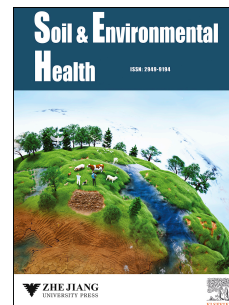


Journal Pre-proof

Stabilizing organic matter and reducing methane emissions in composting with biochar to strengthen the role of compost in soil health

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PII: S2949-9194(25)00037-8

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seh.2025.100164>

Reference: SEH 100164

To appear in: *Soil & Environmental Health*

Received Date: 24 February 2025

Revised Date: 26 June 2025

Accepted Date: 26 June 2025

Please cite this article as: Jindo, K., Sonoki, T., Sánchez-Monedero, M.A., Stabilizing organic matter and reducing methane emissions in composting with biochar to strengthen the role of compost in soil health, *Soil & Environmental Health*, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seh.2025.100164>.

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1 **Title:** Stabilizing organic matter and reducing methane emissions in composting with biochar to
2 strengthen the role of compost in soil health

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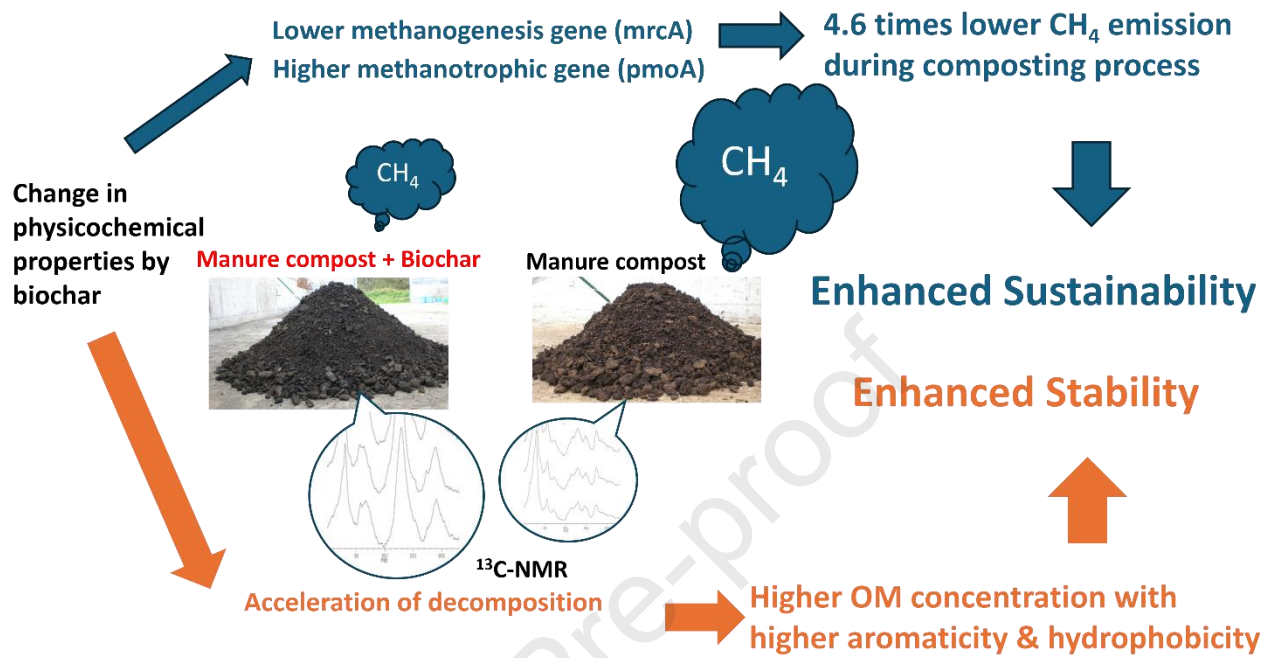
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11

12 **Graphical Abstract**



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14

15

16 **Highlights**

- 17 • Biochar reduced methane emission 4.6-fold in poultry and 3.7-fold in cattle composts.
- 18 • Lignin degradation and stability were enhanced with biochar amendment.
- 19 • Biochar improved compost quality and carbon transformation for soil health.

Journal Pre-proof

20 **Abstract:** Biochar is a promising additive for enhancing composting efficiency and long-term
21 compost quality. This study investigated its effects on greenhouse gas emissions and organic matter
22 stabilization during the composting of poultry (PM) and cattle manure (CM). Biochar addition
23 significantly reduced methane emissions during the thermophilic phase—by 4.6-fold in PM amended
24 with biochar and 3.7-fold in CM amended with biochar compared to PM and CM without biochar
25 amendment, respectively—indicating improved aeration and microbial activity, as supported by higher
26 CO₂ emissions. A novel aspect of this study is the focus on lignin, a recalcitrant carbon fraction.
27 Biochar-amended composts showed 1.5-fold greater lignin degradation (29.0% in PM+B and 10.8% in
28 CM+B) than controls, along with enhanced lignin stability, as evidenced by Nuclear Magnetic
29 Resonance (NMR) spectroscopy and thermal analysis. We assessed labile carbon fractions (e.g.,
30 water-soluble carbon, carbohydrates), ATP, and enzymes involved in carbon and nutrient cycling. PM
31 and CM retained more labile carbon through the final stage, showing higher ATP, dehydrogenase, and
32 β -glucosidase than their biochar-treated counterparts. Redundancy analysis (RDA) indicated that
33 microbial communities and structural traits influenced gas emissions during the thermophilic stage and
34 compost stabilization at the final stage. CH₄ emissions were associated with *mcrA*, fungi, and total
35 nitrogen (TN), while CO₂ correlated with bulk density and Gram-negative bacteria. In the final stage,
36 maturity indices were linked with microbial and physicochemical variables, underscoring their
37 combined role in compost stabilization. Biochar amendment enhanced compost quality by reducing
38 CH₄ emission and promoting selective carbon transformation, particularly lignin. These findings
39 support biochar-composting as a strategy for producing composts with improved agronomic and
40 environmental value.

41 **Keywords:** Lignin; Enzymatic Activities; Humification; Poultry manure; Cattle manure; ¹³C-NMR;
42 Methanogens; C cycle.

43

44

45 **List of Abbreviations**

Full name	Abbreviation
Bulk density	BD
Carbon dioxide	CO ₂
Carbon-13 Nuclear Magnetic Resonance	¹³ C NMR
Cattle manure	CM
Cattle manure with biochar	CM+B
Fulvic acid	FA
Humic acid	HA
Humification index	HI
Methane	CH ₄
Particulate methane monooxygenase gene (<i>pmoA</i>)	<i>pmoA</i>
Methyl-coenzyme M reductase	<i>mcrA</i>
Organic matter	OM
Phospholipid-derived fatty acids	PLFA
Polymerization degree	PZ
Poultry manure	PM
Poultry manure with biochar	PM+B
Redundancy analysis	RDA
Thermogravimetric analysis	TGA
Total nitrogen	TN
Water-soluble carbon: Organic nitrogen ratio	Cw/N _{org}

46

47

48 **Introduction**

49 Maintaining soil health is paramount in climate change, as healthy soil ecosystems play a
50 pivotal role in carbon sequestration, thereby mitigating greenhouse gas emissions and the
51 consequences of a changing climate. Compost offers multiple benefits to soil health by enriching
52 organic matter, enhancing microbial activity, supplying essential nutrients, and improving physical
53 properties (Cao et al., 2023). Moreover, the synergistic application of biochar and compost offers
54 additional advantages, including reducing greenhouse gas emissions and promoting more stable
55 carbon sequestration (Khan et al., 2023). Additionally, the increased organic matter (OM) content
56 resulting from biochar addition to composting or after soil amendment could trigger a negative
57 priming effect that reduces organic carbon (OC) mineralization (Wang et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2023).

58 Proper aeration and pile structure are essential for optimizing the composting process and
59 preventing anaerobic conditions, which can result in incomplete decomposition of organic matter and
60 lower compost quality. Under anaerobic conditions, methanogenic archaea become active, producing
61 methane (CH₄) by reducing carbon compounds such as CO₂ and acetate due to the lack of oxygen
62 (Fang et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2023; Zhai et al., 2025). One key advantage of incorporating biochar into
63 composting is its high porosity, facilitating improved aeration within composting piles. The use of
64 biochar as a bulking agent creates air spaces within the compost pile, promoting favorable conditions
65 for microorganisms involved in organic matter degradation, stabilization, nutrient cycling and
66 mitigation of CH₄ emission (Sanchez-Monedero et al., 2018).

67 Adding biochar enhances microbial activity, enabling even the more recalcitrant
68 lignocellulosic components of organic material to break down more rapidly. This becomes especially
69 important when combining raw materials with poor physical properties for composting. Moreover,
70 previous research (Jindo et al., 2012) has shown that incorporating biochar reduces the bulk density of
71 the composting pile, indicating increased porosity and improved airflow within the pile.

72 Biochar also offers prolonged stability compared to conventional materials such as woodchips.
73 Although previous studies assessed its stability characteristics through thermogravimetry (Jindo et al.,
74 2014), the extent of degradation of lignin, considered a recalcitrant carbon with aromatic structure
75 during the composting process, remains relatively unexplored (Yu et al., 2019). Since a more
76 recalcitrant and stable carbon plays a key role in soil health, it is worthwhile to investigate the
77 longevity of the lignin carbon content of the organic materials from compost before amending to the
78 soil. Although a number of studies report on the acceleration of the degradation of organic matter
79 during composting by biochar addition (Pivato et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023), there is little known
80 about the relationship between the lignin degradation and biochar in the compost. A novelty of this
81 study is the focus on lignin, a relatively recalcitrant carbon fraction.

