

Priming effects in biochar enriched soils using a three-source-partitioning approach: ¹⁴C labelling and ¹³C natural abundance

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20 Abstract

The changes to soil properties due to biochar addition may affect both the direction 21 and magnitude of priming effects. However, the mechanisms involved in biochar 22 induced priming effects still remain largely unknown due to the limitation of methods 23 to separate more than two carbon (C) sources (e.g. soil, biochar, substrate). We 24 combined ¹⁴C labeling with ¹³C natural abundance to separate the total CO₂ from i) 25 native soil organic C (SOC, C₃ signature), ii) added glucose (¹⁴C labeled) and iii) 26 biochar (C₄ signature). The primed soil CO₂ emissions following a large addition of 27 glucose (1000 mg glucose kg⁻¹ soil) to one Chinese and one German Luvisol soil were 28 much larger (140% and 53% respectively) in a soil recently amended with maize 29 derived biochar (pyrolyzed at 400°C), compared to non amended soil. Glucose 30 addition at a lower rate (100 mg C kg⁻¹ soil) produced no significant differences in 31 priming effects of native soil organic matter between the biochar amended and 32 non-amended soils. Glucose also caused priming of biochar decomposition, with an 33 additional C4 biochar loss of between 270 μg CO2-C $g^{\text{-1}}$ and 540 μg CO2-C $g^{\text{-1}}$ 34 depending on soils and glucose concentrations. Approaches using two stable isotopes 35 (¹³C and¹²C) have previously been limited to partitioning two sources (biochar C and 36 soil organic C). Here, for the first time, ¹⁴C labeling was combined with ¹³C natural 37 abundance to partition three C sources in a biochar amended soil. By partitioning soil 38 CO₂ emissions derived from SOC, from added biochar and glucose decompositions, 39 this study provides a better understanding of the priming effects following addition of 40 41 substrates to biochar amended soil, to approximate to the true complexity of biochar 42 enriched soils.

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44 Key words: biochar, priming effect, three C sources, ${}^{14}C$ labelling, ${}^{13}C$ natural 45 abundance

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47 **1. Introduction**

The short term increases or decreases in the mineralization of soil organic C 48 caused by the addition of organic substrates are known as positive or negative priming 49 effects (Kuzyakov et al., 2000). Previous studies showed that added biochars could 50 induce either positive or negative priming effects (Luo et al., 2011; Zimmerman et al., 51 2011). Negative priming effects were attributed to the physical protection of soil 52 organic matter (Maestrini et al., 2014b). Singh et al. (2014) showed that, at 10 months 53 54 following biochar addition to soil, about 70% was recovered in the free light fraction, while 20% was in the aggregate-occluded and 6% in the mineral associated fraction. 55 The protection of soil organic C from mineralization might be due to direct adsorption 56 on biochar surfaces or organo-mineral associations promoted by biochar (Singh and 57 Cowie, 2014). However, some studies indicated that physical protection through soil 58 aggregation might be weakly linked to biochar induced priming effects (Kerre et al., 59 2016). Positive priming effects occur in the early stages following biochar 60 incorporation, and are reported to be over quite rapidly in many studies (Jones et al., 61 62 2011a; Maestrini et al., 2014a; Whitman et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2013; Zimmerman et al., 2011). These short term positive priming effects, due to increased mineralization 63 of soil organic C, are largely attributed to stimulation of microbial activity by the 64 labile C contained within the biochar, or abiotic release of CO₂ from carbonates in the 65 ash (Maestrini et al., 2014b; Smith et al., 2010; Zimmerman et al., 2011). The positive 66 priming effects observed following the addition of biochar are of similar magnitude 67 (between 50 - 500 μ g C g⁻¹ soil) to other priming effects following the addition of 68 labile organic C, which stimulates microbial activity in the short term (Jones et al., 69 70 2011a; Zhao et al., 2013). Thus, biochar induced priming effects are generally believed to be either positive or negative in the short term while mainly negative after 71 72 labile C has been utilized in the long term.

After the short term mineralization of bio-available C from the biochar, the effects of biochar on soil properties, e.g. water-filled pore spaces, habitat, soil aeration, moisture, pH and nutrient availability may persist during the medium (1 year) to long term (above 3 years) period). In addition to environmental factors, e.g. temperature

(Benbi et al., 2014; Fang et al., 2014), soil priming effects can also be strongly 77 affected by soil properties, e.g. soil pH, aggregate stability, organic matter and 78 nutrient availability (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov, 2008). For example, a highly 79 significant positive correlation between soil primed CO₂ (expressed as a percent of 80 added C) and soil pH (range 3 to 8) was found by Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov 81 (2008). As soil properties might be changed due to biochar addition, the soil organic C 82 mineralization in biochar free soil and biochar amended soil may respond differently 83 84 to added substrates. Thus, in addition to the short term effects of biochar on soil organic C mineralization, following addition of substrate to the newly established 85 biochar soil system, the direction or magnitude of the soil priming effect might differ 86 due to the changes in soil properties caused by the biochar. 87

