1	Animal carcass- and wood-derived biochars improved nutrient
2	bioavailability, enzyme activity, and plant growth in metal-phthalic acid
3	ester co-contaminated soils: A trial for reclamation and improvement of
4	degraded soils
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29 Graphical abstract





32 Highlights

- Biochar's effect on pak choi growth in Cd-DEHP co-contaminated soils was tested.
- 2% pig biochar addition increased the yield of pak choi.
- Pig biochar improved nutrient phytoavailabilities more than wood biochar.
- Tested biochars enhanced soil urease, sucrase and catalase activities.
- Biochars had prominent influence on pak choi growth in low organic carbon soil.
- 38

39 Abstract

Reclamation of degraded soils such as those with low organic carbon content and soils co-contaminated with toxic elements and phthalic acid esters (PAEs) is of great concern. Little is known about the efficiency of plant- and animal-derived biochars for improving plant growth and the soil physicochemical and biological properties in these co-contaminated soils, particularly under low content of organic matter. Hence, a pot trial was carried out by growing pak choi (*Brassica chinensis* L.) to assess the influence of different doses (0, 0.5, 1, 2, and 4%) of animal (pig carcass) and wood 46 (Platanus orientalis) derived biochars on soil properties, nutrient availabilities, plant growth, and soil enzyme activities in two soils containing low (LOC) and high (HOC) organic carbon contents and 47 48 co-contaminated with di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalic acid (DEHP) and cadmium (Cd). Biochar 49 applications significantly (P < 0.05) improved pH, salinity, carbon content and cation exchange capacity of both soils. Addition of biochars significantly (P < 0.05) increased the bioavailability and 50 51 uptake of phosphorus and potassium in the plants in both soils with greater effects from pig biochar than wood biochar. Biochar additions also significantly (P < 0.05) enhanced urease, sucrase, and 52 catalase activities, but suppressed acid phosphatase activity in both soils. The impact of pig biochar 53 54 was stronger on urease and acid phosphatase, while the wood biochar was more effective with sucrase, and catalase activities. The biomass yield of pak choi was significantly (P < 0.05) increased after 55 biochar addition to both soils, especially in 2% pig biochar treatment in the LOC soil. The positive 56 57 response of soil enzymatic activities and plant growth for biochar addition to the Cd and DEHP co-contaminated soils indicate that both biochars could mitigate the risk of these pollutants and prove 58 59 to be eco-friendly and low-cost amendments for reclaiming these degraded soils.

60 *Keywords:* Degraded land; nutrients availability; charcoal; soil biology; soil restoration.

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62 **1. Introduction**

Industrialization, urbanization, effluent irrigation, uncontrolled disposal of wastes, agricultural
plastic mulch abuse and other anthropogenic activities have resulted in unprecedented contamination
of arable soils with heavy metal(loid)s (Qi et al., 2017; Bandara et al., 2019) and plasticizers, e.g.,
phthalic acid esters (PAEs) (Antoniadis et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2019). Di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalic acid
(DEHP) as a typical PAE, and cadmium (Cd) as a typical heavy metal, have posed alarming

environmental and human health risks of these contaminants globally (Antoniadis et al., 2017; He et 68 al., 2015; He et al., 2018; Bandara et al., 2019). They can be taken up by plants, decreasing the yield 69 70 and quality of crops, and finally accumulated in human body through the food web, damaging the 71 functions of human organs including endocrine and reproductive systems (Qin et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019). Simultaneously, poor organic matter content of soils has been identified as a major reason for 72 73 loosing soil quality and crop yield worldwide (Pulido-Fernández et al., 2013). Therefore, reclamation of degraded soils such as those co-contaminated with DEHP and heavy metal(loid)s, and soils with 74 75 low organic matter content is of great importance. Achieving such reclamation via suitable low-cost 76 amendments is an attractive option for soil restoration from both environmental quality and economic 77 points of view (Yang et al., 2016; Palansooriya et al., 2019, 2020).

78 Numerous studies describing biochar as a suitable material for remediating organic pollutants 79 (Zhang et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2018) and heavy metal(loid)s (Li et al., 2019a; Wu et al., 2017, 2019) in water (Li et al., 2019b; Mao et al., 2019) and soils (Shaheen et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2019) have 80 been published. For instance, Abbas et al. (2017) found that the Cd concentration in wheat was 81 decreased after rice straw biochar amendment. They claimed that the probable reason could be the 82 reduction of Cd concentration in soil pore water for immediate crop uptake after biochar addition, 83 84 and/or biochar facilitated the combined effects of Cd bioavailability reduction and soil organic matter 85 improvement, as also suggested by Rizwan et al. (2016). In addition, biochar is of benefit to the improvement of soil structure (i.e., aggregate formation) (Quan et al., 2020) and fertility (Li et al., 86 2019c; Wei et al., 2019), and thereby promoting crop growth (Dong et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018; 87 Purakayastha et al., 2019). 88

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China generates around 20 million pig carcasses yearly, and this number continues to climb every

90 year (He et al., 2018). Additionally, urban green wastes such as tree branches have turned into a huge 91 source of pollution and a hindrance to the benign development of ecological environment (Belyaeva 92 and Haynes, 2010). Pyrolysis of pig carcasses and green wastes into biochar not only presents an 93 efficient and environmentally friendly option for disposing these wastes (Yang et al., 2017) but also 94 offers a tremendous scope for using the biochar for *in situ* remediation of soil contaminants while 95 simultaneously improving soil productivity and crop yield.

