assumed to remain unchanged over the
287 3-year period. Preservation of indigenous C (blue and orange sections in Figure 3) was highest and
288 ingress of exogenous C (green sections) was lowest in the limestone covered biochars which
289 suggests that biochar degradation was slowed by restricting oxygen availability and ingress by water
290 and microbiota in these treatments. In contrast, the more degraded indigenous C and higher ingress
291 of exogenous C in biochars exposed on the surface, or covered only by leaf litter, was likely caused
292 by higher oxygen availability and increased access for water and microbiota.

293 The mass balance results and their link to $^{14}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ concentration demonstrate that a high to dominant
294 proportion (≈ 30 -71%) of the CO_2 efflux was derived from the small proportion of exogeneous C (< 8
295 % of total C) in the 300°C biochars. For the 500°C biochars, an even higher proportion of CO_2 (≈ 64 -
296 86%) was derived from exogeneous C which constituted less than 5 % of total C. Although high
297 proportions of the CO_2 efflux were derived from the small contents of exogeneous C in the biochars,

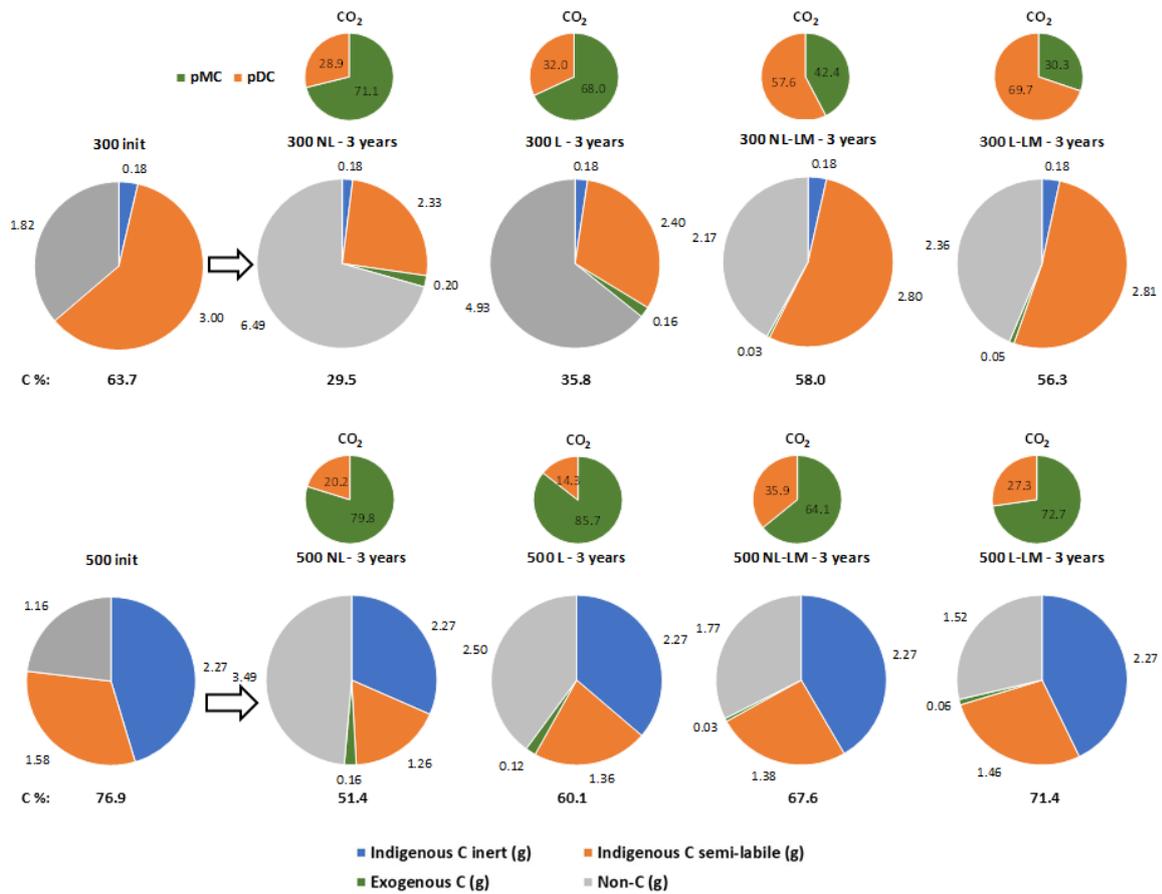
298 the CO₂ efflux from the incubation experiments accounted for less than 1% of exogenous C in all
299 samples.

