

1 **Interaction of pyrolysis conditions and soil texture on biochar mineralization**
2 **and its effect on soil structure.**
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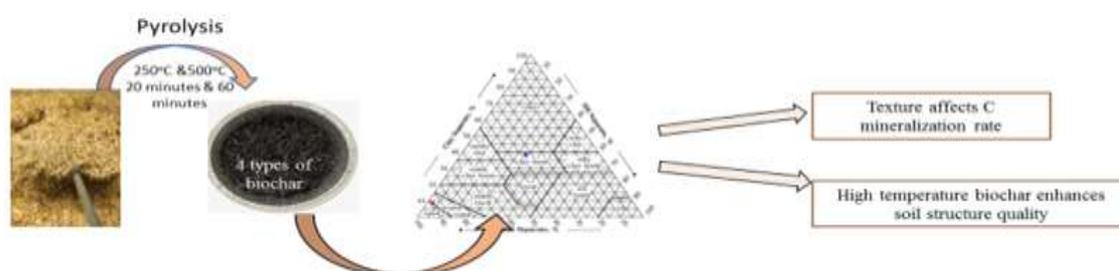
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9 **GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT**



10
11 **ABSTRACT**

12 The effectiveness of biochar as a soil conditioner is depended on the feedstock type and pyrolysis
13 conditions as these two factors determine its physical and chemical properties. Wheat straw was
14 heated at two temperatures: a) 250⁰C and b) 500⁰C for two time periods: i)20 min and ii) 60 min to
15 produce four types of wheat biochar (WB) (WB250/20, WB250/60, WB500/20 and WB500/60) that
16 were added at two different textured soils, a sandy and a loamy one. We studied C mineralization
17 and changes of the structural quality of the two soils. Incomplete carbonization of WB250 resulted
18 in higher C mineralization in both soils. WB250 decomposed more intensely in the sandy soil while
19 decomposition of WB500 was not affected by soil texture or duration of pyrolysis. Biochar addition
20 reduced the cohesiveness of the loamy soil. WB500 enhanced the formation of smaller aggregates
21 while pyrolysis time had no effect. None of the four types of biochar altered the aggregate size

22 distribution of the no cohesive sandy soil. Biochar with longer pyrolysis time enhanced aggregate
23 stability of both soils because of its higher C contents and EC that promote aggregating
24 mechanisms. WB500/60 resulted in reduced clay dispersion in both soils.

25 **Keywords:** wheat straw, biochar, soil texture, C mineralization, aggregation

26

27 **1. Introduction**

28 In recent years, the interest for agricultural use of biochar coming from agricultural and industrial
29 by-products has increased, in an effort to save financial and natural resources (Valili et al., 2013;
30 Oleszczuk et al., 2012; Cruz, 2012). Biochar is produced through pyrolysis of biomass (heating
31 under oxygen-deficiency conditions). The aim is the thermal breakdown of cellulose (240–350°C),
32 semi-cellulose (200–260°C) and lignin (280–500°C) which are all included in the raw material. The
33 composition of the final products depends mainly on the heating rate and the working pressure of
34 the reactor (Yang et al, 2007). The increase of the pyrolysis temperature increases carbon content
35 and the specific surface of the biochar. During pyrolysis, almost 50% of the carbon included in the
36 biomass initial source can be kept in the biochar produced, however, the retrieval percentages
37 depend on the total pyrolysis procedure. The variety of the physical and chemical properties of
38 biochar depends on the raw material, the oxygen availability and the temperatures reached during
39 pyrolysis (Atkinson et al., 2010). According to the International Biochar Initiative (IBI), biochar is a
40 charcoal which can be integrated into the soil for both agricultural and environmental benefits. Its
41 porous structure makes it attractive as an adjuvant for the soil because it increases the water
42 retention and the specific surface of the soil (Manya, 2012). The application of the biochar can lead
43 to C sequestration (Cha et al., 2016) and can enhance soil quality. Biochar can increase microbial
44 biomass C and the activities of enzyme (Karimi et al., 2020), reduce CO₂ emissions (Solaiman and
45 Anawar, 2015). When biochar is added to the soil it increases the recalcitrant pool of C as its
46 mineralization rate is much slower in comparison to fresh organic residues (Novak et al., 2009b).
47 The decomposability of biochar in soil is affected by various factors such as the amount of added