96 In China, the area of vegetable cropping is second to grain production. Vegetables account for approximately 28.5% of the total diet in China, and pak choi (Brassica chinensis L.) is a typical 97 98 widely-consumed leafy vegetable in daily life of the population (Yan et al., 2009). Wei et al. (2017) noted that the consumption of pak choi as a staple vegetable made a significant contribution to the 99 100 estimated dietary intake of toxic metals such as Cd in Chinese population. As a consequence, it is of 101 importance to reduce contaminant accumulation in pak choi and improve the crop yield and quality. It is well-accepted that soil enzymatic activity is sensitive to soil contaminants, accordingly considered 102 103 to be a crucial parameter of soil health (He et al., 2019). Soil enzymes also have a critical influence on nutrient (e.g., K, N and P) cycling and subsequent uptake by plants (Sarkar et al., 2016; Nie et al., 104 105 2018). Nutrient phytoavailability affects plant growth directly while contamination stress can inhibit 106 plant growth by posing toxic effects.

107 Till date, little information is documented on the efficiency of plant- and animal-derived biochars 108 for affecting nutrient bioavailabilities, enzyme activities, and plant growth in DEHP-metal 109 co-contaminated soils. We hypothesize that co-contamination of soils with Cd and DEHP may affect 110 the soil microbial activities, enzyme activities, nutrient bioavailability, and plant growth, and these 111 effects may differ based on the soil organic carbon content. To verify this hypothesis, we conducted a pot-culture experiment using pak choi and two different soils treated with wood- and animal-derived biochars, i.e., pig carcasses and branches of *Platanus orientalis* Linn., to investigate the influence of biochars on the bioavailability of soil nutrients, enzyme activity, and the pak choi growth under the combined pollution of Cd and DEHP in soils containing low and high organic carbon contents.

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117 2 Materials and methods

118 2.1 Soil and biochar collection, preparation, and characterization

The studied soils were sampled from two near-by fields (0-20 cm of topsoil) located in the 119 southwest of Hangzhou City (30°24'N, 119°71'E), China. The first soil is rich in its total organic 120 carbon content (HOC: 3.08%) and was used as farmland to cultivate vegetables nearly for twenty 121 years. The second soil was left fallow for the same period, and thus was poor in its organic carbon 122 123 content (LOC: 0.75%). Both soils were air-dried, crushed, and sieved (3-mm mesh). In order to obtain co-contaminated soils, the two soils were spiked with DEHP at 50 mg kg⁻¹ soil and Cd at 1.0 mg kg⁻¹. 124 The concentration of Cd²⁺ was referred to the Level 3 of the Environmental Quality Standards for 125 soils GB 15618-1995, and DEHP concentration was chosen according to a previous research (He et al., 126 2016). The Cd/DEHP-spiked soils were mixed homogenously, air dried, and used for the pot 127 128 experiment.

Pig biochar (PB) was produced by the pyrolysis of whole pig carcasses, and wood biochar (WB) was prepared by pyrolysing shredded branches (3-mm mesh) of *Platanus orientalis* Linn., at 650°C for 2 h. Both biochars were crushed and sieved (2-mm mesh) before mixing with the soils. The physicochemical properties of the studied biochars were determined using the methods described by Yang et al. (2016). The two biochars differed in many characteristics, such as ash content, cation exchange capacity (CEC), available phosphorus, surface alkalinity and specific surface area. More
details about the experimental soil and biochar properties, soil spiking procedure with DEHP and Cd,
and soil preparation and characterization are included in Supporting Information (Appendix A) and
published in Chen et al. (2019).

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139 **2.2 Pot trial**

The pot trial was carried out in a greenhouse located in Zhejiang A&F University, Zhejiang Province, China, at temperature between 25 to 33°C. Each ceramic pot (20 cm diameter, 19 cm height) was filled with either 3 kg of the Cd-DEHP contaminated LOC or HOC soil. Then the pig biochar and wood biochar were applied to the Cd-DEHP contaminated soils in the ceramic pots at five doses (i.e., 0, 0.5, 1, 2 and 4%, w/w) and mixed well. In total, eighteen treatments (including controls) were set in this trial and every treatment repeated in four replicates. The LOC and HOC control soils did not receive any dose of biochar.

