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# Effects of biochar parent material and microbial pre-loading in biochar-amended high-solids anaerobic digestion

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## Abstract

1 This study characterises the effect of biochar (pyrolysed biomass) produced from wood pellets, wheat  
2 straw and sheep manure on high-solids anaerobic digestion (HSAD) of poultry litter. Also, pre-loading  
3 biochar with microorganisms before addition to HSADs was investigated. The addition of wood pellet  
4 biochar provides a 32% increase to the methane yield compared with control digesters. The addition  
5 of biochar produced from either wheat straw or sheep manure has detrimental effects on digester per-  
6 formance compared with controls. The addition of wood pellet biochar pre-loaded by placing it in a  
7 high-solids digester for 90 days provides a 69% increase in the total methane yield, 44% increase in the  
8 peak daily methane yield and a 33% reduction in the lag time compared with controls. This study high-  
9 lighted a need for careful selection of parent material for biochar production and, for the first time, the  
10 opportunities to re-use wood pellet biochar for further improvements.

*Keywords:* Anaerobic digestion, Biochar, Poultry litter, Gasifier, Biogas

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## 11 1. Introduction

12 Anaerobic digestion is the biological degradation of organic material by a diverse variety of microor-  
13 ganisms in an oxygen-free environment. The process produces methane-containing biogas which can  
14 be used for heat and electricity generation and could be used as a transport fuel. A wide variety of feed-

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15 stocks can be used for anaerobic digestion, and the total solids (TS), or dry weight, of the feedstock can  
16 determine the digester design. Solid wastes such as manure mixed with bedding material, which can  
17 have TS contents of 20–60% are suggested to be more suitable for high-solids anaerobic digesters (Rig-  
18 gio et al., 2017). The TS of content in the bulk sludge of high-solids anaerobic digesters (HSAD) is  
19 around 20% compared with 5-10% for conventional stirred tank low-solids digesters (LSAD). This is  
20 because of lower water requirements (Li et al., 2018) and bedding material, such as straw or wood shav-  
21 ings, causing clogging problems in the conventional stirred tank low-solids digesters (Chanakya et al.,  
22 1997).

23 A significant benefit of high solids digesters is their smaller volumes. As a result, a high-solids di-  
24 gester can have up to three times higher volumetric efficiency (volume methane produced per volume  
25 of digester) compared with a low-solids digester (Li et al., 2013). Draw-backs of high solids digesters,  
26 caused by lower water requirements, are an excessive concentration of substances such as ammonia,  
27 sulphides, light metal ions and heavy metals which can inhibit the anaerobic digestion process (Chen  
28 et al., 2008). In addition, a lower water content results in lower rates of hydrolysis of solid organic ma-  
29 terial into soluble products which can be metabolised by microorganisms (Batstone and Jensen, 2011)  
30 and lower rates of mass transfer of these soluble products within the digester (Bollon et al., 2013)).  
31 As a result of these two factors, high-solids anaerobic digestion of manures generally has lower total  
32 methane yields and lower methane production rates than low-solids anaerobic digestion of the same  
33 feedstock (Li et al., 2013; Tait et al., 2009). There exists a need for a low-cost method to improve high-  
34 solids digester performance.

35 The addition of a wide variety of conductive materials have been shown to improve anaerobic digester  
36 performance. The materials include biochar (Cruz Viggi et al., 2017; Pan et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2016),  
37 activated carbon (Park et al., 2018) and magnetite (Cruz Viggi et al., 2014). The benefits are suggested  
38 to occur via the stimulation of direct interspecies electron transfer (DIET) between bacteria and methanogens  
39 both attached to the biochar (Lei et al., 2019). DIET provides an additional pathway to the standard hy-  
40 drogen/formate interspecies transfer of electrons (Holmes and Smith, 2016). The stimulation of DIET

41 eliminates the rate limiting step of diffusion of soluble electron carriers, hydrogen and formate (Cruz Viggi  
42 et al., 2014) and thereby improving methane production performance. This may be one way to improve  
43 rates of methane production in high-solids digesters.

44 The use of biochar, a solid residue produced from pyrolysis of biomass, is particularly attractive for use  
45 in digesters located in rural and resource-constrained communities. Biochar can be produced from a  
46 variety of robust technologies such as earth pits, rotary kilns, furnaces and gasifiers. Also, it can be pro-  
47 duced from a variety of parent materials such as wood, manure or crop residues. While this may be an  
48 advantage, biochar properties vary due to production process and parent material (Enders et al., 2012)  
49 which creates a need for an understanding of how biochar produced from different parent materials can  
50 have varying effects.

51 Biochar produced from wood (Cruz Viggi et al., 2017; Fagbohunge et al., 2016), agricultural wastes  
52 such as rice husk (Fagbohunge et al., 2016), wheat bran (Cruz Viggi et al., 2017), wheat straw (Shen  
53 and Zhu, 2016) or manures (Jang et al., 2017; Pan et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2017) have all shown to im-  
54 prove digester performance. In addition, the use of biochar produced from different parent materials  
55 digesting the same feedstock has been the subject of previous investigations (Fagbohunge et al., 2016;  
56 Pan et al., 2019). Surprisingly, there are only a few studies that report detrimental effects of biochar  
57 addition to anaerobic digesters. At high dosages, biochar produced from walnut shells (Linville et al.,  
58 2017), cardboard (Li et al., 2019), cow manure (Sun et al., 2019) and corn stover amended with iron (Zhang  
59 et al., 2019) have detrimental effects on performance. Excessive concentrations of light metal ions (such  
60 as sodium, potassium, magnesium, calcium and aluminium) within the biochar was suggested in one  
61 study where poor performance was observed (Linville et al., 2017). A possible reason why few negative  
62 results of biochar addition have been reported could be the focus on biochar addition to low-solids di-  
63 gesters as opposed to high-solids digesters, which is the focus of this study. Diluting the feedstock with  
64 water is a common method to avoid excessive concentrations of inhibitors (Chen et al., 2008), however,  
65 substantial dilution with water negates the advantages of high-solids digestion. A deeper understanding  
66 of biochar properties that improve or negatively affect high-solids digesters will allow for the selection

67 of suitable parent materials for biochar production.

68 The population of methane-generating microorganisms attached to biochar varies over time (Kuroda  
69 et al., 1988; Lü et al., 2016), furthermore, the formation of a complex microbial community on a solid  
70 support can take several days (Wolferen et al., 2018). The use of biochar already loaded with microor-  
71 ganisms may further increase methane production rates compared with the addition of raw biochar.

72 Biochar pre-loaded with microorganisms could simply be biochar recovered from a previous batch, in  
73 the case of high-solids digesters, or from the effluent from a low-solids digester. From a practical per-  
74 spective, the ability to reuse biochar could decrease costs (both time and money) associated with the  
75 constant production of biochar. Pre-loading of biomass that has not been pyrolysed has been shown to  
76 increase methane production rates (Zainab et al., 2019), however, there is little understanding of how  
77 pre-loaded biochar will affect anaerobic digestion performance. Initial investigations are needed to de-  
78 termine the long-term sustainability of biochar addition in digesters.

79 This study aims to characterise the effect of different types of biochar produced from a gasifier on high-  
80 solids anaerobic digestion of manure. Poultry litter was selected as the manure. The objectives are; (i)  
81 to characterise the biochars produced from three different types of biomass; wood, wheat straw and  
82 sheep manure, (ii) determine the effects of adding these biochars on methane yield and production rates  
83 and (iii) to determine the effect of pre-loading biochar with microorganisms on the methane production  
84 rate and yield by using two methods for microbial loading.

## 85 **2. Methods**

### 86 *2.1. Methane production assay*

87 The poultry litter was batch digested in 500 ml sealed glass bottles. The volume of biogas produced was  
88 measured by the displacement of saturated sodium chloride solution. The volume of biogas produced  
89 was corrected to dry gas at 0°C. The digesters were kept at 37°C. Each digester was mixed for 10 sec-  
90 onds, once per day, five times per week. Each testing scenario was conducted in triplicate to account for  
91 potential biological variation.