48 biochar, the temperature and the duration of pyrolysis, the duration of decomposition, soil pH,
49 native SOM and clay contents (Han et al., 2021). The indirect benefits that come from the use of
50 after-pyrolysis biomass are the increase of the microbial activity because of the decrease in the
51 soil's toxicity from heavy metals and increase the temporary nutrient and water retention (Zhang et
52 al., 2013; Karami et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2015br). So, biochar can support the structural stability
53 of the soil, intensifying the interaction of the micro-organisms and soil fragments for the formation
54 of aggregates (Quin et al., 2014). Brodowski et al. (2006) observed that biochar in the soil can be
55 connected to the inorganic solid phase to aggregates, which, in turn, protect it from oxidation and
56 decomposition. Biochar in the soil can also increase the stability of the aggregates (Biederman &
57 Harpole, 2013; Lehmann et al., 2006). According to Liu et al. (2014) the wheat straw biochar can
58 increase the soil water-stable aggregates. Also, Du et al. (2017) reported that the addition of biochar
59 importantly improved the formation of solid macro-aggregates in agricultural soils. Long-term
60 biochar amendment improved soil aggregate stability and increased the SOC contents in macro-
61 aggregates (Dong et al., 2016). Xu et al. (2019), reported that biochar can act as a cementing matter,
62 helping microaggregates, silt, and clay components to connect into larger soil aggregates. The
63 biochar increased the formation of macroaggregates (>0.25 mm), especially small macroaggregates
64 (0.25–2 mm), but decreased the number of microaggregates in Mollisols (Sun et al. 2022).
65 Furthermore, Ajayi and Horn (2016) demonstrated that biochar addition improved microstructural
66 stability of a sandy loamy silt by increasing the particle-to-particle bonding and making the soil able
67 to resist fragmentation and dispersion. Hammam et al (2022) observed a decrease of the dispersion
68 ratio of a sandy and a clay loamy soil after biochar addition. On the contrary, Saffari et al. (2022)
69 found that biochar inputs increased clay dispersion of a sandy loam soil and concluded that it was
70 affected only by the pyrolysis temperature of biochar and not the type or the application rate.
71 Besides, the alteration of soil solution by biochar addition influences the concentrations of
72 exchangeable monovalent cations and leads to enhanced dispersibility (Kumari et al., 2017). The
73 aim of this paper was the study of the effect of adding fresh and charred residues of wheat straw

74 (Triticum spp.) on the structural quality of two agricultural soils with different texture. The effect of
75 a) time and temperature of pyrolysis and b) mineralization rate of carbon of the added organic
76 material on aggregate formation, water stability of macroaggregates and clay dispersion were
77 investigated.

78 2. Materials and methods

79 2.1. Soils

80 Two calcareous surface (0-15cm) soils with different texture were collected, a sandy from the
81 region of Pirgos, Peloponnese (χ : 4372737.035 ψ : 4171097.124) and a loamy one from Trikala,
82 Thessaly (χ : 309489.244 ψ : 437237.035). The soil samples were air-dried, grinded and passed
83 through a 2 mm sieve. Some physicochemical properties of the soils are shown in Table 1. Soil
84 texture was determined using the pipette method (Gee & Bauder, 1986). Electrical conductivity
85 (EC) was determined in the saturated soil extract and pH in 1:2.5 soil/water suspension. The soil
86 organic carbon (SOC) was determined by the wet-oxidation method (Walkley & Black, 1934) and
87 CaCO₃ content by the Bernard calcimetry method.

88 **Table 1.** Chemical and physical properties of two soils.

Textural class	Clay %	Silt %	Sand %	pH	CaCO₃ %	EC μS/cm	SOC %
Loam	26	39	35	8.04	9.3	279.00	0.692
Sand	8	2	90	8.39	6.2	166.57	0.377

89

90 2.2. Biochar production

91 Wheat straw (WS) was collected after the harvest and was used as raw feedstock for the biochar.
92 The plant material was cut into <5mm pieces, dried at 70⁰C for 48 hours and stored under dry
93 conditions. For biochar production, dry wheat straw was placed into metallic cylinders, which were
94 sealed with aluminum foil in order to secure conditions of lack of oxygen during pyrolysis. Small
95 holes were created on the foils for the gas combustion products to escape (Khadem & Raiesi, 2017).