82 Recently, various approaches have been developed to enhance lignin degradation in
83 composted organic waste, including the inoculation of lignocellulose-degrading microorganisms and
84 the use of activated persulfate (Ji et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2023; Zhai et al., 2025).
85 However, there is growing concern that such microbial inoculation may accelerate the metabolism of
86 organic matter, leading to excessive CO₂ release. This could deplete oxygen levels, create anaerobic
87 conditions, and consequently promote CH₄ emissions during composting (Yu et al., 2023). Our study
88 aims to assess if biochar addition is a strong approach for lignin degradation and mitigation of CH₄.

89 Building upon our previous works (Jindo et al., 2016; Jindo et al., 2012; Sonoki et al., 2013),
90 which focused on various aspects of carbon cycling in biochar-enriched composts, including organic
91 matter degradation, humification, and CH₄ emissions, this study delves deeper into the carbon stability
92 in biochar-enhanced composts. Sonoki et al. (2013) revealed that the proportion of *mcrA* was
93 decreased with biochar addition, whereas *pmoA* was increased during the early stages of composting.
94 This is important since mitigating CH₄ emissions during composting promotes more efficient aerobic
95 composting, leading to a final product with higher organic matter stability and nutrient availability.
96 While other additive products are promoted, such as membrane for mitigation of CH₄ (Fang et al.,
97 2022; Yu et al., 2023; Zhai et al., 2025), biochar does not only mitigate GHG reduction but also

98 provides other multiple benefits for final products, such as enhancement of physicochemical properties
99 (e.g. water retention, bulk density, carbon storage). When added to soil, this improved compost
100 enhances long-term soil structure, microbial activity, and carbon sequestration, benefiting soil health
101 over time (Khan et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2016; Yuan et al., 2017).

102 This study aims to comprehensively examine the effects of biochar addition on the quality and
103 stability of organic matter in mature compost to produce a high-quality amendment that supports long-
104 term soil health. First, we assessed the effect of biochar addition on methane emissions as an indirect
105 indicator of composting efficiency. Then, we examined how biochar addition influences the
106 stabilization of recalcitrant carbon, focusing on changes in lignin content throughout the composting
107 process. We hypothesize that hardwood biochar produced at 550 °C may influence lignin
108 decomposition during composting. Additionally, we examined whether biochar itself partially
109 degrades, with oxidized fractions potentially integrating into the lignin pool and contributing to humic
110 substance formation. These processes may enhance humification, as seen in our previous work (Jindo
111 et al., 2015) and result in a more stable compost end product. Later, we assessed other more labile
112 carbon fractions (e.g. soluble organic C and carbohydrate) and microbial activity indicators linked to
113 nutrient cycles. Lastly, redundancy analysis (RDA) was employed to provide a comprehensive
114 understanding of the effects of biochar addition in the composting process, focusing on CH₄ emission
115 reduction and the stability of the composted material.

116

117 **Material and Methods**

118 *Biochar material*

119 Hardwood biochar was generated from *Quercus serrata*, a broad-leaved tree, using a traditional
120 Japanese kiln. The biochar underwent a slow pyrolysis process at 550 °C under atmospheric pressure.
121 To assess the biochar's properties, it was ground and sieved until its diameter measured less than 0.5
122 mm. The resulting biochar exhibited the following key attributes: a pH level of 7.23, a carbon content

123 of 791 g kg⁻¹, an oxygen content of 91.5 g kg⁻¹, a nitrogen content of 37.6 g kg⁻¹, a hydrogen content
124 of 18.9 g kg⁻¹, a potassium content of 14.1 g kg⁻¹, and a phosphorus content of 2.3 g kg⁻¹. The
125 biochar's physical characteristics included an extensive surface area measuring 255 m². The absorption
126 capacity for methylene blue, measured for microporosity, is 8.3 mg g⁻¹, while the iodine adsorption
127 capacity, considered as a mesoporosity of biochar material, is 100 mg g⁻¹. While the Cross-
128 polarization magic angle spinning (CPMAS) ¹³C nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) was applied to
129 identify different carbon groups in the biochar (Supplemental Information Fig. 1.), thermogravimetric
130 analysis (TGA) was used to assess the thermal stability of the biochar (Supplemental Information Fig.
131 2). In NMR, the dominant peak around 130 ppm indicates a high abundance of aromatic carbon
132 structures, while smaller peaks near 170–190 ppm suggest the presence of carboxylic and carbonyl
133 group. A faint signal below 60 ppm may reflect residual aliphatic or O-alkyl carbons, representing
134 relatively more degradable organic fractions. The TGA profile of hardwood biochar produced at
135 550 °C showed minimal weight loss (1.7%) below 300 °C due to moisture and light volatiles, followed
136 by a major decomposition event between 300–550 °C (89.4% weight loss) attributed to the oxidation
137 of amorphous and semi-aromatic carbon structures, with a peak heat flow observed at ~450 °C. The
138 residual mass (7.8%) above 550 °C likely corresponds to thermally stable inorganic ash and condensed
139 aromatic carbon.

140 Composting was conducted at Hirosaki University's Kanagi experimental farm throughout the
141 summer and autumn seasons. Two mixtures, each comprising CM and PM (totalling 100.9 kg), were
142 formulated by combining apple pomace (76.8 kg), rice straw (9.7 kg), and rice bran (12.7 kg). An
143 additional 20 kg of biochar was introduced into each mixture (CM+B and PM+B). Control treatments
144 were also prepared, consisting of composting mixtures without biochar addition (CM and PM). No
145 microbial inoculums were applied to support the composting. The organic waste mixtures were shaped
146 into cone-shaped windrows, each with a volume of 0.7065 m³. To promote aeration and ensure
147 uniformity within the organic materials, the mixtures were turned twice weekly during the initial week
148 and once weekly from the second week onwards. Temperature measurements for each pile were

149 continuously recorded using a thermo-recorder from T&D Co., Ltd., Nagano, Japan (Supplemental
150 Information Fig. 3). All compost piles exhibited a typical temperature profile, rising from an initial
151 31–33 °C to thermophilic conditions (>55 °C) within the first few days and maintaining this phase for
152 approximately 20–25 days. A gradual temperature decline toward ambient levels followed this.
153 Biochar addition led to a more rapid rise in temperature (see Supplementary Information). The
154 moisture content of the material was maintained at approximately 60% by adding water. The
155 composting process spanned approximately three months for each pile. Multiple subsamples were
156 collected from different locations within each composting pile and then thoroughly mixed to create a
157 homogeneous composite sample for analysis. Representative samples of the organic material were
158 collected at several distinct stages of the composting process: From the initial mixture during the
159 thermophilic phase, during the 1st week (T1) and the 2nd week of composting (T2), During the mid-and
160 end-stage of the thermophilic phase after the 3rd and 4th weeks (T3 and T4, respectively); During
161 mesophilic stage after six weeks (T5); and The end of mature stage after 12 weeks (T6, respectively).
162 These samples were composited from randomly selected subsamples taken from five different
163 locations within the piles, spanning from top to bottom. Subsequently, they were air-dried and ground
164 to a particle size of 0.5 mm to ensure material homogeneity.

165 *Emission of methane (CH₄) and carbon dioxide (CO₂)*

166 CH₄ flux measurements were conducted at 7-day intervals, commencing on day 21, using the static
167 chamber method with a 13-litre polycarbonate chamber equipped with a gas sampling port. A 250 mL
168 gas sample was extracted into a Tedlar® bag at three-time points: 0, 10, and 20 minutes after closing
169 the chamber. CH₄ and CO₂ content were determined using gas chromatography (Agilent Inc., CA,
170 USA, 7890A valve system) with two types of columns: Pora pack Q (Agilent Inc.) and MS-5A
171 (Agilent Inc.). The gases were separated in the columns and guided to a flame ionization detector
172 (FID), via a nickel catalyst in which CO₂ was reduced to CH₄, to quantify CH₄ and CO₂. The column
173 oven temperature was maintained at 50°C, and Argon (Ar) was used as the carrier gas with a flow rate

174 of 3.5 mL/min. The FID was operated at temperature of 250°C. Samples were collected at three time
175 points, although one was excluded due to unsuccessful measurement.

176

177 *Easy-degradable carbon group*

178 Total dissolved organic carbon was determined in a 1:10 extract with a liquid sample TOC
179 analyzer (Shimadzu 5050A, Kyoto, Japan). Additionally, water-soluble carbohydrates were quantified
180 using the anthrone method (Brink et al., 1960) in the same extract, and water-soluble phenols were
181 measured using a modified version of the Folin method (Kuwatsuka and Shindo, 1973). Those
182 measurements were taken three times.