92 The feedstock, poultry litter, was sourced from a broiler-chicken farm in South Australia, which uses  
93 pine wood-shavings as the bedding material. The source of methane-generating microorganisms (the  
94 inoculant) was centrifuged anaerobic digester effluent from a wastewater treatment facility (SA Wa-  
95 ter, South Australia). The inoculant was maintained under anaerobic conditions for three days at 37°C  
96 to reduce its residual methane production potential, while maintaining an active microbial population.  
97 The volatile-solids based feedstock to inoculant (F/I) ratio was 2 in digesters with both raw and pre-  
98 loaded biochar. The total solids content of the digesters was adjusted to 20% using Milli-Q water. The  
99 calculation of total solids did not include the total solids content of the biochar. The head-space in each  
100 digester was purged with high-purity nitrogen gas to produce anaerobic conditions.

## 101 *2.2. Biochar production*

102 The parent materials used for biochar production were; (i) wood pellets, (ii) wheat straw and (iii) sheep  
103 manure. The wood pellets were commercially-available and produced from timber waste from multi-  
104 ple mills around Australia. The wheat straw was commercially available cut straw harvested in South  
105 Australia. Sheep manure was collected from grazing animals in South Australia and no bedding mate-  
106 rial was included. The biochar from these feedstocks was produced in an auto-thermal top-lit updraft  
107 (TLUD) gasifier. The primary air input was constant for each feedstock. As a result of the auto-thermal  
108 nature of the gasification reaction, the peak temperature inside the gasifier varied depending on the  
109 feedstock. The peak temperature inside the gasifier for wood pellets, wheat straw and sheep manure  
110 were 770°C, 680°C and 720°C, respectively. The feedstocks had an average residence time of 2.5 hours.  
111 Wood pellet biochar was cylindrical, approximately 16 mm in length and 4 mm diameter. The sheep  
112 manure biochar varied between 5–15 mm in diameter and 5–10 mm in height. The wheat straw biochar  
113 was approximately 5–10 mm in length, 3–4 mm width and 0.8 mm in height.  
114 Wood pellet biochar was selected for pre-loading with microorganisms. Two digestion times and total  
115 solids regimes were used for these digesters; (i) wood pellet biochar placed in a low-solids digester (to-  
116 tal solids = 5%) for 30 days, and (ii) wood pellet biochar placed in a high-solids digester (total solids

117 = 20%) for 90 days. The same feedstocks and inoculant (poultry litter and wastewater treatment plant  
118 sludge) were used for the pre-loading digesters. The dry mass of biochar was equal to the dry mass of  
119 poultry litter in each digester. This dosage is within the range used in other work (Fagbohunge et al.,  
120 2016; Li et al., 2019). At the end of the digestion period, the biochar was removed from the digesters.  
121 The biochar was separated from the digestate using tweezers and loosely attached sludge was removed  
122 from the biochar by rinsing with Milli-Q water.

### 123 *2.3. Biogas analysis*

124 Biogas samples were sampled periodically by extracting the headspace into gas-tight 10 ml glass sy-  
125 ringes. The composition of CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> in the gas was determined by a gas chromatograph with  
126 a thermal conductivity detector (Agilent, 490 MicroGC). Additional details on the gas chromatography  
127 method have been reported previously (Indren et al., 2020).

### 128 *2.4. Chemical analysis*

129 The total solids content of the biochar, feedstock, inoculant and bulk sludge was determined by dry-  
130 ing at 105°C in an oven (Clesceri et al., 1999). The volatile solids content was determined by ashing  
131 the materials at 550°C (Clesceri et al., 1999) in a thermogravimetric analyser (Mettler Toledo, TGA-  
132 DSC2). Aqueous samples of solid materials (feedstock, inoculant and bulk sludge) were produced by  
133 diluting 5 g of the material in 20 ml of Milli-Q water, mixing for 20 minutes and then centrifuging at  
134 2000G for 10 minutes. The pH of the aqueous supernatant was measured using a pH probe (Mettler  
135 Toledo, InLab Expert Pro®). Total alkalinity was determined by titration against 0.1 N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (Clesceri  
136 et al., 1999). Total ammonia-nitrogen was determined colorimetrically using the salicylate method (Forster,  
137 1995). The free ammonia-nitrogen concentration was calculated according to the equation given by Hansen  
138 et al. (1998).

139 The volatile fatty acid composition of the bulk sludge at the end of the 90-day digestion period was  
140 measured using a Perkin Elmer SQ8 Gas Chromatograph-Mass Spectrometer (GC-MS). Aqueous sam-  
141 ples were prepared using the same extraction procedure used for pH, TAN and TA measurements. A

142 1 ml aliquot of the solution was was acidified using 100  $\mu$ l of phosphoric acid to reach a pH <2. This  
143 aliquot was centrifuged for 10 minutes at 13400 rpm in a benchtop centrifuge (Eppendorf, Minispin<sup>®</sup>)  
144 and passed through a 0.45  $\mu$ m syringe filter (Sartorius, Minisart<sup>®</sup> NML). Compound separation was  
145 undertaken using a COL-Elite-FFAP capillary column (Perkin Elmer, 30 m  $\times$  0.25 mm ID  $\times$  0.32  $\mu$ m  
146 phase thickness) with helium carrier gas at a flow of 2 ml/ min. One microlitre of the samples were  
147 injected in split mode (50:1) with injection temperatures of 250°C. The oven temperature was held  
148 at 50°C for one minute, before a 10°C/minute ramp to 240°C and a final hold of 5 minutes. The mass  
149 spectrometer scanned from m/z 50–400 at approximately 3 three scans per second. Data interpretation  
150 was undertaken using Perkin Elmer TurboMass 6.0 software with a comparison of compound spectra  
151 to the NIST14 Spectral Library Database. A seven-point calibration curve and reproducibility vali-  
152 dation for C2-C7 volatile fatty acids was constructed using a certified volatile free acid mix (Supelco,  
153 CRM46975). A three-point calibration check was analysed with each sample batch. The total VFA con-  
154 centration was calculated by summing the concentration of C2-C7 volatile fatty acids.

## 155 2.5. Biochar characterisation

The composition of carbon, hydrogen and nitrogen of the biochars was determined by combustion using a Perkin Elmer, 2400 Series II Elemental Analyser. Total oxygen content of the biochar was derived by subtraction according Equation 1.

$$O (\% \text{ of } TS) = 100 - \text{ash} (\% \text{ of } TS) - C (\% \text{ of } TS) - N (\% \text{ of } TS) - H (\% \text{ of } TS). \quad (1)$$

156 Inductively coupled plasma (ICP-OES) analysis (Agilent Technologies 5100) was conducted on the  
157 biochars for analysis of trace elements in the biochar (CSIRO, South Australia). Before ICP-OES anal-  
158 ysis, the biochar was dissolved into a solution using the microwave digestion method with a mixture  
159 of nitric acid and hydrochloric acid (reverse aqua regia). The pH of the water-extractable fraction of  
160 biochar was determined following a procedure outlined by Singh et al. (2017). One gram of biochar  
161 was mixed with 20 ml of deionized water and then agitated on an orbital shaker table for 1 hour and left



162 to rest for 30 minutes. The slurry was continually mixed with a stir bar while pH was measured. The  
163 total alkalinity of the biochars was determined by the rapid titration method (Singh et al., 2017). Be-  
164 fore analysis, 0.5 g of biochar was placed in 1 M HCl, shaken for 2 hours and left to stand overnight.  
165 Titration was conducted using 0.5 M NaOH until a neutral pH (7.0) was reached. Bulk density of the  
166 biochars were determined by weighing the amount of material loaded (without packing) into a cylin-  
167 der (diameter 73 mm, height 48 mm).