All pots were fertilized with KH₂PO₄ and urea according to a basal dose of K₂O 0.2 g·kg⁻¹, P₂O₅ 147 0.32 g·kg⁻¹, N 0.25 g kg⁻¹ recommended for pak choi (He et al., 2016). Treatments were arranged in a 148 complete randomized block design. The soil was maintained at 70% of the field water holding 149 capacity for an initial period of 30 days to equilibrate the spiked Cd and DEHP into the soil. After the 150 151 equilibration, ten pak choi seeds were sown at equal spacing in each ceramic pot on 10 July 2017. After about fifteen days, five strongest seedlings were kept after thinning out the rest. Watering with 152 deionized water (2-3 times per week) was performed during the growth period to maintain the soil 153 moisture status at the field capacity. After maturity (50 days), the matured pak choi shoots were 154 155 harvested from the pots. The plants were rinsed with deionized water to get rid of the soil particles.

156	The fresh plant shoots were oven-dried at 105°C for 0.5 h and subsequently oven-dried at 65°C until a
157	constant weight was achieved. Dried plant shoots were crushed and sieved (0.25-mm mesh) before
158	chemical analysis. After plant harvest, the soils in each pot were collected, homogenized and air-dried.
159	Sampled soils were then ground to 2-mm and 0.25-mm fractions for further chemical analysis.

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161 2.3 Soil analysis

The dry and ground soils were analyzed for pH, electrical conductivity (EC), organic carbon 162 content (OC), cation exchange capacity (CEC) and particle size distribution according to the methods 163 164 described by Lu (2000). Soil available potassium (K) was extracted using ammonium acetate, and analyzed by a flame photometer (FP640, Xinyi Instrument, China) (Lu, 2000). The concentration of 165 available nitrogen (N) was extracted using a micro-diffusion technique after alkaline-hydrolysis 166 method (Lu, 2000). The available phosphorus (P) was extracted using sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃) 167 and measured by spectrophotometric method (UVA 132122, Thermo Electron Corporation, England) 168 at 700 nm wavelength (Lu, 2000). The total Cd content of the soils was determined by digesting the 169 170 soils with HF-HClO₄-HNO₃ (Carignan and Tessier, 1988). Potentially available Cd was extracted by 171 diethylenetriaminepentaacetate acid (DTPA) (Lu, 2000). Cadmium was analyzed using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES Optima 2000, PerkinElmer Co., USA). The 172 173 DEHP was extracted and analyzed as per He et al. (2016). More details about the determination methods of Cd and DEHP concentrations in soil are provided in the Supporting Information 174 175 (Appendix A).

177 **2.4 Soil enzyme activities**

The activities of urease, acid phosphatase, sucrase, and catalase were determined according to Dick et al. (1996). The urease activity was expressed as the mass of NH₃-N released per gram of dry soil after 24-hour incubation with urea solution at 37°C and determined by spectrophotometric method

at 578 nm wavelength. The acid phosphatase activity was expressed as the mass of phenol released 181 182 per gram of dry soil after 24-hour incubation with a p-nitrophenyl phosphate substrate at 37°C and determined by spectrophotometric method at 660 nm wavelength. The sucrase activity was expressed 183 as mass of glucose released per gram of dry soil after 24-hour incubation with glucose solution at 184 185 37°C and determined by spectrophotometric method at 508 nm wavelength. The catalase activity was measured by titrating the residual hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) added after 20 minutes of soil exposure 186 with 0.1 M potassium permanganate (KMnO₄). The catalase activity was expressed as the volume of 187 188 0.1 M KMnO₄ used per gram dry soil per minute (Dick et al., 1996).

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190 **2.5 Plant biomass and analysis of nutrients in plants**

The dry weight of the plant shoots was recorded, and the samples were kept for further analysis.
The nitrogen (N) concentration was measured using an elemental analyzer (Flash EA1112, Thermo
Finnigan, Italy).

Plant shoots were digested with nitric acid (HNO₃), and the P, K, and Cd concentrations were determined. The P concentration was quantified by spectrophotometric method (UVA 132122, Thermo Electron Corporation, England) at 700 nm (Lu, 2000). The concentration of K was determined by a flame photometer (FP640, Xinyi Instrument, China), the concentration of Cd was determined with ICP-OES (Optima 2000, PerkinElmer Co., USA) (Lu, 2000).

200 2.6 Data analysis

Data analysis was performed with the statistical package SPSS 17.0. Variability of data was expressed in terms of standard deviation of four replicates. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to assess differences between treatments, and P<0.05 was supposed to be statistically significant. Pearson's correlation analysis with a significance level of P<0.01 was performed to identify the correlation between variables.