183

184 *Recalcitrant carbon assessment*

185 Lignin was determined by the American National Standards methodology (ANSI/ASTM,
186 1977). The Klason Lignin method is the most commonly used technique for lignin analysis. In this
187 method, Klason lignin refers to the residue obtained after the total acid hydrolysis of the carbohydrate
188 portion of wood. Treatment with sulfuric acid hydrolyzes polysaccharides into water-soluble sugars,
189 leaving lignin as an insoluble residue. The process begins by extracting lignocellulose with a mixture
190 of benzene and ethanol. Then, 72% concentrated sulfuric acid is added, and the reaction is carried out
191 at 30°C for 4 hours. Afterwards, the sulfuric acid is diluted to 3%, and the mixture is refluxed for an
192 additional 2 hours. Finally, the insoluble residue is collected and weighed as lignin. The lignin content
193 measurement was duplicated. The losses of lignin were calculated according to the equation originally
194 used for the losses of the whole OM (Paredes et al., 2000): $\text{Lignin-loss (\%)} = 100 - 100 [(X1\text{Lignin2}) /$
195 $(X2\text{Lignin1})]$; where X1 and X2 are the initial and final ash concentrations, and lignin1 and lignin2
196 are the initial and final lignin concentrations. To identify the different carbon groups, ^{13}C NMR spectra
197 were used. ^{13}C -NMR spectra were acquired on the solid samples with a Varian 300 spectrometer
198 (Varian Inc, CA, US) equipped with a 4-mm wide-bore MAS probe operating at a ^{13}C resonance

199 frequency of 75.47 MHz. The spectra were analyzed by dividing the chemical shift (ppm) resonance
200 range into distinct intervals as follows: 0–46 ppm (encompassing alkyl C, predominantly CH₂ and CH₃
201 sp³ carbons), 46–65 ppm (including methoxy and N alkyl C originating from OCH₃, and complex
202 aliphatic carbons), 65–90 ppm (comprising O-alkyl C, such as alcohols and ethers), 90–108 ppm
203 (corresponding to anomeric carbons found in carbohydrate-like structures), 108–160 ppm
204 (representing aromatic carbons), 160–185 ppm (covering carboxyl, amides, and esters), and 185–225
205 ppm (encompassing carbonyls). The aromatic index values were determined following the methods
206 outlined by other works (Palanivell et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014), using the formula: aromaticity
207 index (AI) = (aromatic C) / (alkyl C + N-alkyl C + O-alkyl C + aromatic C) × 100. Similarly, the
208 hydrophobicity index was calculated based on previous studies (Canellas et al., 2012; Spaccini et al.,
209 2002) as Hydrophobic C/Hydrophilic C = (alkyl C + aromatic C) / (N-alkyl C + O-alkyl C + anomeric
210 C + carboxyl, amides, ester).

211

212 *Biochemical and enzymatic assessment*

213 Adenosine triphosphate (ATP) was extracted according to the procedure outlined by Webster
214 et al. (1984) and quantified using the luciferin-luciferase assay in a luminometer (Optocom 1, MM
215 Instruments, Inc.). Dehydrogenase activity was determined by reducing 2-p-iodophenyl-3-p-
216 nitrophenyl-5-phenyltetrazolium chloride (INT) to iodonitrophenyl-formazan (INTF), and its
217 absorbance was measured at 490 nm using a spectrophotometer, following the method in previous
218 study (Wei et al., 2022). Microbial biomass carbon was assessed via the fumigation-extraction
219 method. Organic C was extracted using K₂SO₄, and the carbon content in the K₂SO₄ compost extracts
220 was determined using a TOC analyzer (Shimadzu TOC-5050A). β-glucosidase activity was
221 determined by the colorimetric estimation of p-nitrophenol (PNP) formed during the hydrolysis of p-
222 nitrophenyl-β-d-glucopyranoside (PNG), following the method described by Eivazi and Tabatabai,
223 1988. The activities of alkaline phosphatases were measured at 37 °C using p-nitrophenyl phosphate

224 (PNPP; Sigma N4645) as a substrate at pH 11 and expressed as $\mu\text{g PNP h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ dry compost (Li et al.,
225 2021). All those measurements were taken three times per treatment.

226

227 *Statistical analysis*

228 For statistical analysis of the emission of CH_4 and CO_2 , Welch's t-test and Cohen's d effect
229 size were conducted. All other results are reported as means with one-way ANOVA followed by
230 Tukey's post-hoc test (HSD, honestly significant difference at the 95% confidence interval). The
231 statistical analyses were conducted with the R program (Rstudio 3.5.1 version, RStudio, Boston, MA,
232 USA). The standard deviation is expressed as the bar. Redundancy Analysis (RDA) was conducted
233 separately for the early and final stages of composting to understand treatment effects by using those
234 parameters of the composting process. The objective for RDA at the early stage was to explore
235 possible drivers of CH_4 variability, which only occurs during, while that of the final stage was to find
236 possible drivers of the stability of compost product. 3 replicate data was used for RDA. K-Nearest
237 Neighbors (KNN) imputation was conducted to find missing values for the variables that have two
238 replicate data. KNN was based on Euclidean distance across all numeric variables. The R package
239 VIM was used for KNN imputation. Scaling was done prior to RDA. The variables used for RDA
240 included physicochemical properties, carbon fractions, biomass indicators, enzymatic activities, and
241 the relative abundances of phospholipid-derived fatty acids (PLFAs). Microbial community data were
242 sourced from our previous study (Jindo et al., 2012; Sonoki et al., 2013), and chemical properties from
243 Jindo et al. (2016). Variable names and abbreviations are listed in the supplemental information. In the
244 thermal stage, response variables were CH_4 , CO_2 , the methane monooxygenase gene (*pmoA*), the
245 methyl coenzyme M reductase gene (*mcrA*), and their ratio (*pmoA/mcrA*). For the final stage, response
246 variables were the polymerization index (PZ), humification index (HI), and the ratio of water-soluble
247 carbon to organic nitrogen (Cw/Norg), which are established maturity indices (Swarnam et al., 2016).
248 The following explanatory variables were included in both stages: total nitrogen (TN), total carbon

249 (TC), pH, organic matter (OM), bulk density (BD), Gram-positive bacteria (Gram_P), Gram-negative
250 bacteria (Gram_N), their ratio (GramP_GramN), total bacteria, fungi, the fungi-to-bacteria ratio,
251 saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids, water-soluble carbon (WSC), ATP, β -glucosidase, alkaline
252 phosphatase, dehydrogenase, water-soluble polyphenols, and carbohydrates. The W2/W1 ratio of
253 lignin was used in the thermal stage, while lignin content was used in the final stage.

254

255 **Result and discussion**

256 *CH₄ emissions during composting*

257 In this research, we proposed the idea that the porous quality of biochar promotes air circulation
258 within the compost mixture, thus hindering the release of CH₄ during composting with charcoal. As
259 anticipated, CH₄ emission rate was significantly reduced in the presence of biochar, as depicted in Fig.
260 1. After 20 days of composting initiation, the CH₄ emission rate in the biochar-absent mixture of
261 poultry manure (PM) reached approximately 570 mg of CH₄ per day per square meter. Conversely, in
262 poultry manure composting with biochar (PM+B), the CH₄ emission rate was approximately 120 mg
263 of CH₄ per day per square meter. These results manifest that in treatment “PM+B”, CH₄ emissions
264 decreased by approximately 4.6 times compared to PM without biochar (123 vs 572 mg CH₄ kg⁻¹
265 DM). Additionally, we observed a secondary phase of CH₄ emission around day 42 in composting,
266 and this, too, was mitigated by the inclusion of biochar (Fig. 1).

267 Regarding cow manure composting (Fig. 1), in treatment “CM+B”, CH₄ emissions were reduced by
268 approximately 3.7 times compared to CM (8.4 vs. 31.5 mg CH₄ kg⁻¹ DM). It is crucial to highlight that
269 introducing biochar into the composting process substantially decreased CH₄ emissions by enhancing
270 the aeration in the composting pile. Other studies (Jyoti et al., 2022) report that adding biochar
271 facilitated CH₄ oxidation and reduced CH₄ production by microorganisms. In the case of biochar
272 addition, the enhancement of aerobic conditions within the composting mixture, thanks to its porous
273 structure and large surface area, played a pivotal role in the remarkable reduction of CH₄ emissions by

274 influencing microbial activities associated with CH₄ production and oxidation (Sonoki et al., 2013).
275 Adding biochar functions as a structural matrix and its porous nature may enhance oxygen carriers'
276 performance, potentially restricting methanogens' adaptability to the environment (Guo et al., 2021).

277 It should also be highlighted that the type of biochar with different physical properties (e.g.
278 pore size and bulk density) changes the magnitude of the CH₄ reduction during the composting. It is
279 reported (Zhou et al., 2022) that wood biochar reduced more CH₄ than corn cob biochar due to smaller
280 pore structure.

281 The reduced CH₄ emission in the biochar-blended compost is associated with the improved
282 quality of the end-product, such as increasing functional groups and CEC (Chen et al., 2017) as well as
283 the efficiency of composting in terms of the cost of the operation due to a reduction in composting
284 time span by enhancing organic matter decomposition with higher aeration (Xiao et al., 2017).

285 *Carbon dioxide emissions during composting*

286 A gradual decrease in the amount of CO₂ was observed from the initial stage to the end of the
287 composting process (Figure 2). Regarding the impact of biochar addition, at day 21 of composting,
288 although Welch's t-test suggested a higher CO₂ concentration in the composts with biochar (PM+B,
289 mean = 149 ppm; CM+B, mean = 209 ppm) compared to compost without biochars (PM, mean = 123
290 ppm; CM, mean = 175 ppm), the result was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$), likely due to the
291 limited sample size ($n = 2$ per group). Nevertheless, the moderate effect size (Cohen's $d = 0.8$)
292 indicates a potentially meaningful difference. Emissions in treatments "PM+B" and "CM+B" were
293 significantly higher than in PM and CM ($p < 0.05$), with extremely large effect sizes (Cohen's $d = 9.32$
294 and 13.6, respectively), suggesting enhanced microbial activities or OM decomposition with biochar.
295 Our result of reduced CH₄ and increased CO₂ emission during the thermophilic phase of composting
296 with biochar aligns with previous report (Gu et al., 2025). These findings suggest that the physical
297 changes in the compost pile induced by biochar—such as lower bulk density, higher porosity, and
298 greater specific surface area—likely enhanced air circulation, thereby influencing microbial activity by

299 improving habitat conditions and metabolic processes involved in organic matter degradation.
300 Although the sample size was small ($n = 2$ per group), the observed differences were statistically
301 significant. However, further studies with larger sample sizes are necessary to verify these findings.