The first report on biochar causing soil priming effects was criticized because 88 isotopic labelling was not used. It was therefore not possible to separate the different 89 SOM pools involved (Lehmann and Sohi, 2008; Wardle et al., 2008). Since then, 90 stable isotope techniques have been used to distinguish between the mineralization of 91 92 biochar and soil organic C mineralization in many studies (Jones et al., 2011a; Maestrini et al., 2014a; Maestrini et al., 2014b; Zimmerman et al., 2011). Until now, 93 most studies designed to investigate biochar induced soil priming effects have used 94 two approaches: 1) addition of unlabeled biochar to unlabeled soil (Wardle et al., 95 2008), and 2) addition of 13 C (Jones et al., 2011b; Zimmerman et al., 2011) or 14 C 96 labeled biochar to unlabeled soil (Kuzyakov et al., 2009). However, quantitatively 97 partitioning systems using two stable isotopes (^{13}C and ^{12}C) have been limited to only 98 two sources (biochar C and soil organic C). Recently there has been increasing 99 interest in the effects of biochar on priming effects involving three C sources e.g. soil, 100 biochar and plants(Weng et al., 2015; Whitman et al., 2014). Whitman et al. (2014) 101 partitioned the CO₂-C evolved from three sources of biochar, plant root exudates and 102 soil organic C using only two isotopes, by assuming an extreme scenario whereby 103 only one C source was mineralized from the combined C sources of biochar plus 104 root exudates, which gave the upper (root exudates) and lower (biochar) values of the 105 mineralization of C4 materials and soil organic C mineralization. Whitman and 106

Lehmann (2015) introduced a dual-isotope approach to partition soil CO_2 emissions derived from soil organic C, added biochar and root respiration. However, it still remains challenging for three C sources to be separated by traditional approaches using only two stable isotopes (¹³C and ¹²C). More complex methodological approaches which are able to discern three C sources in biochar enriched system would provide a much needed and valuable research tool in future research (Weng et al., 2015; Whitman et al., 2014).

114 Based on the biochar induced changes in soil properties, e.g. pH increase, aeration, moisture dynamics, C availability, nutrients status, our hypothesis is that soil 115 organic C mineralization may respond differently to the addition of fresh organic C in 116 unamended and biochar-amended soils. Our main aim was to test the possibility of 117 adopting the three-source-partitioning approach by combining ¹⁴C labelling with ¹³C 118 natural abundance in soil with three C sources (native soil organic C, glucose-C and 119 biochar-C). The second aim was to investigate the differences in amounts of primed 120 CO₂ following the addition of ¹⁴C glucose to an unamended (soil and glucose) and 121 122 biochar amended (soil, glucose and biochar) soil.

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124 **2. Materials and methods**

125 **2.1 Soils, biochar and glucose addition**

Soils were sampled (0-23 cm) with a Dutch auger, from Zhejiang province, China 126 127 (Soil A) and north-west of Gottingen, Germany (Soil B). Both soils were classified as Luvisols according to World Reference Base (WRB) system with soil classification 128 scheme. The two soils were analyzed in different labs but with identical procedures. 129 The soil samples were hand-picked to remove obvious plant debris and roots, sieved 130 at field moisture (<2 mm) and subsequently adjusted to 40% of water holding 131 capacity (WHC). Soil pH was measured at a soil:CaCl₂ ratio of 1:2.5 (weight/weight). 132 Air-dry soil (10 g, <2 mm) and 25 ml of CaCl₂(0.01 M) were shaken together for 1 133 min and left to settle for 30 min, which was repeated once more before pH was 134 determined with a pH electrode. Total C and N of the soils (air-dried, milled <200 µm) 135

were determined by dry combustion (LECO CNS 2000, LECO Corporation, Michigan, 136 USA). The natural δ^{13} C (‰) abundance of the soils (air-dried, milled <200 µm) was 137 determined on an elemental analyser-isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Sercon Ltd, 138 Crewe, UK). All measurements are given on an oven-dry weight basis (o.d., 105 °C, 139 24 h). Soil A had a pH (CaCl₂) of 7.0, a bulk density of 1.3 g cm⁻³, an organic C 140 content of 60.5 g kg⁻¹ a total N content of 3.8 g kg⁻¹ and a δ^{13} C value of -26.7 % 141 (C3-source). Soil B had a pH (CaCl₂) of 6.0, a bulk density of 1.4 g cm⁻³, an organic 142 C content of 12.4 g kg⁻¹, a total N content of 1.3 g kg⁻¹ and a δ^{13} C value of -27.4 ‰ 143 (C3- source). More information about soil B including its properties and management 144 were reported by Kramer et al. (2012). 145

The biochar was made from maize straw (C4-source), previously dried at 105 °C for 24 h, milled < 1 mm, contained within a sealable retort with N₂ flowing to limit O₂, and pyrolysed in a Carbolite CWF 1200 furnace at 400°C for 30 minutes. Biochar was analysed in the same way as the soils, except that the pH was measured at a soil:CaCl₂ ratio of 1:10 (weight/weight). The biochar analytical values are given in Table 1.