96 Wheat straw samples were heated in an electrical furnace at two temperatures: a) 250⁰C and b)
97 500⁰C for two time periods: i) 20 min and ii) 60 min. The rate of temperature increase was 10⁰C
98 /min (slow pyrolysis) and the pyrolysis time (20 and 60 min) refers to the period during which the
99 samples remained in the respective desirable temperature. In this way, four different types of wheat
100 biochar (WB) were produced (WB250/20, WB250/60, WB500/20 and WB500/60). The final
101 products of pyrolysis as well as dried wheat straw were ground to <2 mm and stored in dry
102 conditions. Wheat straw and biochar subsamples were ground in a mill and were used for the
103 determination of some chemical characteristics (Table 2). An elementary analyzer was used for the
104 determination of N and C. EC and pH were determined electrometrically in a 1:10 (WS or
105 WB)/deionized water suspension. The yield of WB was determined as the weight ratio of biochar to
106 the feedstock, used for biochar production.

107 *2.3 Experimental design*

108 A (2 x 6) factorial experiment was organized with 2 repetitions of each treatment. The first factor
109 was soil texture (sandy and loamy) and the second was the type of organic residue addition (WS,
110 the 4 types of WB and a control).

111 0.5 gr of WB or 0.5 gr of WS was added in 50gr soil samples (1% w/w). Soil without any addition,
112 was used as a control (C). The amended soil samples were moisturized at a moisture content equal
113 to 60% of water holding capacity to provide optimal water content and aeration conditions for
114 microbial activity, thoroughly mixed, placed in airtight glass vessels and weighted. The samples
115 were incubated in stable moisture and temperature (20-23⁰C) conditions for two months. Every
116 seven days the soil samples were weighted and water was added to replace water losses during the
117 incubation period. The microbial respiration was determined at days 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 11, 14, 17, 21,
118 24, 28, 35, 45 and 56 by back-titration with HCl according to Rowell (1994) in order to estimate the
119 carbon mineralization of the four types of biochar and wheat straw in the two soils. After the end of
120 the incubation period, the soil samples were air-dried, went through a sieve of 8mm diameter and
121 aggregate size distribution was determined by dry sieving the <8mm aggregates in a series of sieves

122 of 2, 1, 0.5 and 0.25mm diameter. Five aggregate size-classes were separated with mean aggregate
123 diameter of 5, 1.5, 0.750, 0.375 and 0.125 mm. The mean weight-diameter of air-dry aggregates
124 (MWDD), was estimated using the equation: $MWDD = \sum X_i W_i$ where X_i is the arithmetic mean
125 diameter of aggregates, and W_i is the mass of aggregates of the i th size fraction expressed as a
126 percentage of the sample mass (van Bavel, 1949). The wet aggregate stability (WAS) was
127 determined in 2-1 mm aggregates by the modified wet sieving method and with one sieve with
128 diameter of 0.25 mm (Nimmo & Perkins, 2002). The Eijkelkamp single-sieve wet-sieving apparatus
129 (Giesbeek, The Netherlands) was used for the measurement and the time of sieving was 3 min. Any
130 organic particles and biochar were determined as sand >0.25 mm (Burrell et al., 2016).
131 Spontaneously dispersive clay (SDC) was estimated by the light transmission (T) of soil/water
132 suspensions, as a measure of flocculation. 2g of <2 mm soil were placed in polycarbonate tubes of
133 50ml, carefully saturated with deionized water and left to equilibrate for 30 min. Afterwards, 30 ml
134 of water were added, the tubes were capped and turned gently upside-down for three times. Then
135 the tubes were placed upright to allow the soil suspensions to settle for 2h and a 5 ml aliquot was
136 taken with a pipette from 2 cm depth. The settling time and the depth were calculated according to
137 the Stokes' law for clay particles. The aliquot was pipetted into the cuvette of the spectrophotometer
138 and the light transmission was determined at 641 nm wavelength. Deionized water was used as the
139 100% T reference (Thellier & Sposito, 1989). Higher values of T correspond to decreased clay
140 dispersibility.