### 168 2.5.1. *Microbial population analysis*

169 The population of methane-generating microorganisms in the inoculant, digester bulk sludge and on  
170 each type of biochar were analysed. Prior to DNA extraction, the biochar was washed three times in  
171 1 ml of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) to remove loosely attached sludge. The biochar was then crushed  
172 using a mortar and pestle. To ensure biofilms containing microorganisms were broken apart, the crushed  
173 biochar (0.25 g) was placed in a tube with 0.5 ml of PBS and sonicated in a bench-top ultrasonic cleaner  
174 (Soniclean 160HD) for 2 minutes using 15-second pulses. After sonication, the supernatant and crushed  
175 biochar were placed into a powerbead tube from the PowerSoil DNA isolation kit (Quiagen, Germany).  
176 DNA was extracted following the kit instructions. No sonication or crushing was conducted for the in-  
177 oculant or bulk sludge samples. The quantity of DNA extracted was determined using a Nanodrop spec-  
178 trophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, USA).

179 Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) was conducted using an iCycler (Bio-Rad Laboratories,  
180 Hercules, CA) to determine the abundance of *Methanosaetaceae*, *Methanosarcinaceae*, *Methanobac-*  
181 *teriales* and *Methanomicrobiales* in the inoculant, bulk sludge and attached to the biochar. The primer  
182 sets were developed by Yu et al. (2005). The qPCR procedure followed a two-step amplification proce-  
183 dure described in a previous study (Indren et al., 2020).

184 A scanning electron microscope (XL30, Philips) was used to investigate the attachment of microorgan-  
185 isms onto each type of biochar. The biochar was prepared for analysis by first removing any residual  
186 sludge by washing three times with 1 ml of PBS. Details on the sample preparation method have been

187 reported previously (Indren et al., 2020).

## 188 2.6. Data analysis

189 Statistical analysis was conducted using R (version 3.5.0) and included one-way analysis of variance  
190 (ANOVA) with a significance value of 0.05. The Tukey post-hoc test, with a significance value of 0.05,  
191 was used for a comparison of mean values between each scenario. The modified Gompertz equation  
192 modelled using the Grofit package of R-project software (version 3.5.0) was used to estimate the poten-  
193 tial methane production, maximum methane production rate and methane production lag time. In one  
194 test (the control), one of the three replicate digesters was lost due to cracking of the airtight sealing.

## 195 3. Results and discussion

### 196 3.1. Biochar properties

197 Table 1 and Table 2 show properties of biochar produced from wood pellets, wheat straw and sheep  
198 manure. The parent material affects both the chemical and physical composition of the biochar. Key  
199 differences in the chemical composition between the three types of biochar include a lower ash con-  
200 tent ( $0.3 \pm 0.4\%$  of TS) in wood pellet biochar compared with the wheat straw biochar ( $14 \pm 2.0\%$  of  
201 TS) and sheep manure ( $58 \pm 0.2\%$  of TS). As a result, wood pellet biochar had the lowest concentra-  
202 tions of calcium (Ca), potassium (K), sulphur (S), magnesium (Mg) and sodium (Na). These elements,  
203 at excessive concentrations, have been shown to have inhibitory effects in anaerobic digestion (Chen  
204 et al., 2008; Mccarty and Mckinney, 1961). Furthermore, the concentration of alkaline elements, K,  
205 Na, Ca, and Mg, are lower in the wood pellet biochar. This is likely the cause of its lower total alka-  
206 linity ( $7.3 \pm 2.1 \text{ g-CaCO}_{3eq}/\text{kg}$ ) and will lower its ability to prevent acidification due to the build-up of  
207 volatile fatty acids which commonly occurs in ammonia-stressed digesters. A key physical feature of  
208 the wheat straw biochar is its four times lower bulk density than the other two biochars. As a result, the  
209 inclusion of wheat straw biochar will increase the digester working volume and lower its volumetric  
210 efficiency.

211 Figure 1 shows the concentration of methane-generating microorganisms (methanogens) and total mi-  
212 croorganisms on the two types of pre-loaded wood pellet biochar. The two types of pre-loaded biochar  
213 are (i) wood pellet biochar taken from a low solids digester after 30 days (WP30L), and (ii) from a  
214 high-solids digester after 90 days (WP90H). The targeted methanogens were the strictly acetate-consuming  
215 *Methanosaetaceae* family, the acetate or hydrogen-consuming *Methanosarcinaceae* family, and the  
216 strictly hydrogen-consuming orders *Methanobacteriales* and *Methanomicrobiales*. The figure shows  
217 the time for pre-loading and the total solids content of the pre-loading environment affect the proportion  
218 of microorganisms that attach to the biochar. There is approximately 6 times higher concentration of  
219 total microorganisms on WP90H compared with WP30L. Figure 1 also shows there is a similar concen-  
220 tration of the dominant methanogen, *Methanosaetaceae*, on WP30L and WP90H. *Methanosaetaceae* is  
221 the dominant methanogen despite its lower resistance to ammonia stress compared with *Methanosarci-*  
222 *naceae* and the hydrogen-consuming methanogens (Angelidaki and Ahring, 1993; Calli et al., 2005).

### 223 3.2. Effect of biochar type on methane generation

224 Figure 2 shows the cumulative methane yield over 90 days in high-solids digesters processing poultry  
225 litter with biochar produced from three parent materials, two types of pre-loaded wood pellet biochar  
226 and digesters without biochar (control). The line represents the mean value, the error bars show the  
227 standard deviation and markers show the range of values between three biological replicates. The ef-  
228 fect on cumulative yield varies depending on the type of biochar added. The addition of wood pellet  
229 biochar increases the mean cumulative methane yield by 32% (66 ml CH<sub>4</sub>/g-VS) compared with the  
230 controls (50 ml CH<sub>4</sub>/g-VS). The addition of wheat straw biochar or sheep manure biochar had no sub-  
231 stantial effect on the mean cumulative methane yield. A large variation in the methane production rates  
232 between replicates of digesters containing wheat straw biochar were observed. Possible causes for the  
233 variation are discussed in Section 3.3

234 The two types of pre-loaded wood pellet biochar increased the mean cumulative methane yield com-  
235 pared with the control, however, the effect varied depending on the method of biochar pre-loading. The

236 addition of WP90H increased the mean cumulative methane yield to 87 ml CH<sub>4</sub>/g-VS which was a 69%  
237 increase (p<0.05) compared with the controls. By comparison, the addition of WP30L increases the  
238 mean cumulative yield by just 22% to 61 ml CH<sub>4</sub>/g-VS. This increase caused by the addition of WP30L  
239 was not statistically significant (p> 0.05). Also, the percentage increase in yield was smaller than the  
240 32% yield increase caused by the addition of wood pellet biochar not pre-loaded with microorgan-  
241 isms. Possible explanations for the differences between biochar pre-loaded in the low and high-solids  
242 digesters are discussed in Section 3.6.

243 Figure 3 shows the daily methane yield over the 90 day digestion period for digesters processing poul-  
244 try litter with biochar produced from three parent materials, two types of pre-loaded wood pellet biochar  
245 and without biochar (control). The line represents the mean, the error bars show the standard deviation  
246 and the markers show the range of values. The parent material used for biochar production had substan-  
247 tial impacts on the daily methane production rate. The addition of wheat straw biochar or sheep manure  
248 biochar resulted in the peak daily methane yield occurring later (day 63) compared with the controls  
249 (day 46). The addition of wood pellet biochar caused no significant change to the daily methane yield  
250 or the day at which it occurs.

251 The effects of pre-loaded wood pellet biochar on the daily methane yield varied depending on the pre-  
252 loading method. There was a 45% increase (p<0.05) in the mean peak daily yield due to the addition of  
253 WP90H (2.6 ml CH<sub>4</sub>/g-VS/day) compared with the controls (1.8 ml CH<sub>4</sub>/g-VS/day). Also, the peak  
254 daily day occurs on day 35, 11 days earlier than in the controls. The addition of WP30L, similar to  
255 wood pellet biochar that was not pre-loaded with microorganisms, had no significant effect on the daily  
256 methane yield or the day at which the peak daily yield occurs.