Uniformly labelled ¹⁴C glucose as substrate (corresponding to 50 KBq g⁻¹ soil) was prepared 12 hours before the incubation study started. The δ^{13} C of the glucose was -9.905‰.

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155 **2.2 Experimental design and layout**

The experimental design comprised 15 treatments: 2 unamended soils (A and B), 156 2 biochar amended soils (soils A and B amended with biochar), plus biochar alone 157 supplied with dissolved soil organic C (DOC) solution (1:20 soil: water ratio). All of 158 these 5 treatments were supplied with 3 additions (water and 2 glucose levels). Soils 159 from both treatments (C3 soil plus C4 biochar, and C3 soil) were amended with 160 distilled water as a control to permit the calculation of glucose-induced priming 161 effects. Also, the soil (C3) alone incubated with distilled water or glucose was used as 162 a reference to estimate the $\delta^{13}C$ shifts between the pools due to ${}^{13}C$ isotopic 163 fractionation. The biochar enriched soil (C3+C4) treated solely with water was used 164 as a control to estimate the changes in $\delta^{13}C$ due to preferential utilization of 165

¹³C-enriched biochar C. Each treatment was replicated 4 times for setup and incubation, and 3 out of 4 replicates were randomly chosen for 14 C and 13 C analysis.

To determine the effect of added glucose on the mineralization of soil organic C in 168 biochar amended soils (C3+C4) and biochar free soils (C3), biochar (50 mg C g^{-1} soil) 169 and ¹⁴C labelled glucose were added to the two C3 soils (Soil A and B). The biochar 170 were added to soils at the rate of 50 mg C g^{-1} soil, as in our previous study (Luo et al., 171 2011). The biochar derived from C4 maize straw (milled <1 mm) was incorporated 172 173 into the two soils. Both soils (A and B) were separately amended with dried C4 biochar and carefully mixed in plastic bags to homogenize them. Uniformly labelled 174 ¹⁴Cglucose was added to a solution of unlabeled glucose to reach the final 175 concentration of 5.7 KBq g⁻¹ soil. ¹⁴C-labelled glucose was applied to soil at 100 mg 176 C kg⁻¹ (glucose low, GL) or 1000 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (glucose high, GH) in water to 177 provide final soil moisture contents of 50% WHC. NH₄NO₃ was added, in solution, at 178 170 mg N kg⁻¹ soil to avoid any N limitation. In order to estimate the δ^{13} C value of 179 biochar, it was supplied with dissolved soil organic C (DOC) (soil free), the measured 180 δ^{13} C value of released CO₂ from biochar plus DOC treatment is the biochar δ^{13} C value. 181 The δ^{13} C of the biochar can be found in Table 1. 182

Each moist soil sample (20 g, o.d. basis) was incubated in a 100 ml glass jar. The 183 soils were adjusted to 40% WHC and pre-incubated for one week at 20 °C. After 184 pre-incubation, uniformly labelled ¹⁴C glucose and distilled water were added to reach 185 a final soil moisture content of 50% of WHC. Four empty jars served as blanks. Then 186 the jars were incubated in the dark at 20 °C for 28 days. During the incubation, the 187 CO₂ evolved from the soils was trapped by 3 ml of 1.0 M NaOH solution in small 188 placed on the soil surface, and exchanged at 1, 3, 5, 7, 14, and 28 days. Aliquots of 189 NaOH from the three randomly chosen replicate vessels from each treatment were 190 used to measure the ${}^{14}C$ activity, ${}^{13}C-CO_2$ (‰) and total amount of trapped CO₂. 191

192 **2.3 Chemical analysis**

193 2.3.1 Soil CO₂ emission and δ^{13} C (‰)

194 The concentrations of CO_2 trapped in the NaOH solutions were measured by

195 titrating 0.5 mL NaOH with 0.1 M HCl with phenolphthalein as an indicator after addition of 0.5 M BaCl₂ (Zibilske, 1994). To determine the δ^{13} C (‰) of the trapped 196 CO₂-C, 2 ml aliquots of the NaOH were added to 3 ml 1.5 M BaCl₂ in vials (Aoyama 197 et al., 2000). The resulting BaCO₃ precipitates were then filtered and trapped on glass 198 fibre filters (90mm, Whatman GF/A, UK), carefully rinsed with water and dried 199 overnight (80 °C). The precipitates were scraped off the filters, weighed (5 mg) into 200 tin capsules and analysed for $\delta^{13}C$ on an elemental analyser-isotope ratio mass 201 spectrometer (DELTA V plus IRMS, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). 202