206

207 3 Results and discussion

208 3.1 Biochar-induced changes in soil pH, salinity, CEC, and organic carbon

Soil pH significantly (P < 0.05) increased after application of the wood and pig biochars in both 209 210 the LOC and HOC soils, and the impact of biochars was based on the applied dosage (Fig. 1A). The increase of soil pH might be due to the high pH of biochars (9.5 for wood biochar and 10.0 for pig 211 212 biochar; Table S2). We assume that when these alkaline biochars were applied into the soil, the alkali salts might be released, and thus increase the soil pH (Martinsen et al., 2015). Application of pig 213 214 biochar made a greater impact on soil pH than wood biochar, which might be due to the higher pH, 215 ash content, and surface alkalinity of the pig biochar (Appendix A; Table S2). Biochar addition also 216 improved the status of the water-soluble salts, and thus increased the soil salinity, particularly in the HOC soil (Fig. 1 B), which might be due to the high mineral contents of the biochars (Fig. S1). 217 However, the values of EC were still less than 0.3 dS m⁻¹, which means that the biochar treated soils 218 would not suffer from high salinity. 219

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Applications of 4% pig and wood biochars were effective in increasing the CEC in both soils

(Fig. 1C). The increase of soil CEC after addition of biochars might be explained by the high surface alkalinity and ash content of the biochars as indicated in Table S2. Wood biochar addition was more efficient in increasing the organic carbon content of soil than pig biochar (Fig. 1D), which can be explained by its higher content of carbon than pig biochar (Table S2). For instance, the highest soil organic carbon contents were noticed at 4% wood biochar treatments, which increased by 5.4 folds in the LOC soil and 0.7 folds in the HOC soil, as compared to the control.





Fig. 1. Effect of biochar treatments on the pH (A), electrical conductivity (EC) (B), cation exchange capacity (CEC) (C), and organic carbon (OC) (D) in low organic carbon (LOC) soil and high organic carbon (HOC) soil. Control: untreated soil contaminated by Cd-DEHP; PB: pig biochar; WB: wood biochar. Error bars are standard deviation of the means (n=4). Different lower-case letters above the columns indicate significant difference between treatments (*P*<0.05).

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235 3.2 Impact of biochars on the bioavailability and uptake of N, P, and K

The pig biochar addition caused a more profound impact than wood biochar in increasing the

237	bioavailability and uptake of K and P in soils (Fig. 2A and 2B). The maximum values of available K
238	corresponded to 4% pig biochar treatment, with up to 4.1-fold increase in the LOC soil and up to
239	2.1-fold increase in the HOC soil. In addition, the concentrations of available P in pig
240	biochar-amended LOC soil increased by 1.0-3.5 folds, and in HOC soil, it increased by 0.4-0.8 folds.
241	Simultaneously, the concentrations of K and P in plants also significantly ($P < 0.05$) increased as the
242	pig biochar application dosage increased (Fig. 2D and 2E). Compared to the controls, significant
243	increases of available K in soils were also noticed after wood biochar addition, which increased by
244	0.7-1.8 and 0.3-0.5 folds in the LOC and HOC soils, respectively. However, wood biochar amendment
245	showed a non-significant (P>0.05) effect on the bioavailability of P neither in LOC nor HOC soil.



Fig. 2. Effect of biochar treatments on the available K (A), P (B) and N (C) in the low organic carbon (LOC) soil and high organic carbon (HOC) soil, and the uptake of K (D), P (E) and N (F) in plant shoots. Control: untreated soil contaminated by Cd-DEHP; PB: pig biochar; WB: wood biochar. Error bars are standard deviation of the means (n=4). Different lower-case letters above the columns indicate significant difference between treatments (P<0.05).

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Increasing the bioavailability and uptake of K and P in the pig biochar-treated soils might be due to the higher contents of P and K in the pig biochar than wood biochar (Table S2). Improving the availability of P and K in biochar treated soils agrees with previous studies (e.g., Yang et al., 2016; Purakayastha et al., 2019). The biochar-induced improvement of soil pH and CEC could also be

another reason for improving the status and availability of P and K in the pig biochar-treated soil 258 (DeLuca et al., 2009; Haefele et al., 2011). We also assume that the biochar-induced enhancement of 259 260 soil microbial activities could be a reason for increasing the bioavailability of P and K in the wood biochar-treated soils. Our hypothesis was supported by the improvement of soil enzyme activities in 261 the biochar treated soils, as shown in Fig. 3, and will be discussed in section 3.3. In this respect, 262 263 Wardle et al., (2008) and Gul et al. (2015) indicated that biochar application might promote the growth and activity of soil microorganisms via improving the soil structure (e.g., facilitating soil 264 temperature, moisture and aeration), and functioning as a carbon source, and therefore enhance P and 265 266 K mineralization. In addition, we also assume that the mitigated biotoxicity of Cd and DEHP could enhance P and K uptake. Previous studies (Sun et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019) found that the existence 267 268 of Cd and DEHP would damage the cell membranes in major plants, and the destruction of cell 269 membranes seriously affected the absorption of nutrient elements by blocking the transmembrane transport. Therefore, application of biochars might indirectly promote the absorption of P and K by 270 271 plants via alleviating the stress of contaminants in soils.