302

303 *Quantitative and qualitative changes in the lignin fraction during composting*

304 Generally, lignin degradation during composting occurs in two main phases: the thermophilic
305 phase at the beginning and the cooling phase at the end. The primary microbial groups responsible for
306 lignin breakdown differ between these phases. Actinomycetes dominate during the thermophilic stage,
307 while white-rot fungi are more active during the later cooling stage.

308 In the biochar-amended treatments (PM+B and CM+B), the proportion of organic matter,
309 excluding the lignin fraction, is smaller due to the added biochar content (Figure 3). Our results
310 indicate that lignin degradation was most pronounced during the thermophilic stage (from T1 to T4).
311 This can be attributed to the presence of heat-tolerant actinomycetes and fungi capable of surviving
312 above 50 °C. These microbes produce ligninolytic enzymes—such as lignin peroxidase, manganese
313 peroxidase, and laccase—that biochemically degrade lignin under high-temperature, aerobic
314 conditions.

315 Differences were also observed between the types of manure. In the PM and PM+B piles,
316 lignin degradation occurred gradually from T1 to T6. In contrast, cow manure (CM and CM+B)
317 showed a more rapid decrease in lignin content between T3 (day 14), when pile temperatures exceeded
318 64 °C, and T4 (day 28), when temperatures declined to around 45–50 °C.

319 Composts amended with biochar (treatments “PM+B” and “CM+B”) showed significantly
320 higher lignin degradation than those without biochar (Table 1). Specifically, 29.% and 10.8% of lignin
321 were degraded in treatments “PM+B” and “CM+B”, respectively—approximately 1.5 times greater

322 than in the non-biochar treatments (PM and CM). These findings are consistent with the results of
323 another report (Ma et al., 2024).

324 It is well-documented that biochar enhances microbial activity during the initial stages of
325 composting, leading to faster temperature increases and an extended thermophilic period (Zainudin et
326 al., 2020). Consequently, CO₂ emissions tended to be higher in biochar-amended composts (Fig. 2).
327 Notably, lignin is highly resistant to degradation under anaerobic conditions, as its key oxidative
328 enzymes require oxygen to function. Therefore, lignin breakdown in composting is primarily driven
329 by aerobic, heat-tolerant microorganisms such as *Streptomyces* and *Promicromonospora* (Oviedo-
330 Ocaña et al., 2025; Yu et al., 2023). Studies have reported that the addition of biochar to composting
331 piles of green waste and food waste can result in lignin loss ranging from 28% to 33%, accompanied
332 by increased abundance of these lignin-degrading microbes (Oviedo-Ocaña et al., 2025).

333 One of the primary aims of analyzing the changes in the lignin fraction was to assess its
334 transformation as an indicator of organic matter recalcitrance in mature compost. This study
335 demonstrated an increase in lignin concentration by incorporating biochar but also revealed qualitative
336 changes in the lignin composition during composting, as measured by TGA analysis and ¹³C-NMR.

337 Thermogravimetry analysis (TGA) is the most used tool to obtain experimental kinetic data for
338 lignocellulosic biomass pyrolysis. The result of TGA in Supplemental Fig. 2 represents the characteristic
339 of the stability of the hardwood biochar in our study produced at 550 °C. This recalcitrant nature of
340 hardwood biochar enhanced compost thermal stability from the initial stage, with significant differences
341 observed ($P < 0.05$; Table 2). Based on the W_2/W_1 ratio, stability increased by 2.8-fold in treatment
342 “PM + B” and 4.4-fold in treatment “CM + B” compared to controls. At the final stage, this effect was
343 even more pronounced ($P < 0.01$; Table 2), with similar fold increases: 2.6-fold for treatment “PM + B”
344 and 4.7-fold for treatment “CM + B”. The ¹³C NMR spectra analysis is a strong tool to monitor the
345 presence of lignin during the composting process. The use of ¹³C NMR spectra is considered a reliable
346 technique for understanding the distribution and content of organic molecules in a wide range of solid

347 organic matrices (Spaccini and Piccolo, 2009).. The ^{13}C NMR spectra of the PM lignin samples were
348 dominated by peaks around 30-40 ppm corresponding to an alkyl group (Fig. 3, Supplementary
349 Information, Fig. 4, left). Throughout the composting process, other moderate peaks at the beginning of
350 the composting process became sharpened, such as the peaks at 55 ppm (methoxyl carbon), 127-130
351 ppm and 147-150 ppm (aromatic carbons), and 170-175 ppm (carboxyl carbon). Incorporating biochar
352 into PM+B led to a gradual reduction in the sharp peak at 30–40 ppm, associated with aliphatic carbon,
353 during the composting process. This was accompanied by a marked increase in aromatic groups,
354 reflected in the sharp peak at 125–130 ppm (Shi et al., 2019), corresponding to the p-hydroxyphenyl
355 units of lignin—one of its three main components, along with guaiacyl and syringyl (Supplementary
356 Information Fig. 4, right side).

357 In the ^{13}C NMR spectra of cow manure with and without biochar (CM+B v.s. CM)
358 (Supplementary Information Fig. 5), the same peaks are observed, although the shape of those peaks is
359 more moderate compared to the poultry manure. The minor gap between PM and CM is seen in that the
360 small peak around 70 ppm, attributed to carbohydrate in lignin, gradually disappears in PM toward the
361 end of the composting process, while this peak gradually appears in CM in the middle of the process.

362 These parameters are commonly used as indicators of organic matter stability based on the
363 distribution of different carbon groups (Bekier et al., 2014). Statistically significant differences ($p <$
364 0.05) were observed in the aromaticity index, with higher values in the biochar-amended treatments
365 (PM+B and CM+B) compared to the non-biochar piles (PM and CM) (Table 2). Although
366 hydrophobicity increased with biochar addition, the difference was insignificant. These results support
367 the role of biochar in enhancing the recalcitrant properties of lignin and its resistance to microbial
368 degradation within the compost pile. Continuously, these indicators of recalcitrance remained higher
369 in the biochar-treated composts (PM+B and CM+B) at the end of the composting process, as shown in
370 Table 2.

371 *Biochar degradation during composting*

372 Biochar degradation, influenced by feedstock type and pyrolysis conditions (e.g.,
373 temperature), plays a significant role in composting dynamics and soil responses, such as the priming
374 effect (Nguyen et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2016). The hardwood biochar used in this study, which was
375 produced at 550 °C, is considered relatively recalcitrant. Nevertheless, a reduction in the visible black
376 biochar fraction (Fig. 2) was observed by the second week (T2) in treatment “PM + B” and the third
377 week (T3) in treatment “CM + B”, corresponding to the thermophilic stage (≥ 50 °C). This reduction
378 may reflect oxidative degradation, as previous studies have shown that carbon loss from biochar
379 increases with higher temperatures and that more stable biochar can be more sensitive to temperature-
380 induced decomposition than less stable forms (Nguyen et al., 2010). The faint signal below 60 ppm in
381 the ^{13}C NMR spectrum of our hardwood biochar (Supplemental Fig. 1), attributed to aliphatic or O-
382 alkyl carbons, likely represents labile fractions that contribute to the early-stage mass loss (0–300 °C)
383 seen in TGA (Supplemental Fig. 2), due to volatilization of light compounds and moisture.

384

385 *Total dissolved carbon, carbohydrate, and water-soluble polyphenol fractions.*

386 During composting, the microbes feed on easily decomposed compounds such as carbohydrates and
387 proteins. Some of these turn into humic substances, as reported previously for these composting
388 mixtures by Jindo et al (2016), while others are used as energy sources to support microbial activities.
389 Fig 4 represents the changes in the concentration of total dissolved carbon throughout the composting
390 process, which comprises typical easily-degradable compounds. It is shown that higher DOC contents
391 are seen in both non-biochar compost (PM and CM). Carbohydrate and water-soluble polyphenols
392 followed a similar pattern as sub-groups of dissolved organic carbon. All those easily degradable
393 compounds are reduced mainly at the thermal stage. During the thermal stage, heat-tolerant
394 microorganisms actively metabolize organic matter, converting carbohydrates into CO_2 . This
395 heightened microbial respiration can deplete oxygen locally, promoting the formation of anaerobic
396 microsites that favor methanogenic activity and enhance CH_4 emissions.(Guo et al., 2021).

397 Composts without biochar showed higher levels of these soluble fractions, aligning with total
398 dissolved organic carbon results (Fig. 4). Similar results about lower water-soluble carbon in compost
399 with biochar are found in previous study (Hagemann et al., 2018). There are several possible
400 mechanisms of biochar addition in relation with the reduction of the content of dissolved organic
401 carbon: 1) Biochar enhanced the organic matter decomposition including dissolved carbon which
402 accelerate the stability of the composted material (Xiao et al., 2017); and 2) easily-degradable
403 compounds such as carbohydrate is retained in composting pile but not instead of degradation by
404 microbes, this would be remained in composting pile even after the composting process such as
405 incorporation in humified carbon fractions (Jindo et al., 2016) or absorption by biochar (Liu et al.,
406 2024). Other researchers (Guo et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2023) report that the bacteria play an important
407 role in consuming more dissolved organic carbon, including amino acids and carbohydrates, after
408 being promoted by biochar and contributing to polymerization of carbon into a more stable form such
409 as humic substances. Regarding lignin degradation and water-soluble carbon, Gu et al. (2025) reported
410 that biochar may suppress methanogenic activity by reducing the availability of water-soluble carbon
411 and increasing oxygen levels. The porous structure and alkaline nature of biochar are believed to
412 create favorable conditions for methanotrophs in composting piles, thereby enhancing their capability
413 to oxidize CH_4 and reduce CH_4 emissions.