203 **2.3.2 Glucose derived-**¹⁴C in CO₂ pool

The ¹⁴C activity of CO₂ trapped in NaOH was measured in a scintillation cocktail (Rotiszint Eco PlusCarl Roth, Germany) after decay of the chemiluminescence using a 1450 LSC & Luminescence Counter MicroBetaTriLux (Perkin Elmer Inc., USA). The ¹⁴C counting efficiency was 87% and the ¹⁴C activity measurement error did not exceed 2%.

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210 **2.4 Calculation**

To partition three sources of CO_2 -C, an approach combining ¹⁴C labelling with ¹³C natural abundance, the calculation of Blagodatskaya et al. (2011) and Tian et al. (2016) was used. Initially, the amount of glucose-derived C (C_G-derived) was calculated based on the radioactivity of the evolved ¹⁴CO₂ (¹⁴C_{curr}, DPM), the amount of added glucose (C_G), and the radioactivity of the applied glucose (¹⁴C_G, DPM):

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$$C_G\text{-}derived = {}^{l4}C_{curr} * C_G/{}^{l4}C_G(1)$$

217 Then, the amount of SOM-derived C was calculated as:

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$$C_{SOM-derived} = C_{total} - C_{G-derived}(2)$$

219 Where C_{total} is the total amount of C in the evolvedCO₂.

220

Secondly, the δ^{13} C (‰) values of SOM-originated C in each pool (δ^{13} C_{SOM-derived}) were calculated based on a mass balance equation according to Balesdent and Mariotti (1996).

The δ^{13} C signature of glucose-derived C (see below) was subtracted from the total

225 $1\delta^{13}C$ signature, considering the contribution of the amount of glucose-originated C 226 estimated in the first step based on ¹⁴C:

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$$\delta^{13}C_{SOM-derived} = \frac{(\delta^{13}C_{total} \cdot C_{total} - \delta^{13}C_{G-derived} \cdot C_{G-derived})}{C_{total} - C_{G-derived}}(3)$$

where $\delta^{13}C_{\text{total}}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{\text{G-derived}}$ are the $\delta^{13}C$ -values of the total and glucose-derived C. The former value was measured experimentally as described in section 2.3.1. The $\delta^{13}C$ of G_{-derived} was assumed to be equal to the $\delta^{13}C$ of glucose (-9.905‰).

The contributions of soil organic C (C3) and biochar C (C4) were then calculated based on the glucose-corrected δ^{13} C signature ($\delta^{13}C_{SOM-derived}$) at each corresponding date. The amount of C4- derived CO₂-Cwas calculated from:

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$$C_{C4-derived} = \frac{C_{SOM-derived}(\delta^{13}C_{SOM-derived}-\delta^{13}C_{C3-ref})}{\delta^{13}C_{C4-material}-\delta^{13}C_{c3-materia}}(5)$$

Where $\delta^{13}C_{C3-ref}$ is the $\delta^{13}C$ value in the reference C3 soil at the corresponding sampling data.

The $C_{C3-derived}$ was then calculated by subtracting the $C_{C4-derived}$ from the total amount of C.

The glucose induced priming effects in the biochar amended soils, with and without glucose addition (C3+C4) were calculated based on the changes in the δ^{13} C signature and the amount of extra CO₂ evolved after ¹⁴C-glucose addition compared with the treatment without glucose.

243 $PE = Biochar \ soil - C_{glucose \ amended} - Biochar \ soil - C_{without \ glucose}$ (6)

Then the glucose induced priming effects in unamended soils (C3) were calculatedfrom

246
$$PE = soil \ derived \ C_{glucose \ amended} - soil \ derived \ C_{without \ glucose}$$
(7)

The changes in the δ^{13} C signature due to preferential substrate utilization of labile and ¹³C-enriched biochar C (compared with ¹³C depleted soil C), were considered to provide the correct assessment of the priming effect (Blagodatskaya et al., 2011). The dynamic changes in δ^{13} C due to preferential utilization were estimated in biochar enriched soil (C3+C4) treated solely with H₂O. Therefore, the priming effects were calculated separately for C3 and C4 carbon sources (C3-PE and C4-PE, respectively) considering the changes in the contribution of soil C (C3) and biochar C (C4) in the controls:

$$C3 - PE = C_{C3}^{amended} - C_{C3}^{unamended}$$
$$C4 - PE = C_{C4}^{amended} - C_{C4}^{unamended}$$

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256 **2.5 Statistics**

Data meeting assumptions of normality and equality of variances were analyzed by ANOVA. Data not meeting the assumptions were logarithmically transformed and analyzed by ANOVA. A one-way analysis of variance was undertaken to determine the significance (p<0.05) of differences between the treatments of glucose induced priming effects with and without biochar (SPSS 19.0). LSD was chosen for the multiple comparisons between different treatments.