The biochar impact on soil available N content was stronger in the LOC soil than the HOC soil 272 (Fig. 2C). The available N concentration in the LOC soil significantly (P < 0.05) decreased with the 273 274 addition of both biochars. However, the shoot N concentration increased after both biochars' addition 275 (Fig. 2F). We hypothesize that the decrease of N availability in the LOC soil after the addition of both 276 biochars could be ascribed to their specific properties (i.e., high porosity, specific surface area and 277 CEC), which might increase the sorption of NO_3^- (pore filling) and NH_4^+ (cation exchange), as also reported by other studies (e.g., Olmo et al., 2016; Purakayastha et al., 2019). In addition, the C-rich 278 279 biochars used in the current study would increase the C/N ratio of biochar-amended soil, which might

inhibit the mineralization rate of soil organic N by reducing the activities of microorganisms, and 280 thereby decrease the N availability, as the similar interpretations were previously reported by Haefele 281 282 et al. (2011). The increase of N concentration in plants might not be due to the extra N provided by biochar, because most of N would be non-bioavailable in biochar pyrolyzed at a temperature higher 283 than 500°C (650°C in this study) (Zheng et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2014). In regards to the increase of 284 285 shoot N concentration after biochar application increased, we assume that it could be attributed to the improvement of N utilization efficiency after biochar application into the soil, according to the results 286 reported by Zheng et al., (2013) and Purakayastha et al. (2019). 287

Additionally, the influence of biochar application on the availability of K, P and N of LOC soils was more noticeable than that of HOC soils, which suggested that the soil organic carbon content had a strong association with the effectiveness of biochar application on impacting the soil fertility. Yang et al. (2016) demonstrated that the higher organic carbon content increased the soil buffering capacity. Thus, in our present study, it is interpretable that biochar application had more advantages in improving the physicochemical properties and nutrient availabilities of the LOC soil than that of HOC soil.

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296 **3.3 Impact of biochars on enzyme activities**

Soil enzyme activities, as biological/biochemical indicators of soil quality, are closely related to the behavior of soil microorganisms, and could be affected by soil contamination (Bandara et al., 2019; He et al., 2019). As shown in Fig. 3, application of biochars had positive effect on the activities of urease, sucrase, and catalase, and the effectiveness differed based on biochar type and dose, and soil types. Compared to the untreated soils, the urease activity of the LOC and HOC soils treated with all doses of pig biochar increased by 19.0-133.6% and 58.3-213.0%, respectively (Fig. 3A). In the case

of wood biochar treatments, only the 4% dose led to a significant (P < 0.05) increase in urease activity 303 in LOC soil; however, in the HOC soil, the urease activity was significantly increased for all biochar 304 305 treatments as compared to the control (Fig. 3A). However, application of 4% wood biochar had a 306 greater impact on enhancing the activities of sucrase and catalase than urease. The maximum values of sucrase activity were noticed at 4% wood biochar treatment, with up to 12.5-fold increase in the 307 LOC soil, and 4.6-fold increase in the HOC soil, as compared to the control soil (Fig. 3C). The wood 308 biochar was more effective (increased by 85.8-150.8% in LOC soils, and 27.2-65.2% in HOC soils) 309 than pig biochar application (increased by 35.0-140.5% in LOC soils, and 19.0-60.5% in HOC soils) 310 311 in increasing the catalase activity in soils (Fig. 3D). We hypothesize that the enhancement of urease, sucrase, and catalase activities of soil with 312

biochar application might be due to the high mineral and nutrient contents, porosity and surface area of the added biochars (Table S2; Fig. S1), which provided a habitat for microorganisms with ample aeration, water, and nutrients, which might be a reason for improving the growth and reproduction of soil microorganisms, as reported by Gul et al. (2015) and Bandara et al. (2019), and thereby promoting soil enzymatic activities.



Fig. 3. Effect of biochar treatments on the activities of urease (A), acid phosphatase (B), sucrase (C) and catalase (D) in low organic carbon (LOC) soil and high organic carbon (HOC) soil. Control: untreated soil contaminated by Cd-DEHP; PB: pig biochar; WB: wood biochar. Error bars are standard deviation of the means (n=4). Different lower-case letters above the columns indicate significant difference between treatments (P<0.05).