257 The changes to the daily methane yield due to biochar addition are also shown by changes to the time  
258 before substantial methane production begins (lag time). Table 3 shows the modelled Gompertz pa-  
259 rameters; lag time, cumulative methane yield and maximum daily yield for digesters with each type  
260 of biochar. The addition of wood pellet biochar reduced the lag time by one day compared with con-  
261 trols (lag time of 25 days). Lag times substantially increased, to 39 days, for digesters with wheat straw

262 biochar and 46 days to digesters with sheep manure biochar. Due to a substantial variation in one of  
263 the three digesters containing wheat straw biochar, the Gompertz model did not produce a fit. The lag  
264 time for digesters with wheat straw biochar shown in Table 3 was calculated from only two biological  
265 replicates. This also resulted in a substantial range of predicted total methane yields for digesters with  
266 wheat straw biochar, and this value should be interpreted with caution. The addition of WP90H had the  
267 greatest beneficial impact on lag time and decrease the lag time by approximately 8 days (33%). The  
268 addition of WP30L decreased the lag time by 3 days.

### 269 *3.3. Effect of biochar type on digester chemical conditions*

270 To understand the mechanisms by which the addition biochar affects anaerobic digester performance,  
271 analysis of the of total ammonia-nitrogen, free ammonia-nitrogen, total alkalinity and total volatile fatty  
272 acids (VFA) was conducted on the bulk sludge. Table 4 shows the concentration of these substances in  
273 the digesters at the end of the 90 day digestion period. The high total and free ammonia-nitrogen con-  
274 centration (6.4–8.1 g TAN/kg and 2.8–2.9 g FAN/kg) suggest that methane generation will be inhibited  
275 at the end of the 90 day digestion period. There is no statistically significant difference in either the to-  
276 tal or free ammonia-nitrogen concentration between digesters with any type of biochar or the controls  
277 digesters. Digesters with pre-loaded biochar, WP30L and WP90H have slightly higher total ammonia-  
278 nitrogen concentrations compared with controls or digesters with raw wood pellet biochar which could  
279 be caused by residual ammonia associated with the biochar from the pre-loading step.

280 The total alkalinity of the bulk sludge from digesters with wheat straw biochar and sheep manure biochar  
281 (11.3–12.3 g-CaCO<sub>3eq</sub>/kg) were not significantly higher than the bulk sludge of control digesters (12.8 g-  
282 CaCO<sub>3eq</sub>/kg) or digesters with wood pellet biochar (14.7 ± 1.3 g-CaCO<sub>3eq</sub>/kg). This occurs despite the  
283 three to four times higher alkalinity of wheat straw biochar and sheep manure biochar compared with  
284 wood pellet biochar. This may suggest the total ammonia-nitrogen concentration in the bulk sludge  
285 (6.4–8.1 g/kg) is the main driver of total alkalinity. As a result of the high total alkalinity in the bulk  
286 sludge, a high pH (8.8–8.9) is maintained despite VFA concentrations of up to 27.1 g/kg. This suggests

287 a high alkalinity biochar is not required to prevent acidification of high-solids anaerobic digesters.  
288 A significant feature of Table 4 is the 66% lower total VFA concentration with the addition of WP90H.  
289 To understand changes to the total VFA concentration, the composition of the VFAs was analysed, with  
290 results shown in Figure 4. Acetate and propionate were the most abundant VFAs, except for digesters  
291 with WP90H, which had low propionate concentrations. Acetate and propionate accumulation is com-  
292 mon for ammonia inhibited digesters (Tian et al., 2019) and their concentrations are reliable indicators  
293 of process performance (Boe et al., 2010). Acetate is directly used by the aceticlastic (acetate-cleaving)  
294 methanogenic families *Methanosaetaceae* and *Methanosarcinaceae* (Holmes and Smith, 2016). Inhibi-  
295 tion of these aceticlastic methanogens will lead to high acetate concentrations.  
296 Digesters with WP90H had a 92% lower concentration of propionate compared with the control di-  
297 gesters ( $p < 0.05$ ) and also showed complete degradation of isovalerate. The degradation of these two  
298 VFAs in digesters with WP90H may have led to the increased methane yield. The degradation of pro-  
299 pionate and isovalerate is thermodynamically unfavourable under standard conditions (de Bok et al.,  
300 2004; Stieb and Schink, 1986). However, propionate and isovalerate can be oxidized to acetate, bi-  
301 carbonate, and hydrogen or formate through a syntrophic partnership between propionate/isovalerate-  
302 oxidizing bacteria and methanogens which consume the oxidation products (Barua et al., 2018; de Bok  
303 et al., 2004; Stieb and Schink, 1986). The concentrations of propionate or isovalerate were not affected  
304 by the addition of raw wood pellet or WP30L.  
305 Only the poor performing digesters (digesters with wheat straw and sheep manure biochar) feature  
306 butyrate, a known indicator of process imbalance (Nakakubo et al., 2008). In addition, digesters with  
307 sheep manure biochar were the only digesters to have significant concentrations of hexanoate. This fur-  
308 ther suggests that methane production was inhibited in digesters with sheep manure biochar. Previous  
309 research has shown hexanoate (also referred to as caproate) production was enhanced via the reduc-  
310 tion of butyrate to hexanoate facilitated by the addition of biochar produced from pine wood (Liu et al.,  
311 2017) in bioreactors where methane production was purposefully inhibited. To support this, the butyrate  
312 concentration was lower in digesters with sheep manure biochar compared with digesters with wheat

313 straw biochar.

314 The concentration of butyrate and acetate were highly variable in the three biological replicate digesters  
315 with wheat straw biochar. This may explain the variations in methane yield between these replicates.  
316 Valerate, isocaproate and heptanoate were not detected in any of the digesters (data not shown).

### 317 3.4. Effect of biochar type on biochar-microorganism interactions

318 Changes in methane production performance are expected to be evident by alterations in the digester  
319 microbial community. Figure 5 (A-D) and Figure 6 (A-D) show the concentration of DNA from key  
320 methanogens in the bulk sludge and attached to the biochar after 90 days. The dominant methanogen in  
321 both the bulk sludge and on the biochar was the acetate-cleaving *Methanosaetaceae* family. The con-  
322 centration of *Methanosaetaceae* in the bulk sludge or on the biochar does not appear to be correlated  
323 with the methane yield. Despite the poor performance of digesters with wheat straw biochar, these di-  
324 gesters have the highest concentration of *Methanosaetaceae* in the bulk sludge and biochar. By com-  
325 parison, the best-performing digesters (those with WP90H) have similar *Methanosaetaceae* concentra-  
326 tions in the bulk sludge compared with controls, and the concentration of *Methanosaetaceae* attached to  
327 WP90H is not significantly higher than the concentration on the other biochars.

328 The low concentration of the hydrogen-consuming methanogenic orders, *Methanobacteriales* and *Metha-*  
329 *nomicrobiales* in the bulk sludge is in agreement with previous studies of high-solids digesters oper-  
330 ating under ammonia stress (Dai et al., 2016). Also, the concentration of *Methanobacteriales* on the  
331 biochar is higher than *Methanomicrobiales* for all types of biochar. The low concentration of *Methanosarci-*  
332 *naceae* in both the bulk sludge and attached to the biochar is likely due to its very low concentration in  
333 the inoculant.

334 Before methane generation, the anaerobic digestion process consists of three earlier steps; hydrolysis,  
335 acidogenesis and acetogenesis. The steps are facilitated by a diverse variety of bacteria. The concen-  
336 tration of total microbial DNA can indicate the total population of bacteria although this value will in-  
337 clude DNA from other microorganisms. Figure 6 (E) shows the total DNA from all microorganisms

338 attached to each type of biochar at the end of the 90-day digestion period. All digesters with biochar  
339 have a higher total DNA concentration in the bulk sludge compared with the controls. However, due to  
340 the variation in the concentrations between biological replicates no statistically significant change could  
341 be determined.