263

264 **3 Results**

265 **3.1 CO₂ release from soil**

Soils which received glucose gave much higher CO₂ fluxes than soils not receiving glucose, during the 28 days of incubation (Fig. 1, P < 0.001), with significant differences between the two glucose concentrations. The soils with addition of 100 μ g C glucose g⁻¹ soil evolved lower concentrations of CO₂, (less than 1000 μ g C g⁻¹ soil) while the soil receiving glucose 1000 μ g C g⁻¹ soil at evolved much more CO₂ (more than 1500 μ g C g⁻¹ soil) over 28 days of incubation (Fig. 1).

At 100 μ g glucose C g⁻¹ soil, rapid C mineralization occurred in the first few days, 272 then glucose mineralization ceased (Fig. 1a and c), while glucose-derived CO2 273 continued to be evolved after 28 days of incubation at 1000 μ g C g⁻¹ soil. In addition, 274 glucose at the low (GL) and high (GH) concentrations evolved different amounts of 275 CO₂, at 29.9 and 285.0 μ g C g⁻¹ soil, respectively, over 28 days of incubation. 276 Percentage mineralization of added glucose in GL and GH treatments were similar 277 (29.4 % and 30.2 % of added glucose respectively). Compared to biochar free soil, 278 biochar amended soil gave higher CO_2 emissions (P < 0.05), with 300.1 and 298.5 µg 279 C g⁻¹ evolved from soil A and B, respectively (Fig. 1b). The addition of GH resulted 280

in the largest soil CO₂ evolution in the biochar enriched soil B, at 1534.2 μ g C g⁻¹ soil (Fig. 1d), which was not significantly different from the CO₂ evolved from the corresponding treatment in Soil A (1468.3 μ g C g⁻¹ soil) (Fig. 1b).

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3.2 Partitioning the total soil CO₂-C evolved.

By combining ¹⁴C labelling with ¹³C natural abundance measurements 286 (Blagodatskaya et al., 2011), it is possible to partition the CO_2 -C from ¹⁴C glucose, 287 native soil organic C and biochar (Fig. 2). In both soils with glucose addition, the 288 cumulative C4-derived CO₂ was greater than the CO₂ efflux derived from C3-soil 289 organic C at the beginning of the incubation +8 (day 3) but there was no significant 290 difference (P >0.05) by the end of the incubation. The mineralization of C4-biochar C 291 mainly occurred during the first 7 days of incubation. For example, in Soil B, 292 significantly more biochar C (P < 0.001) was mineralized at day 7 (368.8 μ g C g⁻¹) 293 compared to day 3 (272.7 µg C g⁻¹) with GL addition and from 413.9µg C g⁻¹ to 550.8 294 μ g C g⁻¹ with GH addition over the same period, but only another 10 % (GL) and 4 % 295 296 (GH) of biochar C were mineralized from day 7 to day 28 (Fig. 2). In both soils, biochar mineralized very slowly and no biochar mineralization was detected after day 297 7. Soil organic C (C3) mineralization depended largely on the glucose addition rate, 298 irrespective of soil type. The GL rate mainly stimulated C3 soil mineralization during 299 the first 14 days (314 μ g C g⁻¹ in soil A and 332 μ g C g⁻¹ in Soil B, respectively), and 300 produced much lower mineralization rates (49.2 μ g C g⁻¹ in Soil A and 27.3 μ g C g⁻¹ 301 respectively in Soil B from day 14 to 28, while the high concentration of glucose (GH) 302 caused continuous C3 soil organic C mineralization with no decrease in rate, with the 303 CO₂ evolved increasing from 346.2 μ g C g⁻¹ to 486.9 μ g C g⁻¹ (Soil A) and 435.8 μ g C 304 g^{-1} to 574.2 µg C g^{-1} (Soil B) during the corresponding period from day 14 to 28 (Fig. 305 2). 306

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308 **3.3 Glucose induced priming effect**

Following the addition of glucose at the high rate (GH), different trends of soilorganic C mineralization occurred in unamended and biochar amended soil. The soil

organic C loss was hardly detectable in any treatments apart from the GH plus biochar 311 enriched soil, where the continuous mineralization of soil organic C extended after the 312 28 day incubation period (Fig. 3). The GH induced soil primed C losses in the biochar 313 enriched soil during 28 days of incubation were 457.0 and 423.5 µg CO₂-C g⁻¹, 314 respectively, in soil A and B (Fig. 3 b, d and Fig. 4), which were 140% and 53% 315 higher respectively than the primed soil CO_2 in biochar free soil (Fig. 3b,d). 316 Following GL addition, no significant differences occurred between biochar free and 317 318 biochar enriched Soil A (Fig. 3a) during the 28 day incubation period. The combined addition of biochar and GL caused 169.0 µg CO₂-C g⁻¹ soil organic C⁻ mineralization 319 while GL alone produced 160.9 μ g CO₂-C g⁻¹ of soil primed CO₂, during the 28 days 320 of incubation (Fig. 3a). 321