300 The source of the remainder of the CO₂ efflux in both biochar types must be the semi-labile fraction
301 of indigenous C which amounts to ≈25-56% of the total biochar mass in the 300°C biochar and ≈22-
302 28% of the total biochar mass in the 500°C biochars (depending on treatment). Depending on
303 treatment, respiration rates of indigenous biochar carbon amounted to ≈ 0.7 - 1.4 μmoles CO₂ / g C /
304 day for the 300°C biochar and 0.5 - 1.3 μmoles CO₂ / g C / day for the 500°C biochar at the end of the
305 long-term incubation experiment (Supplementary Material File 4). It is interesting to note that at
306 these respiration rates the indigenous carbon pool would be completely degraded in ≈230-650
307 years.

308 The CO₂ efflux rates obtained for both the 300°C and 500°C biochars as a proportion of the semi-
309 labile indigenous PyC component were up to twice the maximum abiotic rate of degradation of
310 biochars reported by Zimmerman (2010) and other studies have documented their high resistance
311 to chemical oxidants (Forbes et al. 2006, Wang et al. 2016). Since the only oxidizing agents available
312 in our biochar incubations were the initial volume of deionised water and air, it seems improbable
313 that abiotic oxidation and/or solubilisation could be the dominant degradation processes.
314 Consequently, we infer that most of the CO₂ produced over the course of the incubations was due to
315 microbial degradation and respiration. However, abiotic oxidation may become increasingly
316 important in longer term incubations upon exhaustion of the most microbially available C sources.

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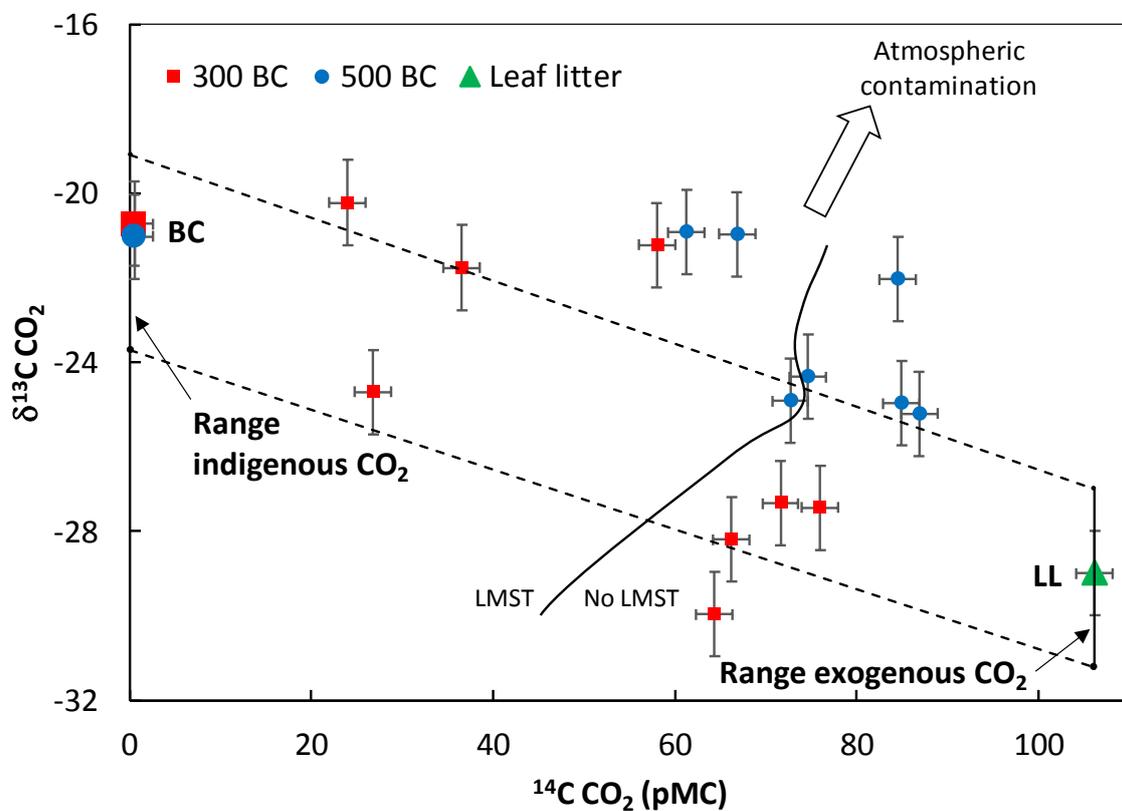
320 Fig. 3. Depiction of the distribution of carbon and non-carbon components in biochars before and
 321 after environmental exposure (large pie-charts) based on biochar mass balance data from Bird et al.
 322 (2017) and CO₂ efflux data from the present study. The mass (g) of each component is indicated
 323 outside each pie chart (initial biochar mass = 5 g) and the C concentration (%) is shown below. The
 324 small pie-charts show % modern carbon (pMC) and ¹⁴C-dead carbon (pDC) in the CO₂ efflux from
 325 exogeneous and indigenous semi-labile C, respectively. NL: no litter cover; L: litter cover; NL-LM: no
 326 litter but limestone cover; L-LM: litter and limestone cover.