342 The concentration of microorganisms shown in Figure 6 (E) suggests the parent material for biochar  
343 production affected the level of total microbial attachment onto the biochar. Sheep manure biochar had  
344 the lowest degree of microbial attachment (14 ng/ $\mu$ l/g-biochar). There was a higher degree of attach-  
345 ment onto wood pellet 31 ng/ $\mu$ l/g-biochar and wheat straw biochar (79 ng/ $\mu$ l/g-biochar). As expected,  
346 WP90H had a high degree of attachment (67 ng/ $\mu$ l/g-biochar). Attachment onto WP30L (22 ng/ $\mu$ l/g-  
347 biochar) was lower than raw wood pellet biochar.

348 It is possible the micro-structure of the biochar affected the degree of microbial attachment. Scanning  
349 electron microscopy analysis revealed the surface of the wood-pellet biochar is rough and has several  
350 cracks in the millimetre-size range. A rough surface will allow for microbial attachment and pores  
351 in the millimetre-size range would allow for microbial attachment inside the porous structure of the  
352 biochar. The surface of wheat-straw biochar is smooth with very few pores. Microbial attachment was  
353 not observed on this surface. The wheat straw biochar is constructed as layers of sheets. Pores along the  
354 edge of these layers could facilitate microbial attachment. Sheep manure biochar has pores in the 0.5  
355 millimetre-size range but a fewer number than the wood pellet biochar. Also, the internal surface ap-  
356 pears to be compacted and not as open as wood pellet biochar which would limit microbial attachment  
357 within sheep manure biochar.

358 The SEM imagery also showed shows a suspected biofilm on WP90H. That is a community of microor-  
359 ganisms, both rod-shaped and cocci, in this case, and embedded in an extracellular polymeric substance.  
360 No obvious biofilm formation was observed on the wheat straw manure or sheep manure biochar. Al-  
361 though in this observational analysis there can be biases from changes in the microbial load across each  
362 piece of biochar. The presence of biofilms and compact microbial communities on the biochar is sig-  
363 nificant as reduced distances between partnering microorganisms can decrease diffusion limitations of



364 intermediate products and soluble electron carriers, hydrogen and formate, allowing reactions to pro-  
365 ceed at rates higher compared with reactions between microorganisms that exist as single cells (de Bok  
366 et al., 2004). Therefore, an increased degradation rate of intermediate substrates and higher methane  
367 production rates are expected.

### 368 3.5. *Effects of biochar properties on digester performance*

369 The results indicate the selection of parent material for biochar production and an understanding of ben-  
370 efcial and detrimental properties of the biochar produced is important. Wood pellet biochar was the  
371 only biochar to improve anaerobic digester performance. As an alternative to the reduced diffusion lim-  
372 itations due to attachment of microorganisms on the biochar, wood pellet biochar may have a greater  
373 ability to facilitate DIET than the other two biochars. This is evidenced by its molecular structure. In  
374 biochar with molar H/C and O/C ratios lower than 0.35 and 0.09, respectively, graphitic carbon struc-  
375 tures emerge (Sun et al., 2017). This graphitic structure formed by pyrolysis temperatures greater than  
376 700°C has a significantly lower resistance to the transfer of electrons compared with the amorphous  
377 structure in biochar produced at lower temperatures (Sun et al., 2017). Only the wood pellet biochar has  
378 H/C and O/C molar ratios below these threshold values (H/C = 0.26 and O/C = 0.07, Table 2). This is  
379 in agreement with higher peak temperatures observed during wood pellet biochar production compared  
380 with the other two biochars. By using the DIET mechanism, *Methanosaetaceae* does not rely solely on  
381 acetate for its metabolism and is likely not as greatly affected by low diffusion rates of acetate expected  
382 in the bulk sludge of high-solids digesters (Bollon et al., 2013). It is likely a combination of decreased  
383 diffusion limitations of soluble intermediates as well as the facilitation of DIET resulted in increased  
384 methane production rates in digesters with wood pellet biochar.

385 Sheep manure biochar likely has a more graphitic carbon structure than wheat straw biochar as evi-  
386 denced by its lower H/C and O/C ratio (sheep manure: H/C = 0.34, O/C = 0.12 and wheat straw: H/C  
387 = 0.40, O/C = 0.24, Table 2) and therefore would exhibit lower resistance to electrons transfer. While  
388 this did not result in greater methane yields in digesters with sheep manure biochar, this may explain

389 the lower concentration of butyrate and the higher concentration of hexanoate (Figure 4) in digesters  
390 with sheep manure biochar compared with digesters with wheat straw biochar as hexanoate can be pro-  
391 duced from butyrate via DIET (Liu et al., 2017).

392 It is possible the poor methane production performance of digesters with wheat straw and sheep ma-  
393 nure biochar occurs due to inorganic elements (such as Ca, Mg, S, Na or K) in the biochar as observed  
394 with calcium and magnesium rich walnut shell biochar (Linville et al., 2017). The presence of butyrate,  
395 an indicator of process imbalance, only in these digesters with wheat straw biochar and sheep manure  
396 biochar and not in the controls (Figure 4) supports this hypothesis. It is unlikely that wheat straw biochar  
397 and sheep manure biochar are acting as inert materials in these digesters. Studies have shown the addi-  
398 tion of inert, non-conductive sand particles does not increase butyrate concentrations or increase lag  
399 times (Cruz Viggi et al., 2017). Lower dosages of the two poor-performing biochars or their inclusion in  
400 low-solids digesters would be expected to lower the concentration of the inhibiting inorganic elements.  
401 This may explain the improved performance of low-solids digesters amended with biochar produced  
402 from dairy manure, chicken litter and vermicompost (Jang et al., 2017; Pan et al., 2019; Wang et al.,  
403 2017).

404 The physical properties of biochar may also have detrimental affects on the digester performance. The  
405 addition of wheat straw biochar, with its low bulk density ( $65 \pm 2 \text{ kg/m}^3$ , Table 1) increases the working  
406 volume of the bulk sludge by approximately 130%. By comparison, the higher bulk densities of wood  
407 pellet and sheep manure biochar result in only a 13% increase in volume. Even if inhibition due to the  
408 elemental composition of wheat straw biochar can be alleviated, digesters with wheat straw biochar are  
409 expected to have poor performances on a volumetric efficiency basis.

### 410 3.6. *Effect of biochar pre-loading*

411 This study showed that the addition of biochar pre-loaded with microorganisms in a high-solids digester  
412 for 90 days (WP90H) is more effective than adding raw biochar into a digester. Improved methane  
413 yields occur with WP90H despite the bulk sludge having an order of magnitude higher concentrations

414 of methanogens and other microorganisms.

415 The presence of WP90H may have increased methane yields through the degradation of propionate and  
416 isovalerate degradation. The degradation of these VFAs is only thermodynamically feasible if the con-  
417 centration of the products formed during their oxidation, formate and hydrogen, are kept low by the  
418 scavenging activity of partnering methanogens (Cruz Viggi et al., 2014; de Bok et al., 2004). Microor-  
419 ganisms in close proximity, as observed in SEM imagery, increases the likelihood of these syntrophic  
420 partnerships occurring (de Bok et al., 2004). In addition, WP90H may be facilitating propionate degra-  
421 dation via DIET between propionate/isovalerate-oxidising bacteria and *Methanosaetaceae*. Electrons  
422 donated from the oxidation of these VFAs may be transferred to and used by *Methanosaetaceae* for  
423 the reduction of bicarbonate into methane (Rotaru et al., 2014). It is likely a combination of partner-  
424 ing microorganisms in close proximity and the presence of DIET is allowing for increased propionate  
425 degradation.

426 The accumulation of propionate is often associated with a high organic load (initial VS per kilogram,  
427 or litre bulk sludge) and is common during the startup of digesters (Griffin et al., 1998). As high-solids  
428 digesters are generally operated in batch mode (Batstone and Jensen, 2011; Riggio et al., 2017), a start-  
429 up process must occur for every new batch (30–50 days), therefore, the degradation of propionate for  
430 additional methane production is crucial for the operation of these systems.