141 *2.4 Statistical Analysis*

142 Statistical analysis was performed with one-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA). The level of
143 significance of all the statistic tests was $\alpha=0.05$. The comparisons of the means were made through
144 the Least Significant Difference test (LSD)

145 **3. Results and Discussion**

146 *3.1 Physicochemical characteristics of fresh and charred wheat straw*

147 The wheat straw which is used as feedstock for biochar preparation is one agricultural waste rich in
 148 C and slightly acidic (Table 2) which is composed mainly of cellulose (35%–40%), hemicelluloses
 149 (30%–35%), and lignin (10%–15%) (Tufail et al., 2020). The yield of the produced biochar varied
 150 between 74.67% for WB250/20 and 34.16% for WB500/60 (Table 2). The high yield of WB250/20
 151 indicates that for low temperature and duration of pyrolysis feedstock carbonization is incomplete.
 152 Zhang et al. (2015) found that at 200 °C, wheat straw lost little mass, even after 4 h, and suggest
 153 that limited pyrolysis occurs at this temperature. Also, Zhou et al. (2021) reported that at lower
 154 pyrolysis temperatures, the yield of biochar was increased due to the partial pyrolysis of the
 155 feedstock. The increase of time of residence of low temperature pyrolysis resulted in a significant
 156 decrease in the yield of WB250/60. When temperature was raised from 250 to 500 °C a further
 157 significant decrease in yield was observed but the heating duration had no effect in the yield of
 158 biochar at this temperature (Table 2). The decrease in the yield of WB with the rise of temperature
 159 is due to dehydration and thermal degradation of cellulose and lignin structure and the loss of
 160 volatiles (Chandra & Bhattacharya, 2019).

161 **Table 2.** Chemical properties of fresh wheat straw (WS) and the produced 4 types of wheat straw
 162 biochar (WB)

	N %	C %	Yield %	pH	EC µS/cm
WS	0.70a	45.00a	–	6.45c	1673a
WB250/20	0.75ab	46.62a	74.67c	6.18a	1697a
WB250/60	0.84bc	52.71b	48.36b	6.33b	2244b
WB500/20	0.91c	53.07b	36.73a	8.53e	3280c
WB500/60	1.05d	57.45c	34.16a	7.96d	3460d

163 Treatments followed by different letter differ significantly at a level $\alpha=0.05$

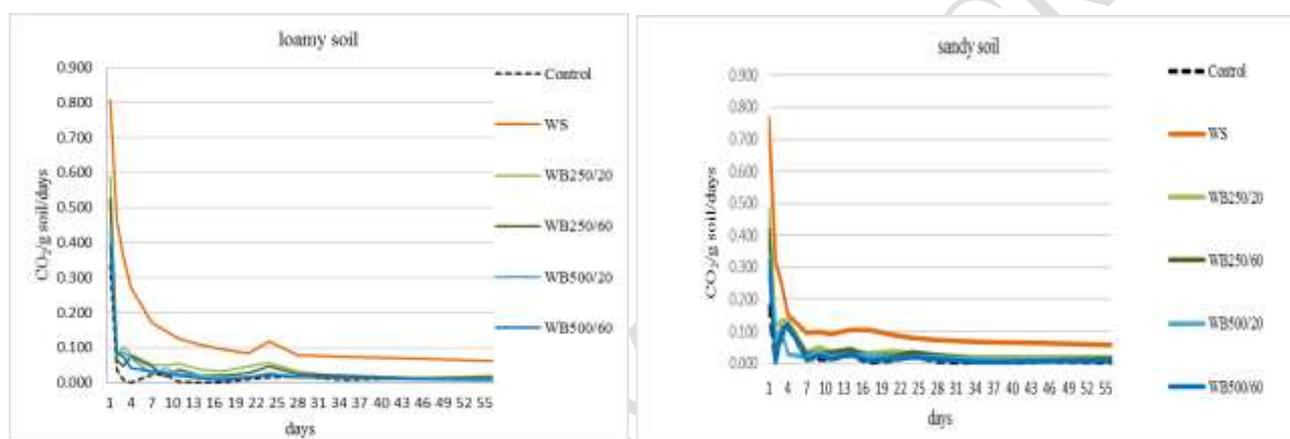
164 Elemental analysis showed that C and N content increased with the increase of temperature and
 165 duration of pyrolysis (Table 2). No difference was observed between WS and WB250/20 for both
 166 elements. This is linked with the high yield of WB250/20 and supports the indication of incomplete
 167 carbonization. As pyrolysis duration increased from 20 min to 60 min, carbon content increased by