327

328 A two-component mixture of CO₂ efflux from the indigenous and exogenous C sources identified can
 329 account for the distribution of both δ¹³C and ¹⁴C pMC values in most of biochar samples (Fig. 4).
 330 Carbon dioxide derived from both indigenous C (biochar <0.05 pMC, Bird et al. 2014) and exogenous
 331 C (leaf litter = 106.2 pMC, Bird et al. 2014) is likely to have a range of δ¹³C values close to those of
 332 the C source itself (300°C biochar initial δ¹³C = -20.7‰, 500°C biochar initial δ¹³C = -21.0‰, forest
 333 litter δ¹³C = -29.0‰, Bird et al. 2014). In a study of Australian grasslands, Šantrůčková et al. (2000)
 334 found that the δ¹³C value of microbial C on average was enriched by ≈2‰ compared to soil organic
 335 C, while microbially-respired CO₂ on average had δ¹³C values depleted by ≈ 2.2‰ compared with

336 microbial C. Assuming that similar isotopic fractionation effects occurred in the in-vitro respiration of
 337 our biochar samples, a $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ value of -2.2‰ below the initial source C (both indigenous C and
 338 exogenous leaf litter C) would result from the direct respiration of these two C sources. In addition,
 339 an upper $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ value of 2‰ above the initial source C would result from the in-vitro respiration of
 340 CO_2 by microbes obtaining C from dead microbial matter contained in the biochars and which
 341 obtained C from the indigenous and/or exogenous C sources during the 3-year environmental
 342 exposure of the biochar. Figure 4 demonstrates that the main influence on ^{14}C concentration and
 343 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in CO_2 efflux from the degrading biochars was the limestone treatment and not the
 344 biochar type (300°C or 500°C).

345



346

347

348 Fig. 4. Relationship between $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and ^{14}C concentrations (pMC) in CO_2 efflux from
 349 environmentally exposed biochars in short-term (14-18 day) incubation experiments. The range of
 350 likely values in CO_2 respired from the initial indigenous (biochar 'BC') and exogenous (leaf litter 'LL')
 351 sources are based on data from Bird et al. (2014) and Šantrůčková et al. (2000). The broken lines
 352 represent mixing between indigenous and exogenous C sources. The full line distinguishes limestone

353 treatments (LMST). The wide arrow indicates displacement of samples due to possible air
354 contamination during sample preparation.