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Toxic metals, such as Cd ions, might deactivate the enzyme proteins, and thus inhibit soil 326 enzymatic activities (Tan et al., 2018). Also, DEHP might affect the production of enzymes by causing 327 dysfunction in the structure of cell membrane (Chen et al., 2019). Improving the activities of urease, 328 sucrase, and catalase in the biochar treated soils as compared to the untreated soils indicated that both 329 330 biochars mitigated the negative impact of Cd and DEHP on these enzyme activities in the contaminated soils. In our previous study (Chen et al., 2019), both the wood and pig biochars, 331 particularly pig biochar, were able to reduce the bioavailability of Cd and DEHP in both soils. 332 Therefore, we assume that the biochar-induced reduction of Cd and DEHP toxicity in 333 biochar-amended soils might promote the soil enzyme activities in these soils as compared to the 334

untreated ones. Pearson's correlation analysis in the present study provided a proof that the urease activity negatively correlated to the concentration of extractable Cd (r = -0.489, P < 0.01, n = 72), and the catalase activity negatively correlated to the DEHP concentration in soil (r = -0.527, P < 0.01, n =72). These results indicated that biochar application was able to reduce the Cd and DEHP bio-toxicity through adsorption/immobilization of those contaminants onto biochar (Qin et al., 2018), as suggested by the improvement of most of the enzymatic activities examined in this study.

On other hand, the acid phosphatase activity decreased significantly (P < 0.05) in the biochar 341 treated soil as compared to the control (Fig. 3 B). Pig biochar addition decreased (14.1-39.8% in LOC 342 343 soil and 18.2-44.7% in HOC soil) the acid phosphatase activity more than wood biochar application (15.7-31.3% in LOC soil and 13.5-32.1% in HOC soil), in comparison to untreated soils (Fig. 3B). We 344 hypothesize that the reduction of acid phosphatase activity in the biochar treated soils could be 345 346 interpreted by the associated increase of soil pH, as also indicated by Chen et al. (2013) and Yang et al. (2016). Wang et al. (2018) reported that the acid phosphatase activity depended on soil microbial 347 348 activities and soil pH. The optimum pH of acid phosphate activity is pH=4.0-5.0 (Wang et al., 2018); however, our soil pH increased to 6.5 after biochar addition, which might cause an inhibitory effect on 349 the acid phosphatase activity. A significant negative correlation between acid phosphatase activity and 350 351 soil pH was observed in this study (r = -0.434, P < 0.01, n = 72), which also presented an evidence for 352 our hypothesis.

The acid phosphatase activity relates to P transformation and cycling in the soil, and the urease is a crucial factor in soil N mineralization (Yang et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018). Pig biochar had a more profound influence on soil N and P availability than wood biochar. Therefore, pig biochar amendment had greater effect on the urease and acid phosphatase activities in soil, and the reason might be the higher N and P contents, CEC, surface alkalinity of pig biochar than wood biochar. Sucrase and catalase activities depended on soil organic carbon content, and therefore, the higher C content in wood biochar than pig biochar might enhance sucrase and catalase activities in the biochar-amended soils. Further research should be performed to determine the reasons for different response of biochar-amended soil enzyme activities to the LOC and HOC soils.

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363 3.4 Impact of biochars on plant growth

364 Given that the seeds of pak choi in 4% pig biochar treatments did not germinate normally, we eliminated the plant data from that treatment in the statistical analysis. The fact that pak choi did not 365 germinate well in the 4% pig biochar treatments in the pot trial suggested that high pig biochar dosage 366 367 (4%) inhibited plant growth, as observed also by Schmidt et al. (2014) and Khan et al. (2015). Schmidt et al. (2014) reported that high biochar dosage might cause nutrient immobilization in soils, 368 particularly the dissolved organic carbon and mineral N, which consequently would restrict plant 369 growth. Another possible reason was that biochar application increased the available NH⁴⁺-N 370 371 concentration in the soil to a level which led to a stress condition for the plant (Khan et al., 2015).

Fig. 4 showed that all treatments (except in the 0.5% wood biochar treatment) significantly 372 373 (P < 0.05) increased the dry weight of plant shoots, as compared to the control. The highest dry weight 374 of plant shoot was observed in 2% pig biochar treatment, which was 10.1 and 0.5 folds higher than the control in the LOC and HOC soil, respectively. In both soils, pig biochar amendment was more 375 effective in enhancing the shoot dry weight than wood biochar amendment. In addition, the impact of 376 377 biochar on plant dry weight in the LOC soil was stronger than that in the HOC soil. The increase of dry weight biomass of plants in the biochar treated soils can be explained by the associated increase of 378 379 soil nutrient availabilities and improved soil physical and chemical properties, as discussed in the

previous sections and reported by other studies (e.g., Haefele et al., 2011; El-Naggar et al., 2018;
Purakayastha et al., 2019). The pig biochar had higher nutrient contents than wood biochar, and thus
pig biochar showed a greater effect on plant growth than wood biochar.

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Fig. 4. Effect of biochar treatments on plant shoots dry weight. LOC: low organic carbon content;
HOC: high organic carbon content; Control: untreated soil contaminated by Cd-DEHP; PB: pig
biochar; WB: wood biochar. Error bars are standard deviation of the means (n=4). Different
lower-case letters above the columns indicate significant difference between treatments (*P*<0.05).