431 The method used for pre-loading has substantial effects on the anaerobic digester performance. The ad-  
432 dition of WP30L had a much smaller effect compared with WP90H. This may be explained by the time  
433 used for pre-loading. WP90H had an additional 60 days for pre-loading and six times higher concen-  
434 tration of microorganisms attached to its surface (Figure 6). Therefore, the likelihood that both pro-  
435 pionate/isovalerate oxidising bacteria and methanogens were attached on the same piece of biochar  
436 or within proximity would be higher. This may explain why WP30L did not decrease propionate or  
437 isovalerate concentrations. An additional consideration expected to facilitate microbial attachment is  
438 the total ammonia-nitrogen concentration in the pre-loading digester. Higher total ammonia-nitrogen  
439 concentrations occurs in high-solids digesters. The higher concentrations induces environmental stress

440 which would promote the attachment of microorganisms onto a solid surface and the formation of biofilms  
441 where microorganisms are in close proximity and protected from environmental stress (Petrova and  
442 Sauer, 2012). Therefore a combination of longer digestion time and higher total ammonia-nitrogen con-  
443 centration likely resulted in additional microbial attachment on WP90H compared with WP30L.

#### 444 **4. Conclusions**

445 The addition of biochar produced from wood pellets improves performance of high-solids anaerobic  
446 digesters. Biochar produced from wheat straw and sheep manure may introduce inorganic elements  
447 into the bulk sludge, due to their high ash content, which can inhibit methane generation. Wood pellet  
448 biochar pre-loaded with microorganisms for 90 days in a high-solids digester further improves methane  
449 yields compared with raw wood pellet biochar. This likely occurs through increased degradation of pro-  
450 pionate and isovalerate. The time and digester environment used for microbial pre-loading effects the  
451 concentration of microorganisms on pre-loaded biochar which impacts its beneficial properties.

#### 452 **5. Supplementary Data**

453 E-supplementary data of this work can be found in online version of the paper.

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Table 1: Properties of biochar produced from three parent materials.

Parameter	Wood pellet		Wheat straw		Sheep manure	
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD
Total solids (wt %)	96	1.0	90	0.5	94	0.3
Volatiles (% of TS)	4.6	0.7	12.6	2	7.9	0.3
Ash (% of TS)	0.3	0.4	14	2.0	58	0.2
pH	9.4	0.2	10.2	0.03	11.0	0.10
Total alkalinity (g-CaCO <sub>3eq</sub> /kg)	7.3	2.1	16	1.7	28	6.4
Bulk density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	329	3	65	2	225	4

Table 2: Elemental composition of biochar from three parent materials.

Parameter	Wood pellet	Wheat straw	Sheep manure
Carbon (wt% of TS)	89	63	34
Hydrogen (wt% of TS)	1.9	2	1
Nitrogen (wt% of TS)	0.2	1	2
Oxygen (wt% of TS)	8.7	20	5.5
H/C (mol/mol)	0.26	0.40	0.34
O/C (mol/mol)	0.07	0.24	0.12
Ca (g/kg-TS)	3.6	4	44
K (g/kg-TS)	0.7	39	43
Mg (g/kg-TS)	0.9	3	11
Na (g/kg-TS)	0.6	2	15
S (g/kg-TS)	0.1	2	4
Al (g/kg-TS)	0.2	1	5.9
B (g/kg-TS)	0.2	0	0.1
Cu (g/kg-TS)	0.8	0	0.1
Fe (g/kg-TS)	0.3	3	5.0
Mn (g/kg-TS)	0.1	0	0.5
P (g/kg-TS)	0.1	5	17.5
Zn (g/kg-TS)	0.0	0	0.4

Concentrations of As, Cd, Co, Cr, Mo, Ni, Pb and Se were below the detection limit of 0.01 g/kg-TS.

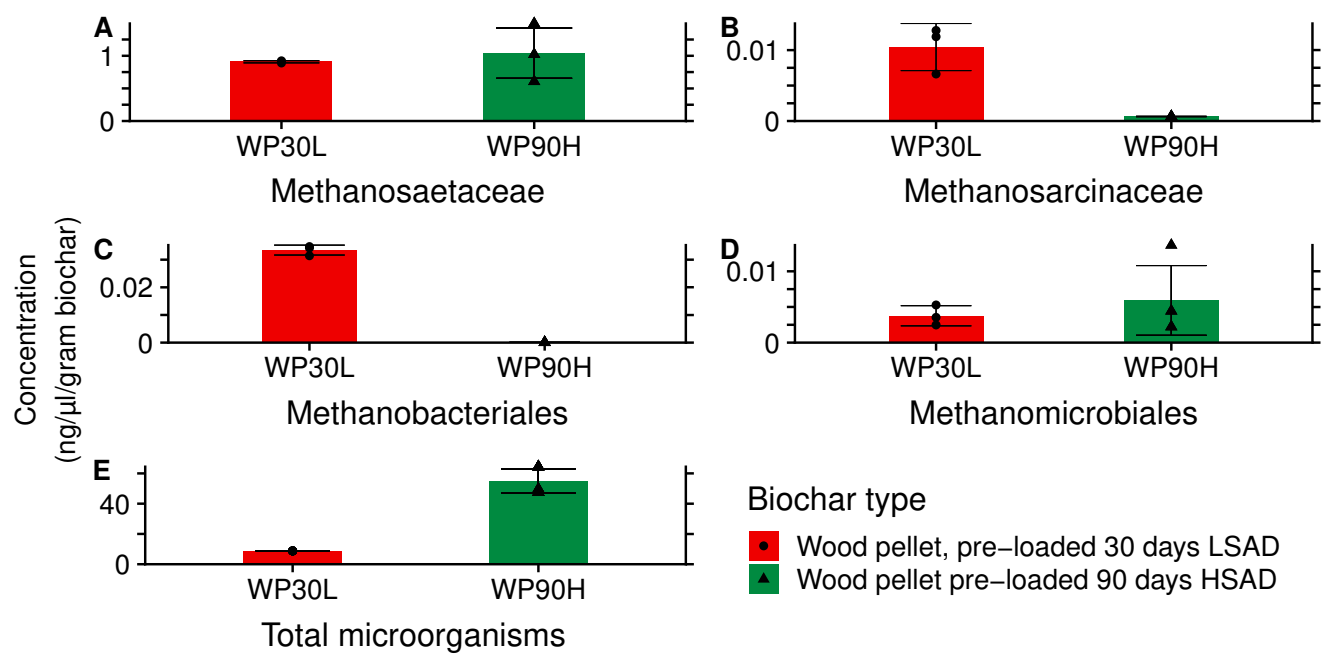


Figure 1: Concentration of methane-generating microorganisms (A-D) and total microorganisms (E) attached to two types of pre-loaded wood-pellet biochar prior to their addition in digesters for the methane production assay. The columns show the mean value, the error bars show the standard deviation and markers show the range from biological replicates.