168 13.06% at 250⁰C and by 8.25% at 500⁰C while nitrogen content increased by 12.00% and 15.38%
169 respectively. Carbon increase with temperature rise is attributed to the removal of volatile
170 compounds and the development of aromatic C structures (Novak et al., 2009a). Carbon increase
171 with pyrolysis time according to Chandra and Bhattacharya (2019) is due to the increase in the rate
172 of loss of long chain aliphatic groups. A N enrichment relative to the original feedstock upon
173 pyrolysis in C-rich material has been reported elsewhere and was attributed to the incorporation of
174 N into complex structures that were resistant to heating and not easily volatilized (Li et al., 2022;
175 Calvelo Pereira et al., 2011). The pH of both WB produced at 250 ⁰C was acidic and showed a
176 slight but significant reduction in relation to the feedstock. The increase of the pyrolysis
177 temperature to 500⁰C resulted in alkaline pH values of the produced biochar (Table 2). According to
178 Zhang et al. (2015), the cellulose and hemicelluloses decompose around 180–250⁰C, producing
179 organic acids and phenolic substances that lowered the pH of the biochar produced at 250⁰C. The
180 pH increase of the biochar with temperature rise is mainly due to the fact that the organic functional
181 groups such as –COOH and –OH decreased with increasing pyrolysis temperature and to the
182 carbonates formation above 400⁰C. The EC of the biochar increased with both the pyrolysis
183 temperature and time (Table 2). No difference was observed between WS and WB250/20,
184 indicating incomplete carbonization. The increase of biochar EC with temperature is attributed to
185 the loss of volatiles from the biomass during carbonization, resulting in the accumulation of
186 nutrients in the inert ash fraction (Chandra & Bhattacharya, 2019) and the increase of the solubility
187 of salts and metals (Li et al., 2022). Chandra and Bhattacharya (2019) associated the EC increase
188 with the pyrolysis time to the ionic energization of elements present in the ash fraction.

189 *3.2 Carbon mineralization*

190 The carbon dioxide release rate for the various treatments during the 56 days of incubation is shown
191 in Figure 1. The CO₂ released by the control and which is due to the mineralization of the organic
192 matter of the soil has been subtracted, so that the values should be representative of the
193 mineralization of C of the added wheat straw and biochar. As expected, the wheat straw presented a

194 much higher C mineralization rate compared to the treatments with biochar, in both soils as straw C
 195 content is more labile than that of biochar. C mineralization rate of the biochar at the beginning of
 196 the incubation followed the order 250/20 > 250/60 > 500/20 >= 500/60, with the effect of pyrolysis
 197 temperature being bigger than that of the pyrolysis time (Fig.1). Khadem and Raiesi, (2017)
 198 reported that C mineralization rate was significantly affected by pyrolysis temperature and soil type.
 199 High biochar C mineralization rate at the early stage of incubation and decrease of biochar C
 200 mineralization rate with the increase of pyrolysis temperature indicates an increased labile C
 201 content of the low pyrolysis biochar (Peng et al., 2011).



202
 203 **Figure 1.** Carbon dioxide release rate during the 56-day incubation in both soils
 204

205 The carbon mineralization for the uncharred wheat and the four biochar types took place in two
 206 phases, a rapid one in the beginning of the incubation, followed by a much slower with a stable rate,
 207 indicative of the depletion of easily degradable C pools. For all the organic materials, the maximum
 208 of mineralization was observed in the first day for both soils with the highest rate values determined
 209 in the sandy one. But, from the very second day and for the rest of the incubation period, the
 210 mineralization rate of all materials was higher in the loamy soil (Fig.1). This indicates that all 4
 211 types of the wheat biochar comprise some labile C compounds and that low temperature biochar is
 212 richer in these compounds due to incomplete carbonization. Mukherjee et al. (2016) reported that C
 213 mineralization after biochar addition shows an initial flush as biochar comprises a small labile C

214 pool with short turnover times (6 to 60 days) whereby 2 to 20% of the biochar C can be
 215 mineralized.

216 The decomposition (%) of the WS and WB in both soils, as it was calculated from the cumulative
 217 amount of CO₂-C released after 56 days minus the CO₂-C released by the control and the amount of
 218 organic C added (Wagner and Wolf, 1999) is shown in Table 3. In both soils, wheat biochar
 219 decomposed significantly slower (9.03 – 2.89%) compared to wheat straw (29.06 – 23.55%).

220

221 **Table 3.** Decomposition (%) of raw (WS) and charred (WB) wheat straw at the end of the
 222 incubation period.