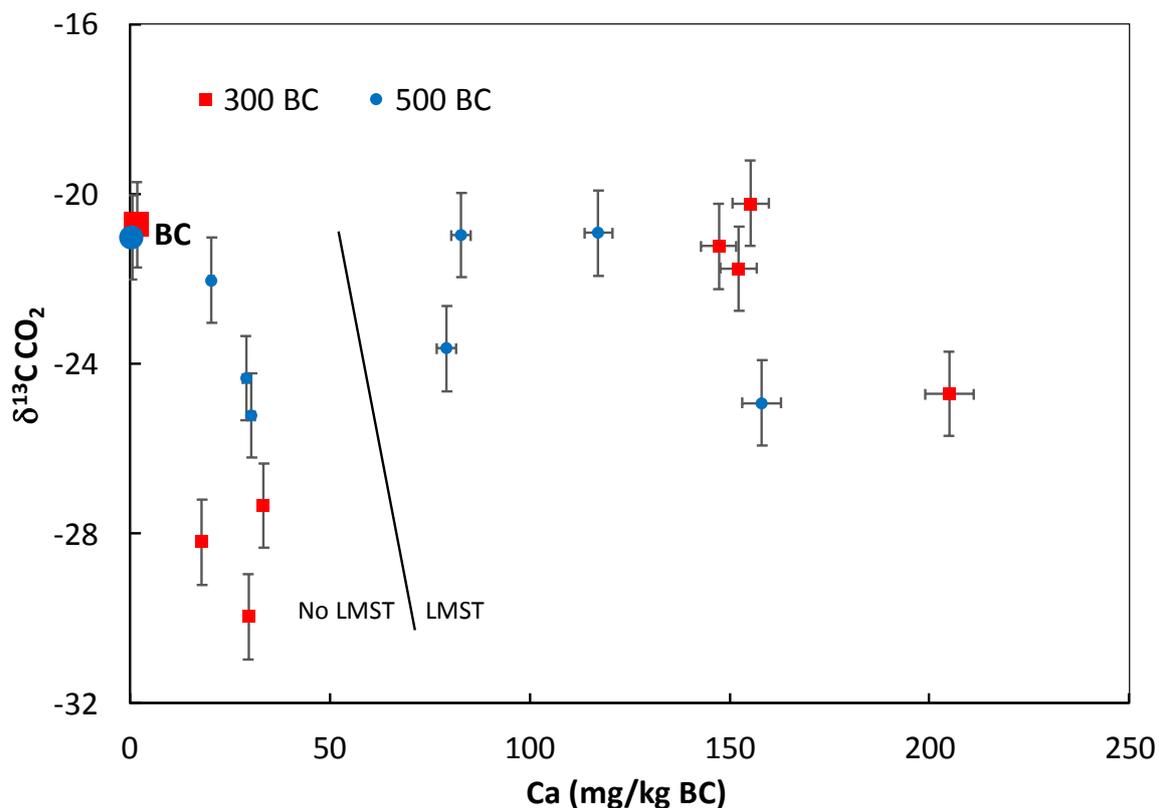
355

356 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ values of four samples were approximately 2-3‰ higher than expected from mixing of
357 the indigenous and exogenous CO_2 sources. We considered the possibility that three of these higher
358 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (samples with limestone treatment) could be due to incorporation of carbonate
359 fragments. However, the acidic nature of the biochars (pH = 4.5 to 5.6, Bird et al. 2017) would tend
360 to rapidly dissolve carbonates. In addition, we found no association between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ values and Ca
361 concentrations in water extracts of the 300°C or 500°C biochars (Fig. 5). This suggests that there was
362 no limestone present in the biochar samples that could contribute CO_2 with high $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values.

363 Therefore, the elevated Ca concentrations in biochars covered with limestone must indicate that
364 Ca^{2+} ions were derived by dissolution of the overlying limestone and immobilised within the
365 biochars. The small increase in Ca content in biochars without limestone treatment relative to the
366 initial biochar content likely indicates a lesser influx of Ca from local surface soils (exchangeable Ca \approx
367 1,600 mg/kg, unpublished data). As we have not identified any other source of CO_2 with high $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
368 values within the biochar samples it seems likely that the four samples with $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values above the
369 upper mixing line in Fig. 4 were contaminated with atmospheric air ($\delta^{13}\text{C} \approx -7.5$ ‰), possibly due to
370 incomplete flushing of the incubation flasks with CO_2 free air, a scenario considered likely given the
371 small sample sizes (average 47 $\mu\text{g C}$). An isotopic mass balance calculation shows that a maximum of
372 12% of atmospheric air would account for the displacement of all samples above the upper mixing
373 line in Fig. 4.

374

375



376

377 Fig. 5. Relationship between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ values and Ca concentrations in water extractions of
378 environmentally exposed biochars. The full line distinguishes limestone treatments (LMST) and 'BC'
379 indicates the likely values in CO_2 respired from the initial biochar samples (data from Bird et al.
380 2014).