Glucose alone also caused biochar priming effects. GL gave an additional C4 biochar loss of 270.5 μ g CO₂-C g⁻¹soil (Soil A) and 300.9 μ g CO₂-C g⁻¹ soil (Soil B), while GH caused C4 biochar losses of 539.8 μ g CO₂-C g⁻¹ soil (Soil A) and 482.6 μ g CO₂-C g⁻¹soil (Soil B), respectively (Fig. 4).

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327 **4 Discussion**

4.1 Approaches to partition three C sources in a biochar rich soil system

A three-source-partitioning approach of combining ¹⁴C labelling with ¹³C natural 329 abundance has been adopted in some studies to partition three C sources in soil 330 systems (Blagodatskaya et al., 2011). This yielded advantages such as 1) Compared 331 with the natural abundance of ¹³C, making the analyses difficult, the use of highly 332 labeled ¹⁴C substrates e.g. glucose-C permits the precise and accurate estimation of 333 the different soil pools which contribute to soil CO₂ fluxes (Blagodatskaya et al., 2011; 334 Whitman and Lehmann, 2015), 2) One fewer treatment is necessary to partition 335 sources, compare to the usage of dual treatments with different isotope ratios for the 336 same component (Whitman and Lehmann, 2015; Kuzyakov and Bol, 2004), 3) 337 Estimation of interactions between the soil C pools is direct, without complicated 338 3-way subtraction (Blagodatskaya et al., 2011; Kuzyakov and Bol, 2004). Our results 339 demonstrated this approach by partitioning soil CO2 emissions derived from soil 340

organic C, added biochar and substrate (glucose in this study). This helps us to better
understand the soil priming effects following substrate addition to biochar enriched
soils.

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4.2 Priming effects in biochar free and enriched soil

A 'real' priming effect reflects an increase in mineralization of soil organic C whereas an 'apparent' priming effect is due to the increased turnover of microbial C (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov, 2008). In this study, the 'apparent' priming effect caused by C pool substitution could be largely excluded as the microbial biomass C contents (data not published) were less than the primed CO_2 in all of the treatments (Fig 3).

Previous studies focused on short term (two weeks) (Jones et al., 2011a; Luo et al., 352 2011), medium (half a year) (Zimmerman et al., 2011) and long term (8 years) 353 (Kuzyakov et al., 2014) biochar induced priming effects in unperturbed soils. Based 354 on a review study of the 650 data points from 18 studies of biochar induced priming 355 356 effects, the most positive priming effect occurred in the first 20 days while negative priming appeared in a later stage (Maestrini et al. (2014b). This might indicate that the 357 initial loss of primed C following biochar incorporation would be compensated by 358 greater C stabilization in the long term. This, however, does not reflect the situation in 359 natural soil ecosystems, as substrates are ubiquitous in all soils under agricultural, 360 grassland and forest managements. Our present work on biochar-induced priming 361 effects considers this process following the incorporation of substrates in biochar 362 enriched soil. We used glucose in this study. However, future study should focus 363 364 more on naturally occurring substrates e.g. plant residues or root exudates. We found that the added glucose gave higher priming effects (53% and 140% more unlabeled C 365 evolved) from two soils which had previously received biochar, compared to biochar 366 free soil (Fig. 3). In another recent study, the combined addition of maize derived 367 biochar and maize feedstock caused 430 μ g CO₂-C g⁻¹ while maize alone gave 350 μ g 368 CO₂-C g⁻¹ soil primed CO₂, during 180 days of incubation (Kerre et al., 2016). 369 Whitman and Lehmann (2015) also found 23% higher soil organic C mineralization 370

induced by roots when biochar was present. However, Whitman et al. (2014) found 371 that biochar additions counteracted positive priming effect induced by maize residues, 372 eliminating net C losses by decreasing soil organic C decomposition (48% lower). 373 This might be due to the limited amount of C released from roots into the rhizosphere 374 (Wichern et al., 2007). Similarly, in our study, a low concentration of glucose (GL) 375 caused slightly higher (4% in Soil A and 34% in Soil B) primed soil organic C in a 376 biochar amended soil compared to an unamended soil (Fig 3, 4 and 5). If we assume a 377 378 continuous input of easily available substrates (e.g. rhizo-deposits) to the soil organic matter pool over a large time scale, the loss due to priming following substrate 379 additions to biochar amended soils cannot be ignored. Clearly, extrapolation of the 380 effects of glucose in our experiment to field conditions must be done with caution. 381 However, further research will compare different substrates of differences in chemical 382 composition, e.g. root exudates and litter, on soil priming effects in biochar enriched 383 soils. In addition, studies of the effect of continuous input of small amounts of 384 substrates into biochar enriched soils are required. 385