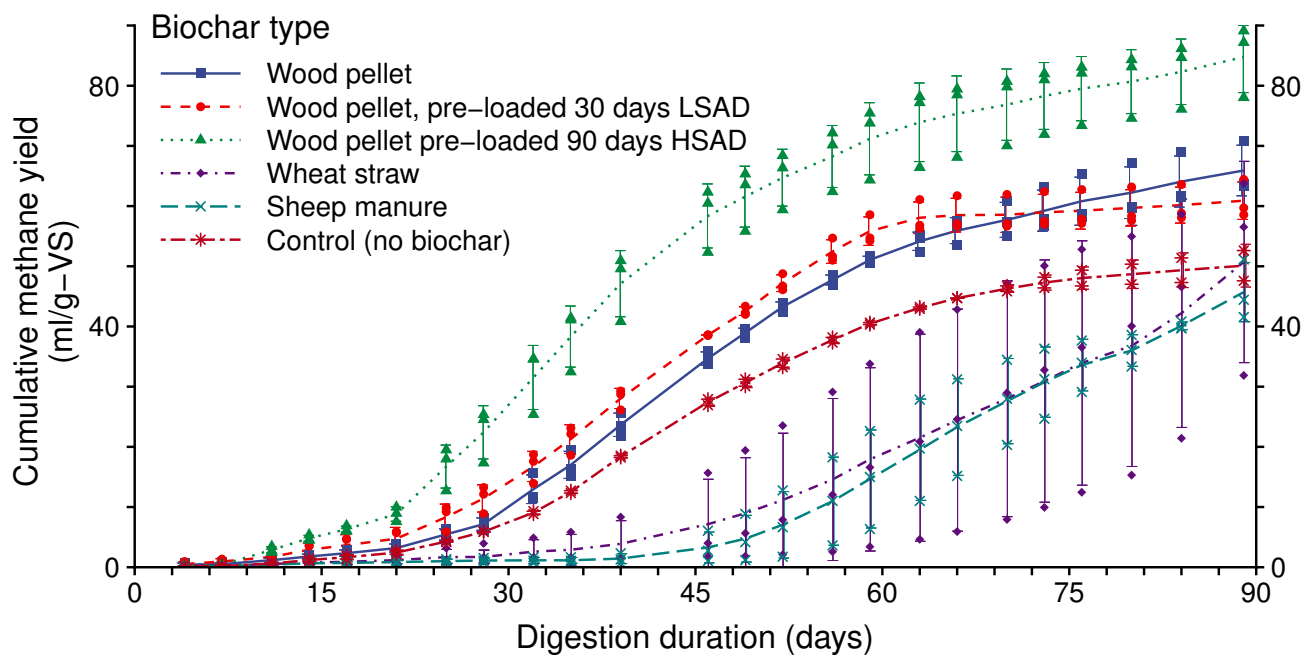


Figure 2: The cumulative methane yield over 90 days, normalised based on initial the volatile solids (VS) content of poultry litter and inoculant, from high-solids digesters with biochar and the control digesters (without biochar). The lines show the mean, error bars show the standard deviation and markers show the range from biological replicates.



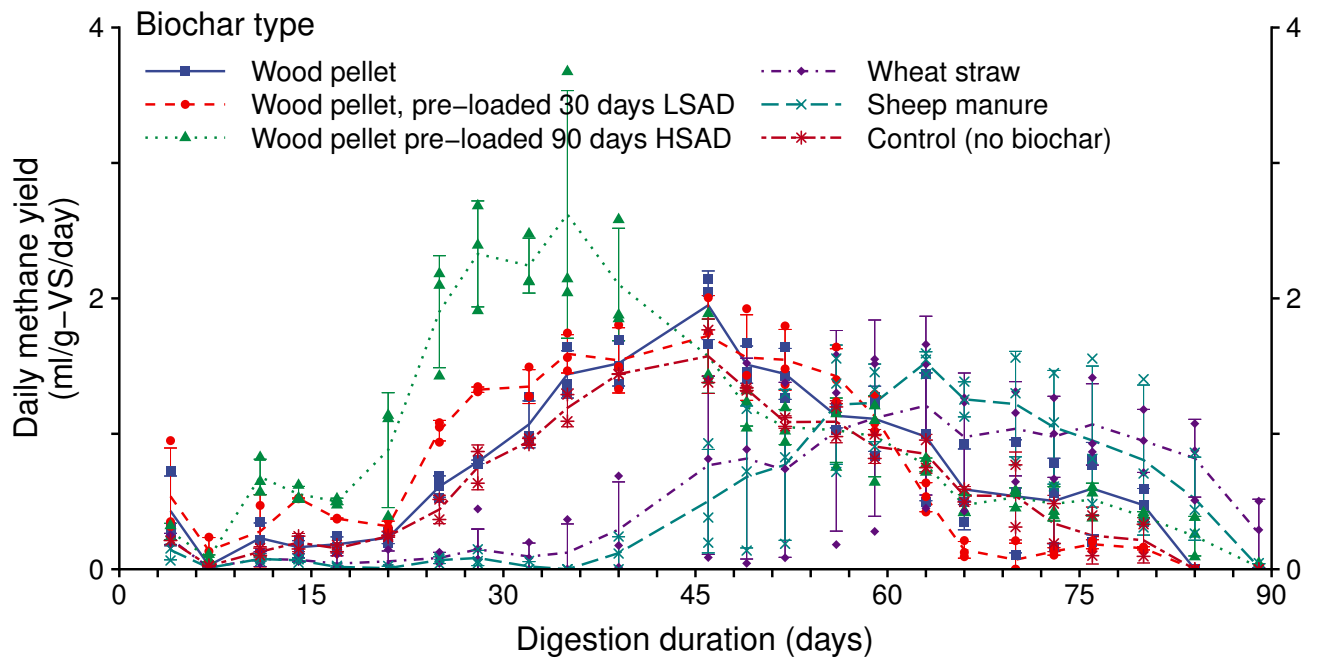


Figure 3: The daily methane yield over 90 days, normalised based on initial the volatile solids (VS) content of poultry litter and inoculant, from high-solids digesters with biochar and the control digesters (without biochar). The lines show the mean, error bars show the standard deviation and markers show the range from biological replicates.

Table 3: Summary of the Gompertz model parameters for digesters with varying biochar types, wood pellet (WP), wheat straw (WS), sheep manure (SM), wood pellet biochar pre-loaded for 30 days in a low-solids digester (WP30L) and 90 days in a high-solids digester (WP90H).

Biochar type	Lag time (days)		Maximum daily production rate (ml-CH <sub>4</sub> /g-VS/day)		Potential yield (ml-CH <sub>4</sub> /g-VS)	
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD
WP	24.0	0.5	1.6	0.04	67.8	1.0
WP30L	21.9	0.6	1.7	0.1	63.2	0.8
WP90H	16.8	0.8	2.1	0.1	84.2	1.4
WS	39.5*	2.5	1.2	0.1	91.1	25.6
SM	46.7	1.3	1.2	0.1	58.4	7.6
Control (no biochar)	25.1	1.5	1.4	0.1	59.2	2.4

\* Estimated from two biological replicates as one replicate did not fit to the Gompertz model.

Table 4: Chemical conditions of the bulk sludge after 90 days in digesters with varying biochar types, wood pellet (WP), wheat straw (WS), sheep manure (SM), wood pellet biochar pre-loaded for 30 days in a low-solids digester (WP30L) and 90 days in a high-solids digester (WP90H)

Biochar type	pH		Total ammonia-nitrogen (g/kg)		Free ammonia-nitrogen (g/kg)		Volatile fatty acids (g/kg)		Total alkalinity (g-CaCO <sub>3eq</sub> /kg)	
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD
WP	8.9	0.04	5.3	1.2	2.7	0.5	15.1	4.7	14.7	1.3
WP30L	8.8	0.04	6.5	0.4	2.9	0.3	27.1	2.1	14.9	1.2
WP90H	8.9	0.05	5.6	1.2	2.9	0.6	6.9	0.7	15.9	0.4
WS	8.9	0.02	4.6	0.8	2.3	0.4	23.2	2.7	11.3	3.0
SM	8.9	0.06	4.9	0.5	2.4	0.2	21.8	4.6	12.3	1.2
Control (no biochar)	8.9	0.00	5.1	1.3	2.6	0.6	20.3	2.2	12.8	1.1