414

415 *ATP and dehydrogenase activity.*

416 Analyzing ATP levels is a means of evaluating microbial activity since ATP functions as an
417 energy carrier within cells. It serves as an indicator of metabolic activity and the viability of
418 microorganisms. ATP is a vital molecule serving as the primary energy carrier in cells, including
419 microbial ones. Its presence can signal the extent of metabolic activity and the overall viability of
420 microorganisms in specific environments, such as composting piles or soil (Horiuchi et al., 2003).
421 Dehydrogenase activity offers insights into the broader spectrum of soil microbial activity

422 (Piotrowska-Długosz et al., 2022). An additional method for gauging microbial activity is through the
423 measurement of dehydrogenase activity, which yields valuable insights into overall microbial
424 functioning. This enzyme is considered as an indicator of composting stabilization (Nikaeen et al.,
425 2015).

426 In our study, PM and CM exhibit higher ATP and dehydrogenase levels than composts
427 containing biochar (Fig. 5). This difference is likely attributed to the lower concentration of easily-
428 degradable compounds (Fig. 4). At week 6, the range of dehydrogenase activity in CM with biochar
429 (CM+B) was the same as at the end of the composting period. This suggests that a higher volumetric
430 ratio of bulking agents (e.g., biochar, pruning waste, and sawdust) may have enhanced aeration,
431 accelerating the composting process by facilitating organic matter stabilization (Nikaeen et al., 2015).

432 These findings are consistent with Jindo et al. (2012) who observed in the same composting
433 mixtures that the changes in the microbial community structure caused by biochar were mostly driven
434 by the original organic wastes.

435

436 *Extracellular enzyme activity*

437 *B*-glucosidase and alkaline phosphatase are both extracellular enzymes related to the cycling
438 of carbon and phosphorus. Fig. 6 illustrates the effect of the biochar addition on those enzymatic
439 activities during the composting process. At the end of the composting process (12 weeks), composts
440 without biochar (PM and CM) exhibited higher enzymatic activities than the same mixtures enriched
441 with biochar, which is related to the difference in the amount of easy-degradable compounds such as
442 carbohydrates (Table 2). Same as the dehydrogenase, alkaline phosphatase in the CM with biochar
443 (CM+B) was also stabilized from the week 6 to the end of the composting process (week 12) (Fig. 6).
444 The different behaviour of enzymatic activity between compost with/without biochar is observed in
445 alkaline phosphatase. On the contrary to other enzymatic activities such as dehydrogenase and *B*-
446 glucosidase, both composts with biochar (treatments “PM+B” and “CM+B”) have higher alkaline

447 phosphatase compared to those without biochar (PM and CM) which is aligned with another work
448 (Duan et al., 2022). The underlying mechanisms may include: (1) biochar promotes microbial
449 communities such as mesophilic bacteria and thermophilic fungi possessing *phoD*, which contributes
450 to phosphorus degradation; (2) the higher pH in biochar-amended compost may inhibit specific
451 phosphorus-solubilizing microorganisms; (3) elevated pH may create more favorable conditions for
452 alkaline phosphatases, which have an optimal pH around 11; and (4) previous studies have reported
453 that compost enriched with lignocellulosic materials tends to exhibit higher phosphatase activity,
454 possibly as a compensatory mechanism, which results in lower levels of inorganic phosphorus (El Fels
455 et al., 2024).

456

457 Key factors determining the composting processes - Redundancy analysis (RDA)

458 Redundancy analysis (RDA) was used to integrate physicochemical, microbial, and metabolic data,
459 offering insights into key factors shaping the composting process. The following section illustrates
460 variable relationships during the thermophilic stage about CH₄ and CO₂ emissions (Fig. 7) and during
461 the final stage in relation to compost maturity and stability (Fig. 8)

462 *Thermophilic composting stage*

463 RDA was conducted to assess the relationships between greenhouse gas emissions and key
464 physicochemical and microbial variables during the thermophilic composting stage. The first two axes
465 (RDA1 and RDA2) explained 89.6% of the constrained variance (RDA1: 63.4%, RDA2: 26.2%). CH₄
466 emissions and the abundance of the methanogenesis gene (*mcrA*) aligned closely with RDA1, while
467 carbon dioxide (CO₂) and the methanotrophic gene (*pmoA*) showed strong negative associations with
468 both axes. Fungal abundance and total nitrogen (TN) exhibited high positive loadings on RDA1,
469 indicating a strong link with CH₄ production. In contrast, variables such as BD, Gram-negative
470 bacteria (Gram_N), and lipid biomarkers (monounsaturated and saturated PLFAs) were more aligned
471 with RDA2, pointing to their role in aerobic respiration and CO₂ fluxes. The lower bulk density (BD),

472 likely influenced by biochar addition, suggests improved aeration, which may have suppressed CH₄
473 formation ($r = 0.64$). Notably, Gram-positive bacteria (Gram_P) and bulk density (BD) exhibited
474 similar vector directions in the RDA space (Fig. 7), suggesting a potential association between them.
475 Previous studies (Chandna et al., 2013; Fracchia et al., 2006) have reported a high prevalence of
476 Gram-positive organisms, particularly *Firmicutes* and *Actinobacteria*, during the thermophilic phase,
477 as these microbes are heat-tolerant and capable of degrading lignocellulosic compounds. Biochar may
478 offer a protective, nutrient-rich microenvironment that favors the proliferation of such bacteria. Their
479 increased abundance could contribute to structural modifications within the compost matrix, thereby
480 influencing bulk density during the thermophilic stage.

481 Overall, the constrained ordination revealed distinct microbial and structural controls over
482 CH₄ and CO₂ emissions during the thermal stage, with ventilation, nitrogen availability, and microbial
483 composition emerging as key drivers.

484 *Final composting stage*

485 In the final composting stage, RDA was employed to examine how microbial and physicochemical
486 variables relate to compost maturity indicators. The first two axes accounted for 95.0% of the total
487 constrained variance (RDA1: 56.5%, RDA2: 38.5%). The humification index (HI) strongly aligned
488 with RDA1, while the polymerization index (PZ) and HA/FA ratio showed a positive relationship with
489 RDA2. Conversely, the carbon-to-organic nitrogen ratio in the water-soluble fraction (Cw/N_{org}) was
490 negatively associated with both axes, particularly RDA2, suggesting it decreased as compost matured.
491 Bulk density, total nitrogen (TN), and ammonium (NH₄⁺) were the major contributors to RDA1,
492 reflecting their central role in the stabilization process.

493 Meanwhile, microbial characteristics—such as Gram-positive bacteria, total bacterial
494 abundance, and fungi—loaded more strongly on RDA2, indicating their involvement in the
495 biochemical transformation of organic matter. These patterns suggest that both structural factors (e.g.,
496 BD) and microbial community traits jointly regulate the transition toward more stable humified

497 compost. Despite the modest sample size, the ordination was well-structured and supported the
498 relevance of these variables to the maturation dynamics.

499 **Conclusion**

500 This study demonstrates that incorporating biochar into composting provides dual benefits: it
501 significantly lowers CH₄ emissions—by 4.6-fold in treatment “PM+B” and 3.7-fold in treatment
502 “CM+B”—thereby reducing environmental impact, and it promotes the stabilization of organic matter.
503 Notably, biochar enhanced the degradation of lignin, the most recalcitrant carbon fraction, by 29.0% in
504 treatment “PM+B” and 10.8% in treatment “CM+B”, approximately 1.5 times higher than in non-
505 biochar treatments. Moreover, the remaining lignin became more chemically resistant, as indicated by
506 increased stability indicators such as W₂/W₁ ratios with fold increases: 2.6-fold for treatment
507 “PM + B” and 4.7-fold for treatment “CM + B”, contributing to forming a more stable and mature
508 compost product. In contrast, PM and CM contain other more labile carbon fractions till the final
509 stage, consequently showing higher ATP, dehydrogenase and β-glucosidase than treatments “PM+B”
510 and “CM+B”. The RDA analyses revealed that microbial composition and structural properties
511 significantly influenced gas emissions during the thermophilic stage and compost stabilization at the
512 final stage. During the thermal phase, CH₄ emissions were associated with *mcrA* gene abundance,
513 fungal biomass, and total nitrogen, while CO₂ emissions correlated with bulk density and Gram-
514 negative bacteria. Biochar likely improved aeration (via reduced bulk density), suppressing CH₄ and
515 promoting CO₂ release. In the final stage, compost maturity indicators (HI, PZ, HA/FA) were closely
516 linked with both physicochemical traits (e.g., TN, NH₄⁺, BD) and microbial variables (Gram-positive
517 bacteria, total bacteria, fungi), indicating that compost stabilization was jointly governed by microbial
518 activity and structural factors.

519 While our findings suggest that biochar-blended composts may offer more persistent organic
520 matter and potential long-term benefits for soil health, this inference is based solely on compost
521 characteristics. In addition to planning future soil incubation studies or field trials to evaluate the long-

522 term fate and impact of these composts after application, it is also important to integrate insights from
523 previous soil studies to build upon existing knowledge.

524 **Declarations**

525 Availability of data and materials

526 Not applicable.

527

528 **Competing interests**

529 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

530 **Author Contributions**

531 Conceptualization, K.J., and M.A.S.M.; methodology: M.A.M.S.; software: K.J.; validation:
532 K.J. and M.A.M.S.; formal analysis: K.J., T.S., and M.A.M.S.; investigation K.J., T.S., and
533 M.S.M.S. resources: T.S., and M.A.M.S.; data curation: K.J.; writing—original draft
534 preparation: K.J.; writing—review and editing: K.J., T.S., and M.A.M.S.; visualization: K.J.
535 and M.A.M.S.; supervision: K.J., T.S., and M.A.M.S.; project administration: T.S. and
536 M.A.M.S.; funding acquisition: T.S. and M.A.M.S. All authors have read and agreed to the
537 published version of the manuscript.