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Cadmium and DEHP can negatively affect the plant growth in contaminated soils. In our studied soils, the relationships between plant growth and Cd and DEHP concentrations in the plant were negative (Fig. S2). Improvement of plant biomass in the biochar treated soils as compared to the untreated soils indicated that both biochars, particularly 2% of pig biochar, mitigated the negative impact of Cd and DEHP on the plant growth in these co-contaminated soils. This positive impact agrees with Lu et al. (2014) who demonstrated that the addition of bamboo and rice straw biochar increased the shoot biomass of *S. plumbizincicola* in metal contaminated soil through improving the
soil pH. In our experimental soils, the increased soil alkalinity (Fig. 1A) could be a reasonable factor
for immobilizing Cd and DEHP in the soil and reducing their uptake by the plants (Chen et al., 2019),
and thus promoting the crop productivity after biochar application to the acidic soil.

In our previous study (Chen et al., 2019), we found that biochar application decreased Cd and DEHP bioaccumulation in pak choi shoot, and the pig biochar application was more efficient in comparison with wood biochar. The effect of biochars on the shoot dry weight was more prominent in the LOC soil than in the HOC soil, which agrees with reports by Haefele et al. (2011) and Zhang et al. (2012) who concluded that biochar produced from crop straw increased rice yield more significantly in barren soils than fertile soils.

406

407 **4. Conclusions**

Our study provided promising information of using animal carcass- and wood-derived biochars 408 for reclamation of degraded soils, such as Cd-DEHP co-contaminated soils and soils with low organic 409 matter content. Both biochars improved the soil properties (e.g., pH, carbon content, and CEC), 410 increased the bioavailability of P and K in soils and the uptake of P, K, and N by pak choi, and 411 412 improved the activities of urease, sucrase, and catalase activities. Both biochars, particularly 2% pig biochar, increased the plant biomass, especially in the LOC soil. The positive response of soil enzyme 413 activities and plant growth due to biochar addition in the Cd-DEHP co-contaminated soils indicated 414 415 that these two biochars could mitigate the risk of Cd and DEHP in soils and improve the soil quality. Pig biochar had higher pH, ash content, surface alkalinity, CEC, and nutrient contents than wood 416 biochar; therefore, the former showed more potential to improve soil properties, nutrient availability, 417 and urease activities, and thereby enhanced the crop yield more than wood biochar. This study thus 418

419	offers a preliminary understanding of employing pig biochar as an emerging eco-friendly biosorbent		
420	for improving soil fertility and crop quality in heavy metal-PAE co-contaminated soils, as well as a		
421	cost-effective and applicable fertilizer in degraded soils.		
422			
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427			
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429	Supplementary data to this article can be found online.		
430			
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6	0	3	3 Supporting 1	Inf	ormation: A	Appendix A	1
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- 604 Animal carcass- and wood-derived biochars improved nutrients bioavailability, enzymes
- activity, and plant growth in metal-phthalic acid ester co-contaminated soils: A trial for
- 606 reclamation and improvement of degraded soils
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632 **1. Soil characterization and preparation**

The soils (LOC and HOC) were characterized for their basic properties. The grain size distributions of the LOC and HOC soils were sand (55.0%, 46.5%), silts (26.1%, 34.9%) and clay (18.9%, 19.7%), respectively. Both soils were classified as clay loam ferrosols (Chen et al., 2019). Owing to the long-term intensive fertilization management, the HOC soil had a higher concentration of available K (150.37 mg kg⁻¹), N (174.86 mg kg⁻¹) and P (73.89 mg kg⁻¹), while the available K, N, P concentrations in LOC soil were 76.06 mg kg⁻¹, 23.34 mg kg⁻¹ and 4.55 mg kg⁻¹, respectively.

639

640 Soil spiking with Cd and DEHP

A 100-mL methanol solution containing 5,400 mg of DEHP and a 100-mL deionized water containing 219.4 mg of $CdCl_2 \cdot 2.5H_2O$ were sprayed onto 3 kg of soil successively. The Cd/DEHP-spiked soils were mixed homogenously, air dried, and then gradually diluted with clean soil until the concentration of DEHP and Cd^{2+} was 50 mg·kg⁻¹ and 1 mg·kg⁻¹ in both soils, respectively. The concentration of Cd²⁺ was referred to the Level 3 standard of Environmental quality standard for soils GB 15618-1995, and concentration of DEHP was according to previous research (He et al., 2016). These concentration levels would markedly influence the normal plant growth but the plant could still develop normally.

648

649 **2.** Additional materials and methods

650 Soil properties determination

The soil pH value was measured by a 1/2.5 (w/v) soil suspension in deionized water with a pH electrode. The electrical conductivity (EC) value of soil was determined in a soil/water slurry at 1:5 (w/v) ratio using an EC meter. Soil particle composition was determined by hydrometer method. The soil organic carbon was determined by the potassium dichromate (K₂Cr₂O₇) and concentrated sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) oxidation method (Lu, 1999). The cation exchange capacity (CEC) of soil was measured using 1 M ammonium acetate (pH 7) method (Lu, 1999).