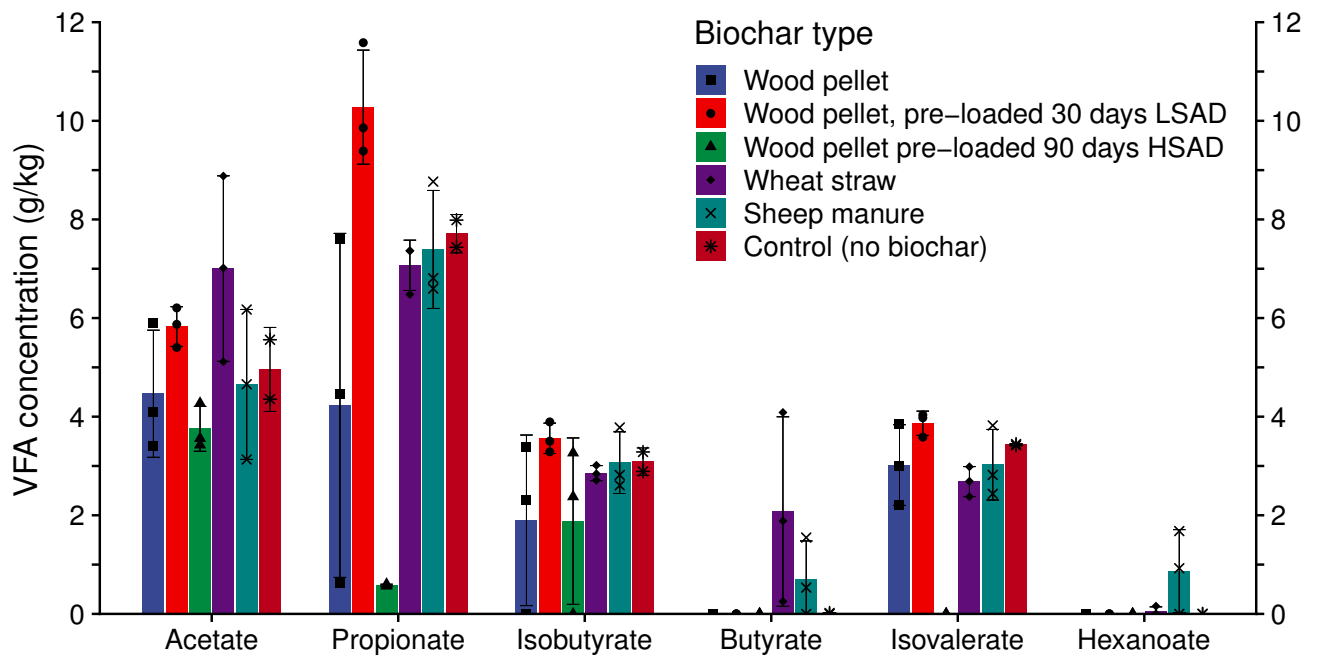


Figure 4: The volatile fatty acid (VFA) concentration in the bulk sludge after 90 days. The columns show the mean, error bars show the standard deviation and the markers show the range of values from the biological replicates.

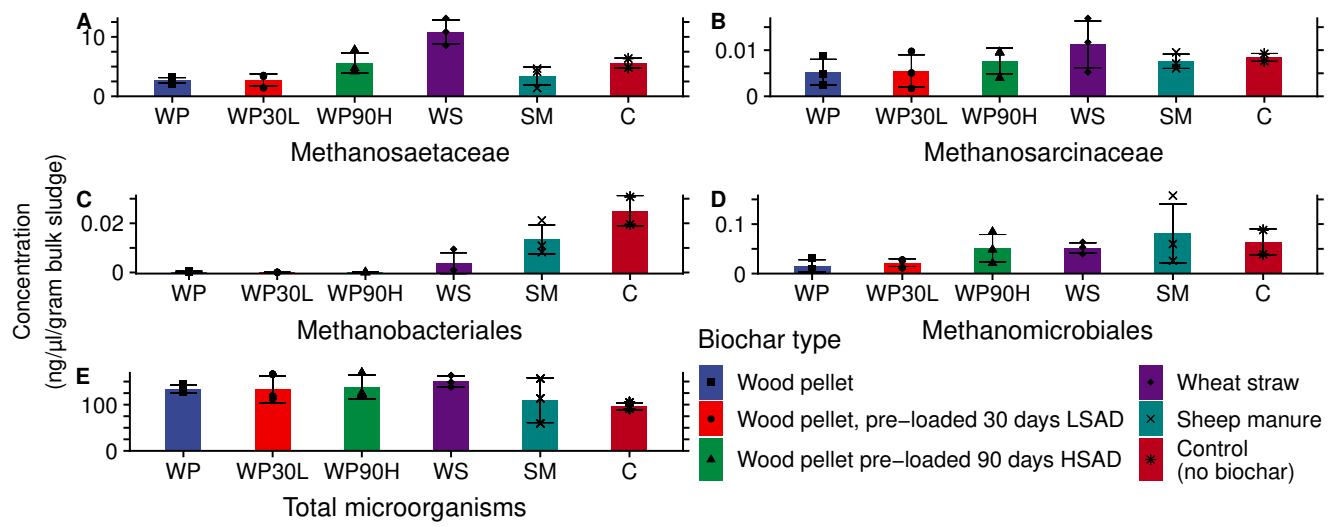


Figure 5: The concentration of methane-generating microorganisms (A-D) and total microorganisms (E) in the bulk sludge. The columns show the mean, the error bars show the standard deviation and markers show the range from biological replicates.

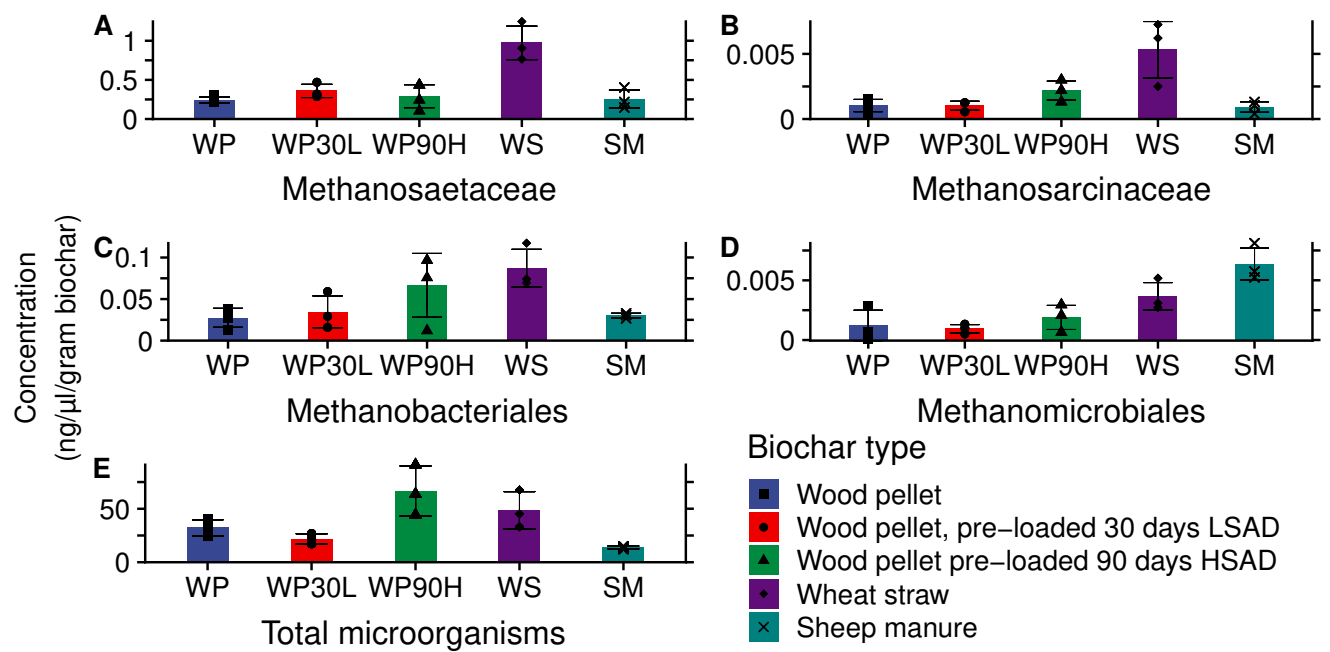


Figure 6: The concentration of methane-generating microorganisms (A-D) and total microorganisms (E) attached to the biochar. The columns show the mean, the error bars show the standard deviation and markers the show range from biological replicates.