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4.3 Mechanisms involved in substrate induced priming effects in biochar enriched soil

The presence of living plants (Gregory, 2006) or addition of organic substances 389 with various composition e.g. cellulose, (Fontaine et al., 2011) and sugar-cane sucrose 390 (Nottingham et al., 2009) alter the soil physical, hydrological and chemical 391 environment and associated biological processes thus altering soil organic C 392 mineralization rates (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov, 2008). Compared with the 393 394 substrates used in the above studies, biochar induces larger and longer significant changes in the physio-chemical characteristics of soil, (e.g. soil pH, bulk density, 395 porosity and moisture content) due to its high stability (Chan et al., 2007; Sohi et al., 396 2010). Thus, in two C source systems, the short term priming effects following 397 biochar addition are mainly due to labile C, while positive priming effects (of varying 398 duration) in three C source systems can be explained by both increases in labile C and 399 changes in soil physical and chemical properties, which might further activate certain 400

401 groups in the microbial biomass (Fig. 5).

A fresh substrate amendment can induce a shift of the microbial community 402 towards the utilization of more easily decomposable C (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov, 403 2008). Microbial colonization within biochar was observed in several studies, and the 404 most likely area for colonization is referred as the "charsphere" which is defined as 405 the interface between biochar and soil, providing a unique and preferred soil 406 micro-environment for microbial colonization (Luo et al., 2013). The substrate inputs 407 408 in our study are likely to interact with microorganisms in the charsphere, resulting in greater amounts of biomass and higher activity which may possibly cause a faster 409 turnover of soil organic C close to that specific area. We also found a faster response 410 of bacteria following biochar application in the early stage and fungal dominance in 411 the later stage (unpublished data). Fresh substrate alters the bacterial and fungal 412 community structure during the incubation period in a "microbial succession", 413 suggesting that the ecological functions of the bacterial and fungal community 414 changes as soil conditions (mainly soil labile C and physical properties) change over 415 416 time (Andrews and Harris, 1986; Blagodatskaya et al., 2007). We believe that succession from r-strategists to K-strategists occurred during the 28 days of 417 incubation, as the growth of microorganisms becomes increasingly limited by 418 resource deficiency (most glucose is decomposed in the first 1-3 days). K-strategists, 419 instead of r-strategists, are better able to use other sources of C to produce biomass 420 than r-strategists (Andrews and Harris, 1986; Blagodatskaya et al., 2007; Chen et al., 421 422 2016). The microbial succession can be more profound in biochar amended systems as the effects of biochar on soil properties are relatively long term. This can largely 423 424 explain our results, showing that larger priming effects occurred in the later stages of 425 incubation in biochar amended soil rather than in unamended soil (Fig. 3). However, this needs further research using modern approaches, e.g. Illumina MiSeq sequencing. 426

427

428 4.4 Environmental implications

429 Sufficient incorporation of biochar will increase total soil organic C and might
430 help offset climate change (Sohi, 2012). Biochar, however, can cause priming effects,

which may partially offset its effects on C sequestration (Jones et al., 2011b). In many 431 laboratory incubations, biochar induced priming effects ceased after a short period of 432 incubation, and it is generally concluded that short term priming C losses due to 433 biochar are negligible compared to the extra C incorporated into soil following 434 biochar incorporation. However, this input of biochar into soil provides an additional 435 surface area and, therefore, an important new microbiological niche (Novce et al., 436 2016), for soil organic C to interact with other C sources, e.g. plant residues. Thus, 437 438 with these fresh organic matter inputs and their repeated additions in a biochar-soil-plant system, we belive that the interactions between non-living and 439 living organic C are more likely to occur and cause faster rates of soil organic C 440 decomposition in the charsphere (Luo et al., 2013). If our results are validated in other 441 systems with different soils, biochars and substrates, this C loss cannot be ignored and 442 the C balance might need to be carefully recalculated in the long term by considering 443 multiple labile organic C sources, e.g. root exudates, plant and animal residues etc., 444 which commonly exist in nature (Zhu et al., 2014). Currently, we still do not know 445 446 how substrates with different chemical compositions cause priming effects of different magnitudes. We believe this needs further systematic investigation. In addition, in 447 nature, pulses of substrate are usual, e.g. inputs of litter and root exudates in most 448 terrestrial ecosystems (Qiao et al., 2014) and are more likely to continuously prime 449 soil organic C in biochar free systems than a single substrate input (Hamer and 450 Marschner, 2005), we believe this might cause larger and continuous C losses. 451