	WS	WB250/20	WB250/60	WB500/20	WB500/60
	C decomposed (% of added C)				
Loamy soil	29.06 bC	7.03 aB	3.94 aAB	2.79 aA	2.89 aA
Sandy soil	23.55 aD	9.03 bC	5.79 bB	2.56 aA	2.52 aA

223 Significant difference between the two soils (lowercase letters) and for each soil among treatments
 224 (uppercase letters)

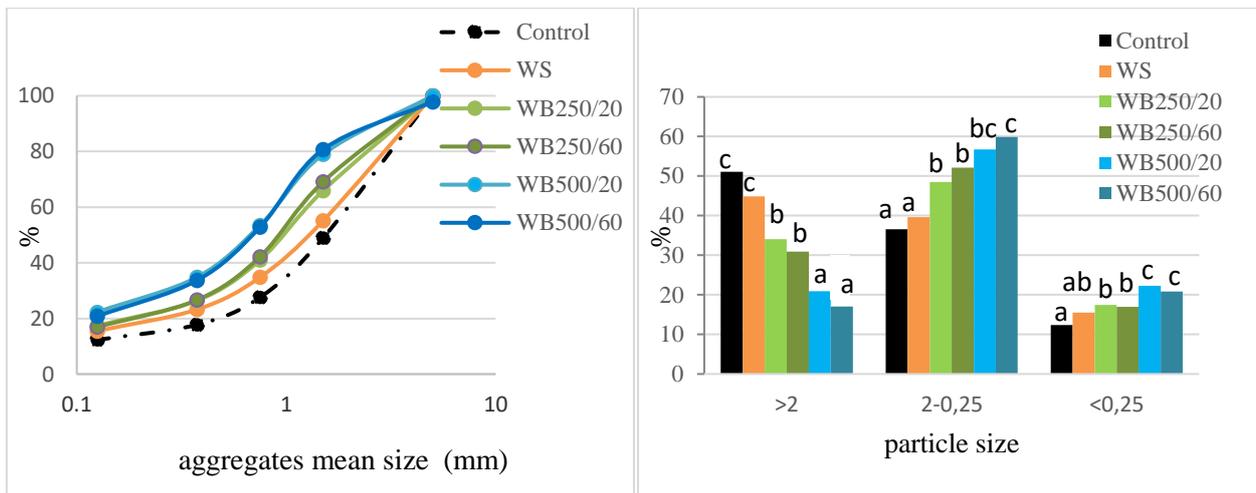
225 Similar percentages of biochar decomposition in comparison to the non-carbonated organic material
 226 (woodchips) are reported by Mukherjee et al. (2016), and the difference was attributed to the hardly
 227 degradable nature of biochar and its ability to be stabilized in soils in a short time. The
 228 decomposition of the biochar was affected by the pyrolysis temperature as higher temperatures
 229 resulted in lower decomposition. Pyrolysis duration affected only low temperature biochar
 230 decomposition. Among the treatments with biochar, the one with the lower pyrolysis temperature
 231 and time (WB250/20) is decomposed more intensely in both soils (Table 3). According to Hale et
 232 al., (2012) and Spokas et al., (2011) the high pyrolysis temperature plays an important role in the
 233 biochar structure as complex polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons are created, which most probably
 234 have a toxic effect on the micro-organisms which decompose carbon. Soil texture affected
 235 decomposition of raw WS and of WB250. WS decomposed more intensely in the loamy soil while
 236 decomposition of the low-temperature biochar was significantly higher in the sandy soil. Khadem

237 and Raiesi (2017) observed that microbial respiration was greater to low temperature biochar
238 application in sandy soils in comparison to clayey soils and attributed the increased microbial
239 activity to the labile C in this biochar. Decomposition of the high pyrolysis temperature biochar was
240 not affected by soil texture.

241 3.3 Soil structural quality

242 3.3.1 Aggregate size distribution (ASD)