657

658 Available and total Cd concentrations in soil

659 Potentially available Cd was extracted from 5 g air-dried soil with 25 mL diethylenetriaminepentaacetate acid

660 (DTPA) solution and quantified using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES

661 Optima 2000, PerkinElmer Co., USA) (Lu, 1999). The total Cd content of the soils was determined by digesting

the soils with HF-HClO₄-HNO₃ and analysing the digest by ICP-OES (Carignan and Tessier, 1988).

663

664 DEHP extraction in soil

Briefly, 2 g air-dried soil sample was extracted in the presence of 2 g anhydrous sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄) with 2 times 20 mL acetone: petroleum ether 1:1 (v/v). The extraction method consisted of vortex oscillating for 1min, ultrasound extraction for 10min at 25 °C, and centrifugation at 4000 rpm for 7 min. The two aliquots of supernatants were vigorously shaken with 100 mL of 6% Na₂SO₄ solution and the organic layer separated. This organic fraction was evaporated to dryness using N₂, dissolved in 1 mL n-hexane, filtered (MICRO PES 0.45 μ m) and transferred into a GC vial. The GC vials were kept at -20 °C before GC analysis (Chen et al., 2019).

671 These samples were then analyzed using a Gas Chromatography (SHIMADZU, GC2010, Japan) equipped with

a Flame Ionization Detector (FID), HP-5 capillary column ($30 \text{ m} \times 0.25 \text{ mm} \times 0.25 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$) and auto sampler under the following operating conditions: inlet temperature 280°C, FID temperature 300°C, initial oven temperature 80°C; and final oven temperature 290°C. The injection volume was 1.0 µL and the typical retention time of

675 DEHP was 15.4 minutes. This DEHP detection method was able to detect concentrations ranging from 1.0 to

676 $50.0 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$.

677

678 **3. Supporting results**

679

Table S1 Selected properties of the high organic matter content (HOC) and low organic matter content (LOC)soils

Soil	НОС	LOC
Sand (%)	46.5	55.0
Silt (%)	34.9	26.1
Clay (%)	19.7	18.9
pH	5.14	4.89
CEC ^a (cmol kg ⁻¹)	12.86	7.54
Electrical conductivity (dS m ⁻¹)	0.10	0.02
OC ^b (%)	3.08	0.75
Available-K (mg kg ⁻¹)	150.37	76.06
Available-N (mg kg ⁻¹)	174.86	23.34
Available-P (mg kg ⁻¹)	73.89	4.55
Total Cd (mg kg ⁻¹)	B.D.L. °	B.D.L. ^c
DEHP (mg kg ⁻¹)	Not detected	Not detected

682 ^a CEC: cation exchange capacity.

683 ^b OC: organic matter content.

684 ^c B.D.L.: Below detection limit ($<0.01 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$)



С Н EC^a CEC Biochar 0 Ν pН Ash Available K (g Olsen P $\mathbf{S}\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{b}}$ SSA^c (cmol kg⁻¹) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (dS m⁻¹) kg⁻¹) $(g kg^{-1})$ (cmol kg-1) $(m^2 g^{-1})$ PB 37.5 1.7 55.8 4.7 10.04 60.0 2.17 7.13 0.72 1.87 551 23.1 WB 81.3 2.2 15.7 0.5 0.23 144 9.47 6.6 0.22 1.11 0.12 124.8 ^a EC: electrical conductivity. 688 ^b SA: surface alkalinity. 689 690 ^c SSA: specific surface area. 691 692 0.5 1000 **Pig Biochar** (A) (B) 800 0.4 600 Pig Biochai 0.3 400 Intensity (Counts) 0.2 Ca₁(PO₄)₃(OH Count (x1000) 200 41-1476>Sylvite KCl 2500 Wood Biochar 2000 1500 0.6 1000 500 0.3 7-1743-Calcite- CaC 0.0 11 5 10 12 6 ż 10 20 50 30 Two Theta (20) Energy·keV 100 (D) Pig Biochar₁ Pig Biochar с=0 с=с с-о-с **(С)** -CH O-H -CH olefin Absorbance (%) Pig Biochar 20/05 Wood Biochar Wood Biochar Wood Biochar 40 3500 3000 2500 2000 1500 1000 500 693 Wave number (cm⁻¹)

Table S2 Selected properties of the pig biochar (PB) and wood biochar (WB)

Fig. S1. X-ray diffraction (XRD) (A), energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDS) (B), Fourier transform
infrared (FTIR) spectrometry (C), and scanning electron microscope (SEM) images (D) of pig and wood
biochars.



Fig. S2. Correlation between plant shoot dry weight and Cd and DEHP uptake by plants (n = 64).

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