452

453 **5** Conclusions

We tested the possibility of adopting the three-source-partitioning approach by combining ¹⁴C labelling with ¹³C natural abundance in a biochar amended soil system. For the first time we were able to separate CO_2 emission from biochar, soil organic C and substrate (glucose) based on a combination of ¹⁴C with ¹³C addition to soil. We verified our hypothesis that soil organic C mineralization responds differently to the addition of fresh organic C in unamended and biochar amended soils. This study found that following ¹⁴C labelled glucose addition, the accumulated primed soil C loss

during 28 days were 140% and 53% higher than the priming soil CO₂ in biochar free 461 soils. In addition, glucose also caused priming of biochar decomposition, with an 462 additional C₄ biochar loss of between 270 µg CO₂-C g⁻¹ and 540 µg CO₂-C g⁻¹ 463 depending on soils and glucose concentrations. These results help us to better 464 understand the soil priming effects following substrate addition in biochar amended 465 soils. Long term field experiments are required with different soil and biochar types. 466 However, some methodology problems remained to be overcome, for example, the 467 use of ¹⁴C under field conditions, and the high cost of large amounts of highly 468 enriched ¹³C labelled plants, etc. 469

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477 **References**

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576 **Legends to Figures.**

- Fig. 1. Cumulative CO_2 evolved from soil A with low concentration of at 100 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (graph 'a') and high concentration of additions at 1000 mg glucose-C kg⁻¹ soil (graph 'b'), and soil B with the same low (graph 'c') and high (graph 'd') concentration of glucose addition. Bars indicate standard errors of the means (n=3).
- 582

Fig. 2. Contribution of three C sources to cumulative CO_2 evolved from soil A with low at 100 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (a) and high concentration of glucose addition at 1000 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (b), and soil B with the same low (c) and high (d) concentration of glucose addition. The three sources of CO₂-C were: 1) Soil derived CO₂-C (C3-Soil), 2) Biochar derived CO₂-C (C4-Biochar), and 3) Glucose derived CO₂-C (¹⁴C). Error bars indicate standard errors of the means (n=3).

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Fig. 3 Glucose induced soil priming effects (PE) in unamended (grey bar) and biochar amended soil (black) from soil A with low at 100 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (a) and high concentration of glucose addition at 1000 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (b), and soil B with low (c) and high (d) concentration of glucose addition.. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means (n=3).

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Fig. 4. Contribution of three C sources to cumulative CO₂ efflux from soil A with low 596 at 100 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (a) and high concentration of glucose addition at 1000 mg C kg⁻¹ 597 soil (b), and soil B with low (c) and high (d) concentration of glucose addition. The 598 three sources include: 1) C of added glucose (¹⁴C-Glucose), 2) Soil-derived 599 C_{glucoseunamended} and Biochar-derived C_{glucoseunamended}, and 3) the priming effect induced 600 by glucose addition (presented as the right segment of the pie-plot), and contribution 601 of the biochar-C (C4) and soil organic C (C3) to the primed C is shown as stacked 602 603 columns.

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Fig. 5. Schematic overview of biochar induced soil priming effects in biocharamended soils.

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 Table 1: Biochar characterization									
Total C	C/N	C/H	C/O	Ash content	DOC	CEC	pH	Total K	$\delta^{13}C$
 (%)				(%)	$(mg g-^1)$	(c mol/kg)		(mg/g)	
 50.27	30.31	14.70	2.57	20.2	0.600	116.20	10.06	8.60	-14.29
 (3.99) ^a	(0.30)	(0.06)	(0.24)	(0.15)	(0.012)	(5.46)	(0.011)	(0.02)	(0.02)

^a Means ± standard error



Fig. 1. Cumulative CO_2 evolved from soil A with low at 100 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (a) and high concentration of glucose addition at 1000 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (b), and soil B with low (c) and high (d) concentration of glucose addition. Bars indicate standard errors of the means (n=3).



Fig. 2. Contribution of three C sources to cumulative CO_2 evolved from soil A with low at 100 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (a) and high concentration of glucose addition at 1000 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (b), and soil B with low (c) and high (d) concentration of glucose addition. The three sources of CO_2 -C were: 1) Soil derived CO_2 -C (C3-Soil), 2) Biochar derived CO_2 -C (C4-Biochar), and 3) Glucose derived CO_2 -C (¹⁴C). Error bars indicate standard errors of the means (n=3).



Fig. 3 Glucose induced soil priming effects (PE) in unamended (grey bar) and biochar amended soil (black) from soil A with low at 100 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (a) and high concentration of glucose addition at 1000 mg C kg⁻¹ soil (b), and soil B with low (c) and high (d) concentration of glucose addition.. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means (n=3).



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Fig. 5. Schematic overview of biochar induced soil priming effects in biochar amended soils.