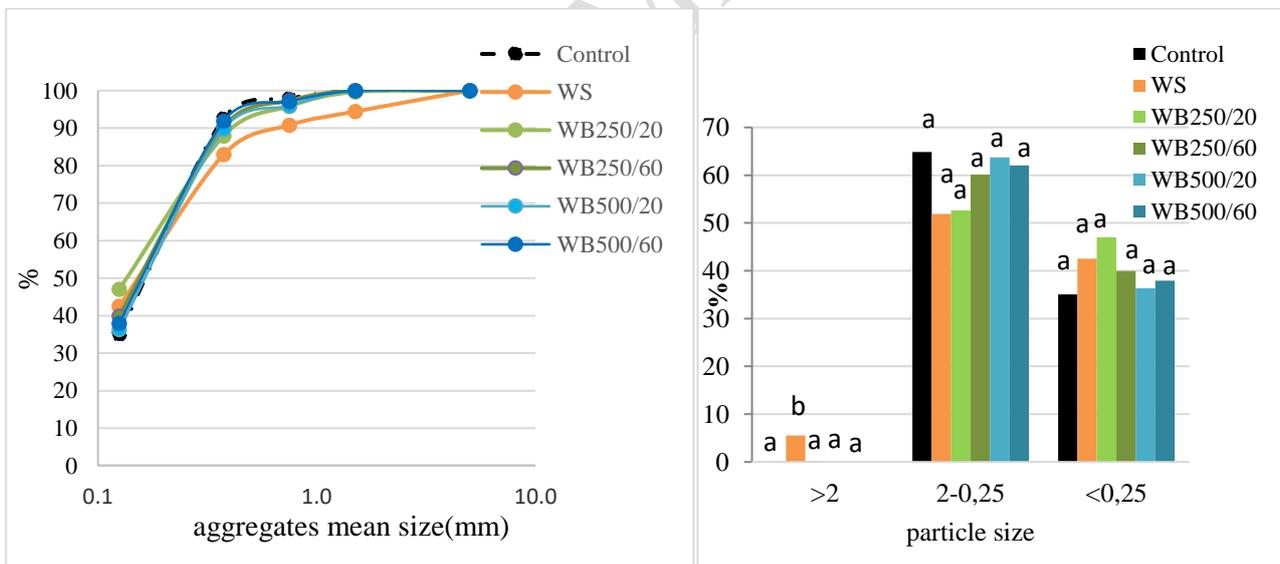
243 The cumulative aggregate size distribution and the change of the large (8-2mm) and small (2-
244 0.25mm) macro-aggregates and of the micro-aggregates (<0.25mm) of the two soils for the
245 different treatments is shown in Figures 2a and 2b. In the loamy soil (Fig 2a) ASD change followed
246 the order: C=WS < WB250/20 = WB250/60 < WB500/20 = WB500/60. In relation to the control,
247 WS addition had no significant effect on ASD while after WB additions, the percentages of the
248 large macro-aggregates decreased significantly (Fig. 2b) and those of the smaller macro-aggregates
249 and of the micro-aggregates increased significantly. It was observed that the biochar produced in
250 higher pyrolysis temperature affected more intensely the ASD, but pyrolysis time had no significant
251 effect. ASD change indicated that WB addition reduced cohesion of the loamy soil, with the effect
252 of WB500 being the most prominent. Zong et al. (2014) found that 6% (w/w) WB addition,
253 produced at 500 °C, reduced the mechanical strength of a clayey soil and attributed this to the
254 dilution effect of dense soil matrix with the highly porous and less dense biochar. Also, Blanco-
255 Canqui (2017) reported that the addition of biochar to the soil weakens the inter-particle bonds and
256 reduces the cohesiveness of the soil.



257

258 **Figure 2a.** Cumulative Particle Size Distribution and percentage change of the large (8-2mm) and
 259 small (2-1, 1-0.5 and 0.5-0.25mm) macro-aggregates and of the micro-aggregates (<0.25mm) of the
 260 loamy soil under various treatments

261 The sandy soil had no large macro-aggregates (Fig.2b). Only WS addition had an aggregating effect
 262 that resulted in the formation of large macro-aggregates. On the contrary, none of the four types of
 263 biochar affected significantly the ASD of this no cohesive soil.



264

265 **Figure 2b.** Cumulative Particle Size Distribution and percentage change of the large (8-2mm) and
 266 small (2-1, 1-0.5 and 0.5-0.25mm) macro-aggregates and of the micro-aggregates (<0.25mm) of the
 267 sandy soil under various treatments.

268

269 *3.3.2 Water aggregate stability*

270 In general, all the treatments improved the WAS of the soils compared to the respective control
 271 (Table 4) As it was expected, the highest increase was observed with the addition of wheat straw in
 272 both soils as increases in SOC after the incorporation of organic residues enhance aggregate
 273 stability (Six et al., 2004).