538

539 **Funding**

540 This research is financially supported by Agrosystems Research Group, Wageningen
541 University & Research(Grant number 3710473400). This study is part of the project Ref:
542 TED2021-131907B-I00, financed by the Spanish MCIN/AEI /10.13039/501100011033 and
543 the European NextGenerationEU/PRTR funds.

544

545 **Acknowledgement**

546 We sincerely appreciate the financial support provided by the Japan Society for the Promotion of
547 Science and the CSIC (Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas) programs for this bilateral
548 project. Miguel A Sanchez Monedero acknowledges funding from the Spanish Ministry of Science,
549 Innovation and Universities (research project TED2021-131907B-I00). Keiji Jindo wishes to

550 acknowledge their financial support (3710473400). We appreciate Mr. Suto Koki for his technical
551 support.

552

Journal Pre-proof

553 Table 1. Lignin loss (%) in compost treatments with and without biochar from initial stage to
 554 the end of the stage of composting process. PM: Poultry Manure; CM: Cow Manure; +B:
 555 +Biochar.

.	N	Lignin loss (%)
PM+B	2	29.0 (0.1)
PM	2	18.6 (0.1)
P value		0.001
CM+B	2	17.0 (0.1)
CM	2	10.8 (0.1)
P value		0.004

556 Means were subjected to statistical analysis by the Welch's-test. Value in parenthesis is
 557 standard deviation

558

559

560

561

562

563 Table 2. Organic matter characteristics of the lignin fractions isolated at the initial and the end
 564 of the composting process. PM: Poultry Manure; CM: Cow Manure; +B: +Biochar.
 565 Aromaticity index and hydrophobicity are calculated from ^{13}C NMR spectra of the lignin.
 566 W_1/W_2 is calculated from the thermogravimetric analysis. Means were subjected to statistical
 567 analysis by the T-test. Value in parenthesis is standard deviation.

Phase	.Name	N	Aromaticity Index* ¹	Hydrophobicity* ²	N	W_1/W_2 * ³
Initial	PM+B	2	45.7 (1.5)* ⁴	2.54 (0.11)	2	0.251(0.022)
	PM	2	21.5 (2.9)	2.33 (0.85)	2	0.714 (0.110)
	P value		<0.05	n.s.		<0.05
	CM+B	2	42.6 (1.9)	2.71 (0.17)	2	0.219 (0.013)
	CM	2	26.2 (1.3)	2.13 (0.16)	2	0.963 (0.078)
	P value		<0.05	<0.1		<0.05
End	PM+B	1	45.4	2.54	2	0.247 (0.039)
	PM	2	27.6 (0.4)	2.33 (0.16)	2	0.652 (0.020)
	P value		-	-		< 0.01
	CM+B	1	39.8	2.63	2	0.141 (0.001)
	CM	1	29.7	2.00	2	0.6673(0.020)
	P value		-	-		< 0.01

568 *¹ Aromatic index = (aromatic C + phenolic C)/(alkyl C + N-alkyl C + O-alkyl C + aromatic
 569 C + phenolic C) * 100.

570 *² Hydrophobic C (HB)/Hydrophilic C (HI) = (alkyl C + aromatic C + phenolic C)/(N-alkyl +
 571 O-alkyl C + anomeric C + carboxyl, amides, ester).

572 *³ Ratio between the mass losses associated with the second (W2) and first (W1) exothermic
 573 reactions of thermal analysis.

Figure captions

Fig. 1. Methane (CH₄) generation rate during composting piles: poultry manure (PM); poultry manure with biochar (PM+B); cow manure (PM); cow manure with biochar (CM+B). Black lines represent manure composts without biochar, while red lines represent manure composts with biochars. The figure shows the mean value (n = 2), with error bars indicating the standard deviation of the samples. The asterisk indicates statistical significance (p < 0.05).

Fig. 2. CO₂ generation rate during composting piles: poultry manure (PM); poultry manure with biochar (PM+B); cow manure (PM); cow manure with biochar (CM+B). Black lines represent manure composts without biochar, while red lines represent manure composts with biochars. The figure shows the mean value (n = 2), with error bars indicating the standard deviation of the samples. The asterisk indicates statistical significance (p < 0.05).

Fig. 3. Distribution (%) of organic material over time. (Above) Poultry manure (PM, left) and poultry manure with biochar (PM+B, right); (Bottom) Cow manure (CM, left) and cow manure with biochar (CM+B, right). Color coding: Ash (gray), Lignin (brown), Organic matter excluding lignin (yellow), Degraded organic matter (blue), and Biochar (meshed black). Time points: T1 (1st week); T2 (2nd week); T3 (3rd week); T4 (4th week); T5 (6th week); T6 (12th week).

Fig. 4. Total dissolved carbon, carbohydrate, and water-soluble polyphenol in composting sampled from poultry manure (PM) and cow manure (CM) treated with biochar (PM+B and CM+B). The figure shows the mean value (n = 3), with error bars indicating the standard deviation of the samples. Asterisk mark represents the significant difference. *p<0.05.

Fig. 5. Adenosine 5-triphosphate (ATP) and dehydrogenase activity in composting sampled from poultry manure (PM) and cow manure (CM) treated with biochar (PM+B and CM+B). The figure shows the mean value (n = 3), with error bars indicating the standard deviation of the samples. Asterisk mark represents the significant difference. *p<0.05

Fig 6. β -glucosidase activity and alkaline phosphatase activity and in composting sampled from poultry manure (PM) and cow manure (CM) treated with biochar (PM+B and CM+B). The figure shows the mean value ($n = 3$), with error bars indicating the standard deviation of the samples. Asterisk mark represents the significant difference. $*p < 0.05$.

Fig. 7. Correlation matrix between various indicators of organic matter stability and recalcitrance and key monitoring parameters of composting mixtures prepared from cattle manure (CM) and poultry manure (PM), with and without biochar. Data obtained from this study and from our previous our studies (Jindo et al 2012 & 2016). The list of the variables and its abbreviations are described in the supplemental material.

Fig 8. Biplot of principal component analysis with different variables Cow manure (CM, red dot); Cow manure with biochar (CM+B, green dot); poultry manure (PM, blue dot); poultry manure with biochar (PM+B, violet dot).