381

382 *Influence of Ca^{2+} availability on biochar degradation*

383 The observation that CO_2 respired from the limestone-treated biochars contained substantially more
384 radiocarbon-dead indigenous C (lower pMC values), and that those incubations contained more Ca,
385 compared to biochars without limestone treatment, supports the hypothesis by Bird et al (2017)
386 that the availability of Ca^{2+} ions reduces the mobility of degraded indigenous biochar. In addition,
387 the limestone covers restricted access by oxygen, water and microbiota. Table 2 shows the
388 calculated losses of indigenous C respired as CO_2 as a percentage of the total indigenous C loss over
389 the 3-year field trial. The calculations are based on the respiration rates measured during the final 17
390 days of the 66-day incubation trial (see Supplementary Material File 4). Irrespective of whether
391 these rates accurately reflect field conditions during environmental exposure the data illustrates the
392 effect of limestone treatment in reducing the field mobility of degraded indigenous C in biochars.

393 Limestone treated 300°C biochars had a 5-6 fold higher percentage indigenous C loss respired as CO₂
 394 compared to treatments without limestone. In the 500°C biochars the increase was 2-3 fold. The
 395 lower percentages in the 300°C compared to the 500°C biochars are due to the larger pool of semi-
 396 labile indigenous C available for respiration in the 300°C biochars (94% of total indigenous C)
 397 compared to the 500°C biochars (41% of total indigenous C). The results here suggest higher Ca²⁺
 398 availability led to the binding and immobilization *in situ*, of degradation products to the char
 399 surfaces, or minerals associated with the char surfaces (Oades, 1988; Wittinghall and Hobbie, 2012;
 400 Varcoe et al., 2010).

401 The difference in respired loss of indigenous C between limestone and no limestone treatments
 402 indicates the amount of additional loss by solubilisations and leaching of indigenous C in biochars
 403 without limestone treatment. While all biochars, regardless of treatment type, were degraded
 404 during the period of environmental exposure, a significant portion of the resulting labile C was not
 405 leached from the biochars treated with limestone. Hence a larger pool of indigenous carbon was
 406 available for respiration in the laboratory incubations as shown in Fig. 3.

407

408 Table 2. Calculated indigenous C respired as CO₂ as a percentage of the total indigenous C loss during
 409 the 3-year field trial

	No litter No Limestone	Litter No limestone	No litter Limestone	Litter Limestone
300 °C biochar	4.5%	5.4%	21.9%	30.4%
500 °C biochar	10.5%	12.6%	32.7%	28.4%

410

411

412 The finding that Ca²⁺ availability has an impact on the immobilization of degradation products on
 413 biochars has implications for the radiocarbon dating of ancient biochars. Biochars from alkaline
 414 environments appear more degraded than samples from non-alkaline environments (Alon et al.,
 415 2002; Rebollo et al., 2008). The results presented here suggest that biochars from alkaline
 416 environments are not intrinsically more susceptible to degradation than biochars from non-alkaline
 417 environments, they simply retain degradation products *in situ* through Ca²⁺ immobilization processes
 418 – products that have been lost by leaching and/or respiration from chars in non-alkaline
 419 environments. Thus, the often-large alkali-soluble component of ancient biochars from Ca-rich

420 environments such as limestone caves may be of mostly indigenous origin. As such the alkali-soluble
421 component may potentially be able to provide a robust radiocarbon age determination if the
422 solubilized indigenous component can be isolated from actual exogenous contamination.

423

424 **Conclusions:**

425 We have reported ^{14}C concentration and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the CO_2 efflux from incubated biochars
426 previously degraded during 3 years of environmental exposure in a humid tropical environment. The
427 radiocarbon results show that one degradation pathway, likely mediated by microbial activity, lead
428 to the respiration of indigenous biochar carbon in significant amounts as CO_2 along with a
429 component of exogenous carbon closely associated with the biochars but derived from the local
430 environment. In addition, correlations observed between ^{14}C concentration, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and Ca
431 abundance indicate that high Ca^{2+} availability reduces loss of indigenous C during biochar
432 degradation by immobilizing degradation products in-situ.

433

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436

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442

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