274 In the loam soil the increase was significant only for the two biochar with the longer pyrolysis
 275 time. Pyrolysis temperature also affected WAS as WB250 was more prominent than WB500 in the
 276 improvement of WAS of this soil, but differences were not significant. On the contrary, in the sandy
 277 soil all biochar treatments significantly increased WAS. For this soil also, biochar with longer
 278 pyrolysis time resulted in higher aggregate stability values. Islam et al. (2021), in a meta-analysis
 279 report that biochar addition improved aggregate stability regardless of biochar/experimental/soil

280 **Table 4.** Water aggregate stability and clay dispersion of fresh wheat straw (WS) and the produced
 281 4 types of wheat straw biochar (WB)

	loamy soil		sandy soil	
	T%	WAS %	T%	WAS %
WS	25.3b	75.37d	59.3d	68.77d
WB250/20	19.4a	42.86ab	33.45a	37.43b
WB250/60	18.5a	61.20c	39.35b	42.07b
WB500/20	27.55b	37.11a	49.45c	38.46b
WB500/60	28.45c	51.26bc	58.12d	48.63
Control	17.2a	35.71a	34.15	25.56a

282
 283 conditions. According to Blanco-Canqui, (2017), the positive effect of biochar application on
 284 WAS can vary with soil texture and biochar type. Significant increases in WSA after biochar
 285 addition in relation to the control were found by Hammam et al. (2022) for a clayey loam soil and a
 286 sandy soil and were attributed to the fact that biochar provides an organic binding agent. According
 287 to our results, biochar with longer pyrolysis time had higher C content (Table 3). Burrell et al.

288 (2016) consider that biochar, due to its high EC results in increased electrolyte concentration that
289 promotes flocculation and make more efficient other aggregation mechanisms as organic matter that
290 sustain WAS. This was observed and in our research as biochar with longer pyrolysis time had
291 higher EC (Table 2) and was more effective in stabilizing the 2-1 mm macro-aggregates structure of
292 both soils.

293 *3.2.3 Clay dispersion*

294 WS and WB500 addition resulted in a significant decrease of clay dispersion in both soils. High
295 temperature pyrolysis biochar with longer pyrolysis time resulted in reduced clay dispersion. On the
296 contrary, biochar produced at lower temperature had no effect on clay dispersion of the loamy soil
297 while only WB250/60 decreased clay dispersibility of the sandy soil (Table 4). High temperature
298 biochar has a high specific surface with negative charges, which enable cation bridges with clay
299 particles (Usman 2015), increase interparticle bonding and form aggregates which are highly
300 resistant to slaking (Ajayi and Horn, 2016). Another possible mechanism is that reported by Hu et
301 al. (2021) that biochar addition reduces net repulsive forces between soil particles.

302 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

303 Pyrolysis temperature affected the decomposition rate of the wheat biochar as lower
304 temperatures resulted in higher decomposition in both soils, due to incomplete carbonization.
305 Pyrolysis duration affected negatively only low temperature biochar decomposition. Decomposition
306 of the low-temperature biochar was significantly higher in the sandy soil in comparison to the
307 loamy one. Decomposition of the high pyrolysis temperature biochar was not affected by soil
308 texture or by the duration of pyrolysis. Biochar addition reduced the cohesiveness of the loamy soil,
309 decreased the percentage of large macro-aggregates and turned ASD to values more favorable for
310 plant growth. Biochar produced in higher pyrolysis temperature enhanced the formation of smaller
311 aggregates while pyrolysis time had no effect. On the contrary, none of the four types of biochar
312 altered the ASD of the no cohesive sandy soil. Biochar with longer pyrolysis time resulted in higher
313 aggregate stability values for both soils because of its higher C contents and EC that promote

314 flocculation and other aggregating mechanisms. Higher pyrolysis temperature promoted WAS only
315 for the sandy soil. High pyrolysis temperature and duration biochar resulted in reduced clay
316 dispersion in both soils while biochar produced at lower temperature had no effect on clay
317 dispersibility. Biochar produced at higher temperature (500°C) was more efficient in mitigating
318 greenhouse gas emission into the environment as it mineralized slower than biochar pyrolyzed at
319 lower temperature (250°C) and simultaneously, most of the times it affected in a positive way the
320 structural quality of the two different textured soils.

321

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322

Figure captions

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337 Table 3: Decomposition (%) of raw (WS) and charred (WB) wheat straw at the end of the
338 incubation period. 10
339 Table 4:Water aggregate stability and clay dispersion of fresh wheat straw (WS) and the produced 4
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