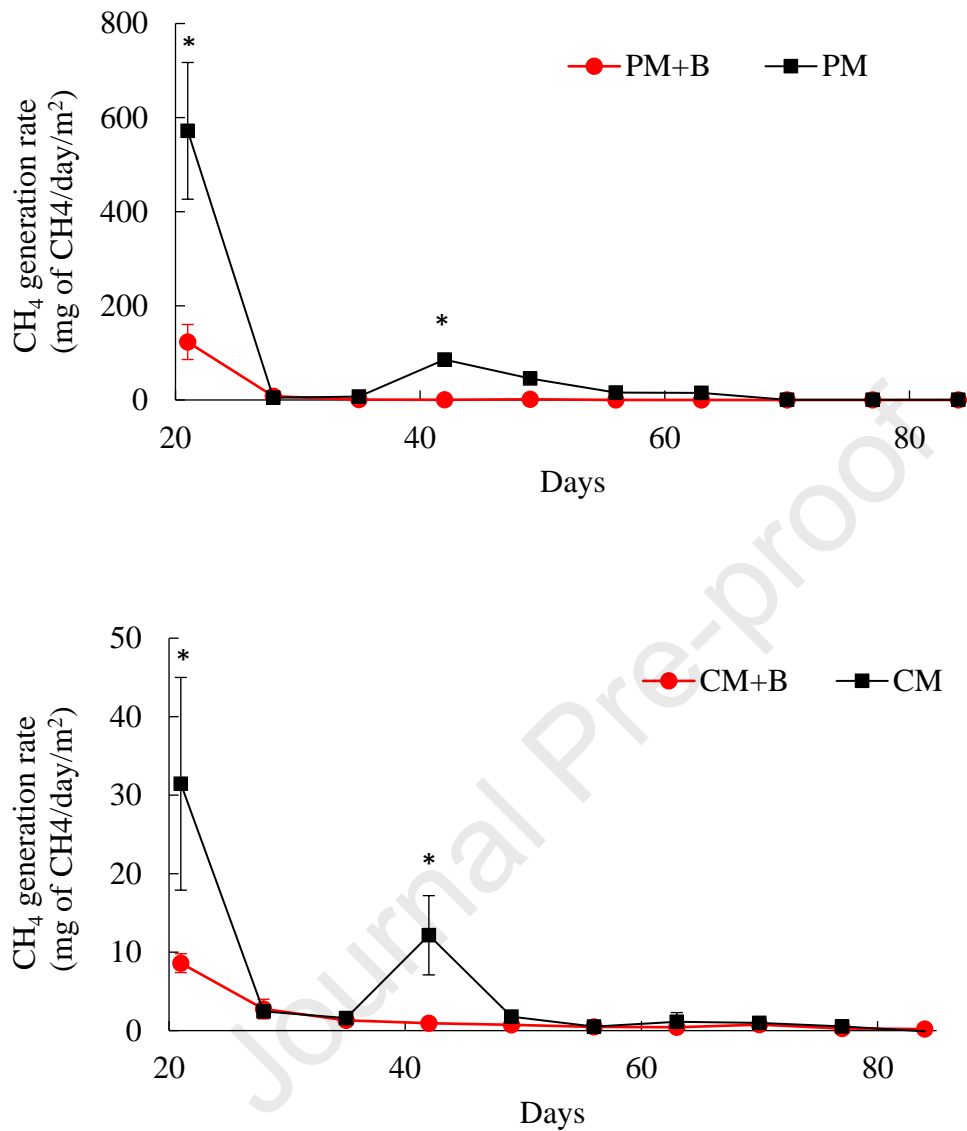


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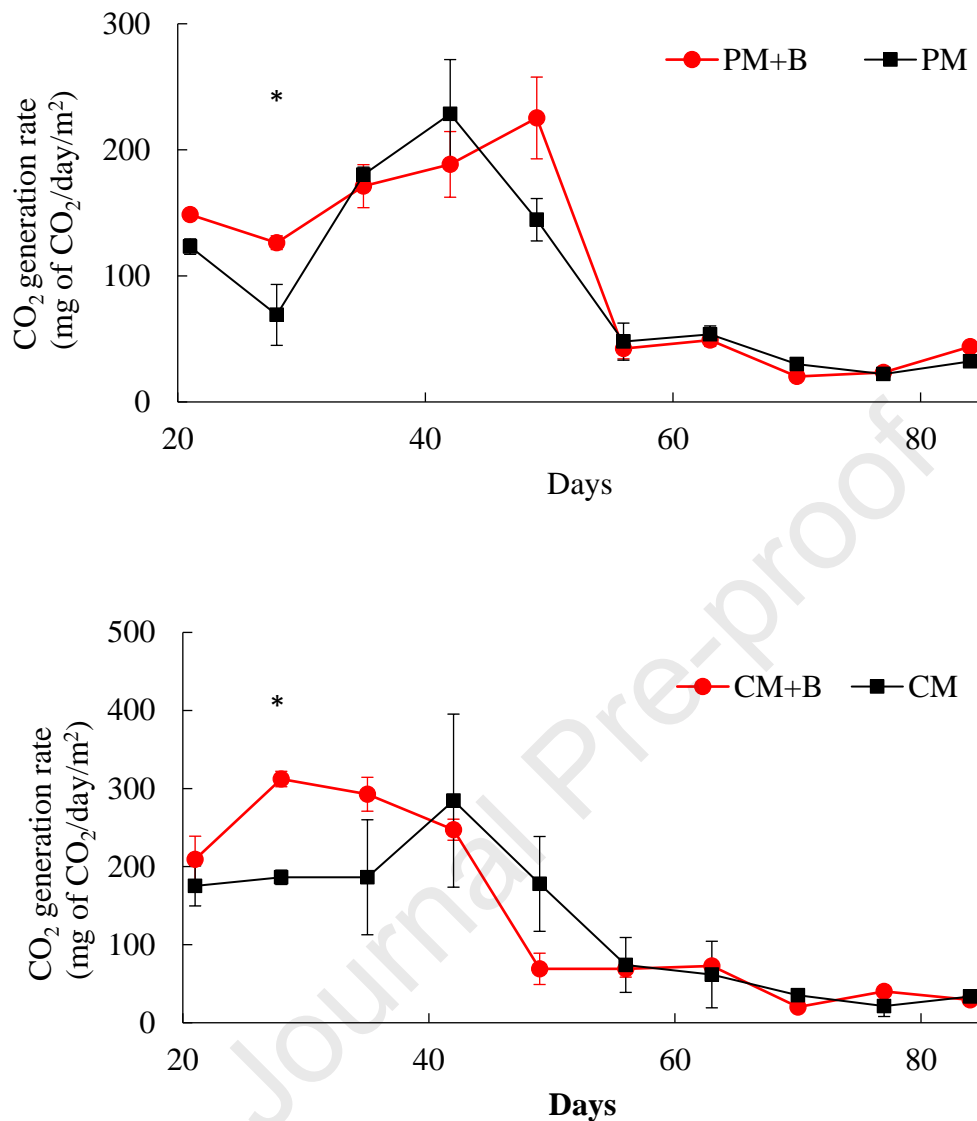


Fig. 2. CO₂ generation rate during composting piles: poultry manure (PM); poultry manure with biochar (PM+B); cow manure (PM); cow manure with biochar (CM+B). Black lines represent manure composts without biochar, while red lines represent manure composts with biochars. The figure shows the mean value (n = 2), with error bars indicating the standard deviation of the samples. The asterisk indicates statistical significance (p < 0.05).

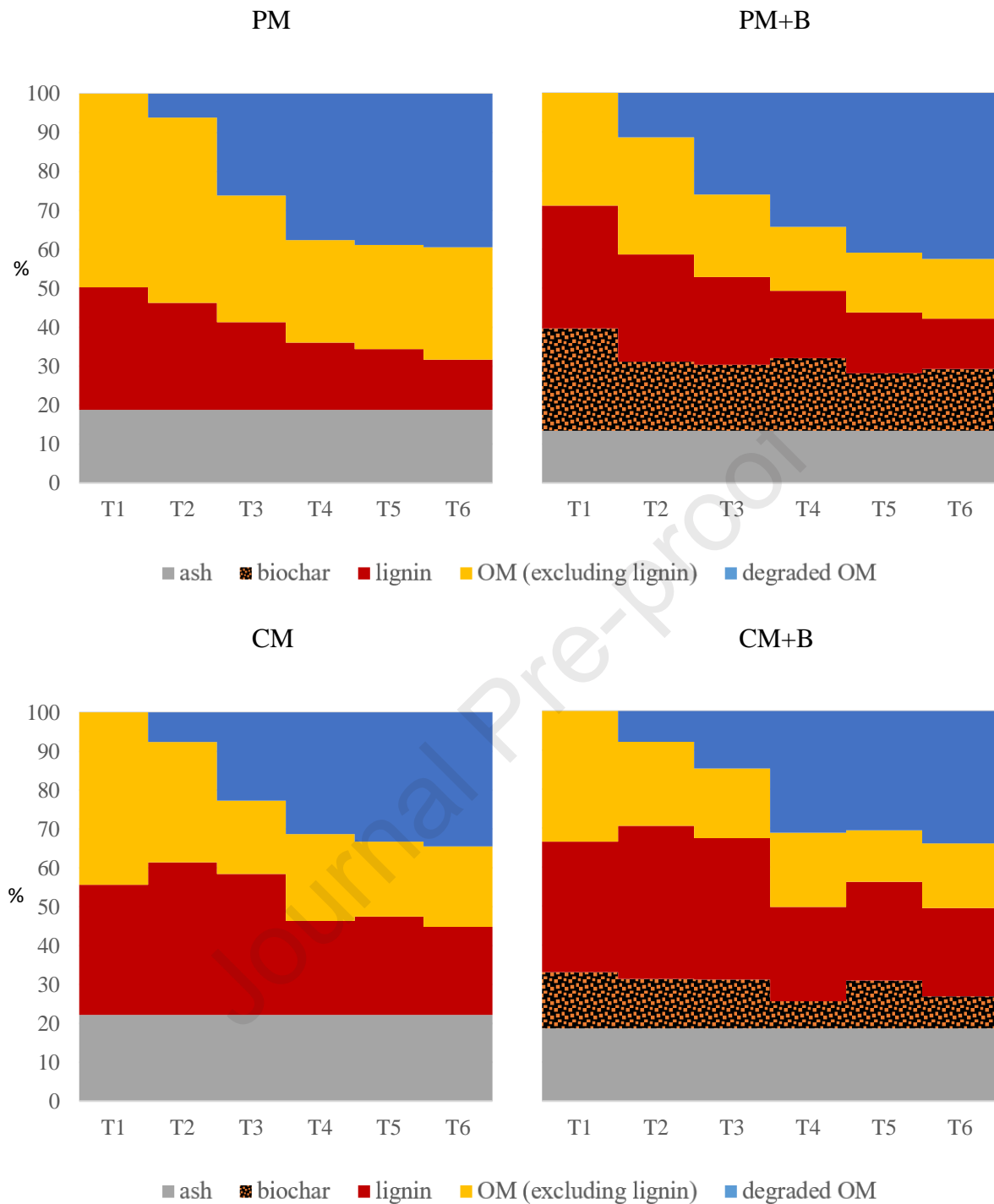


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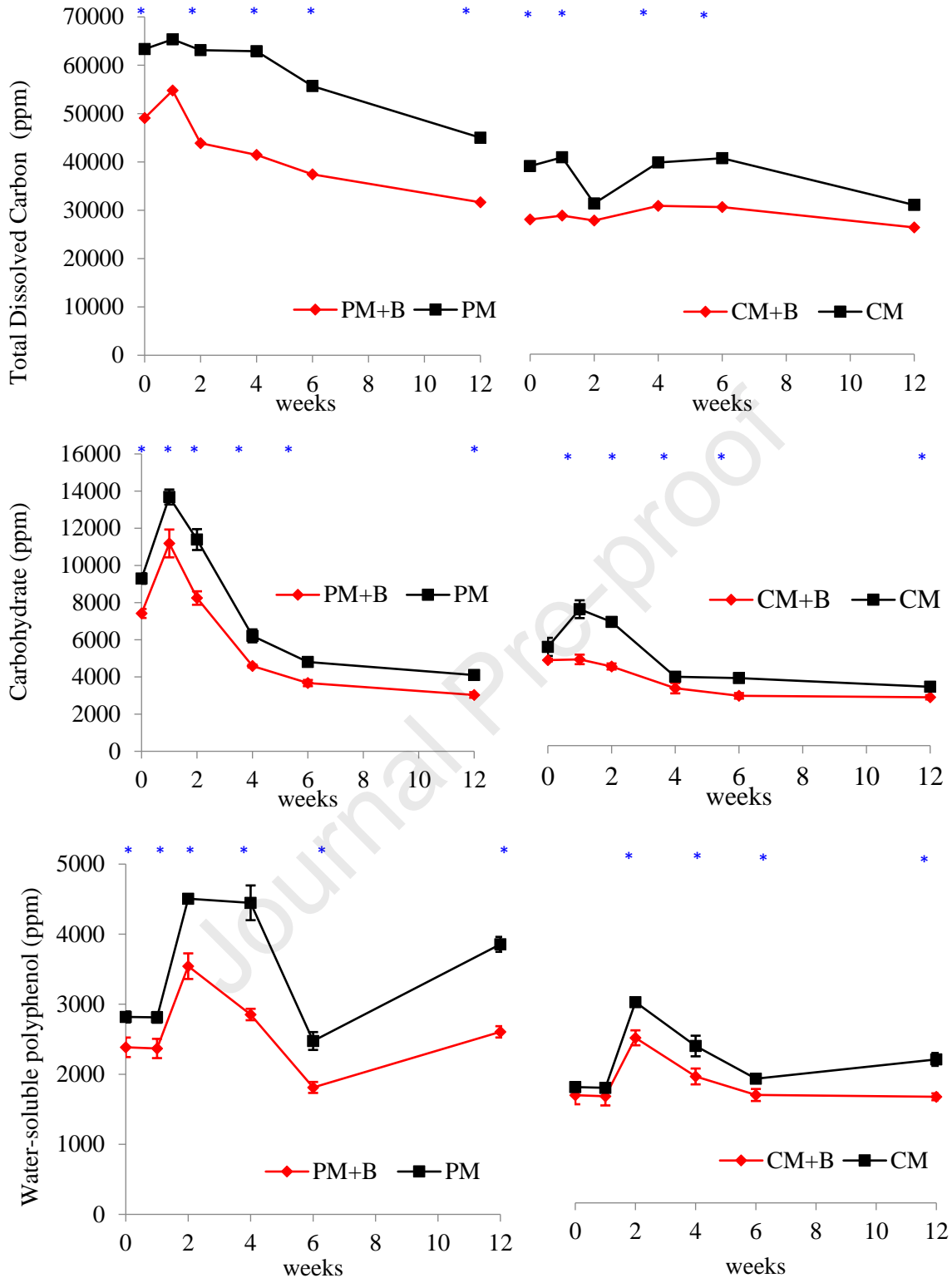


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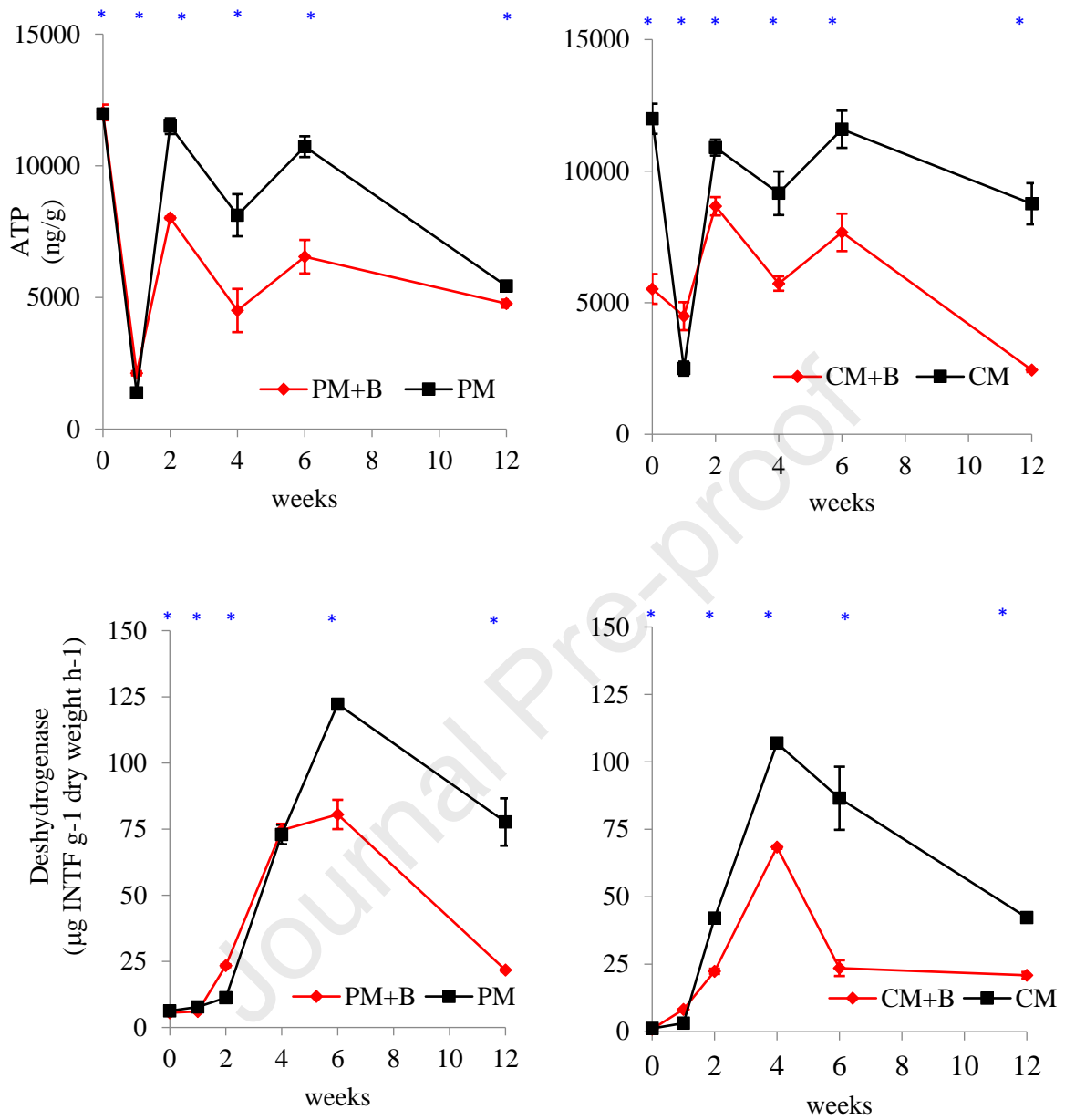


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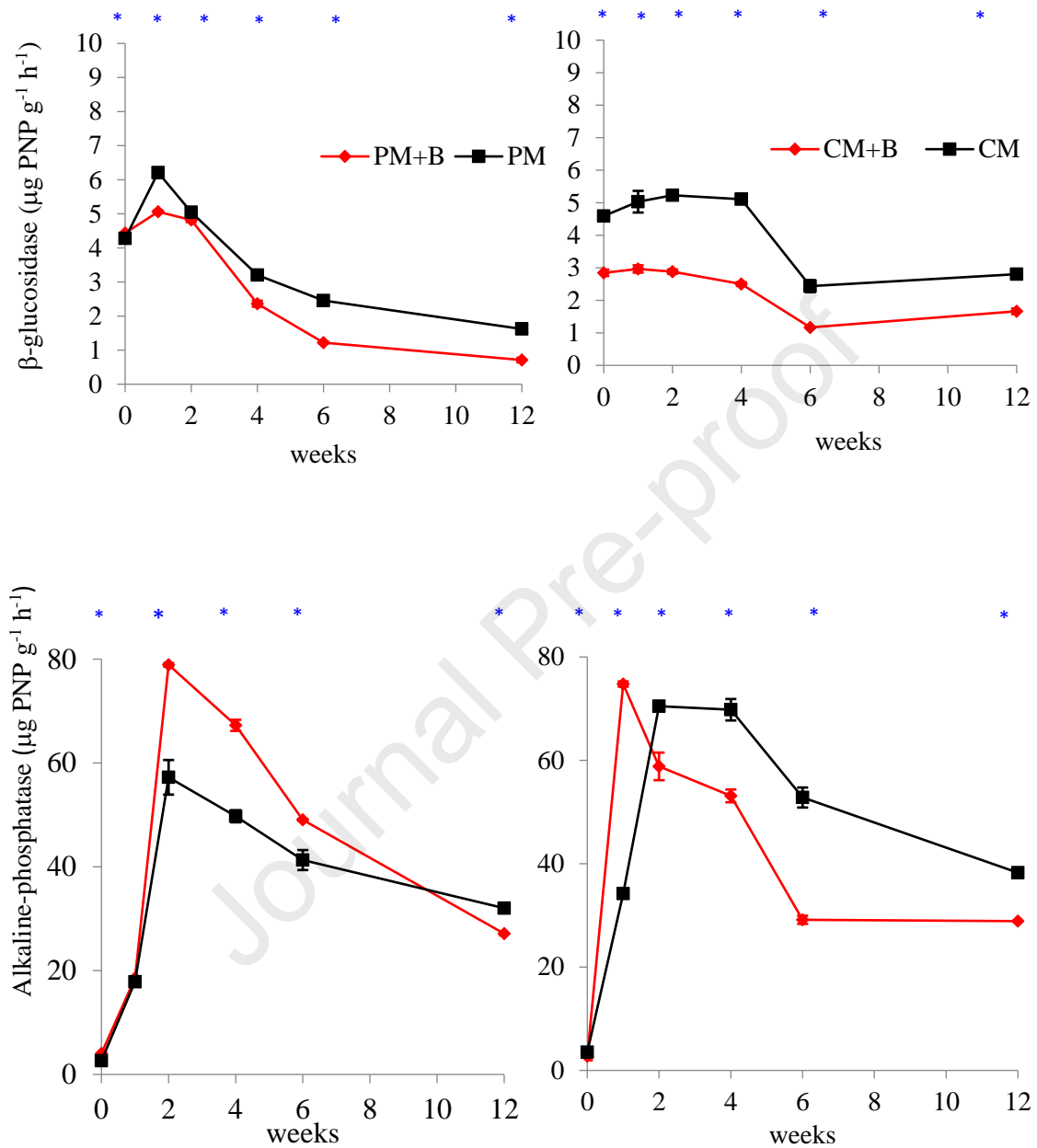


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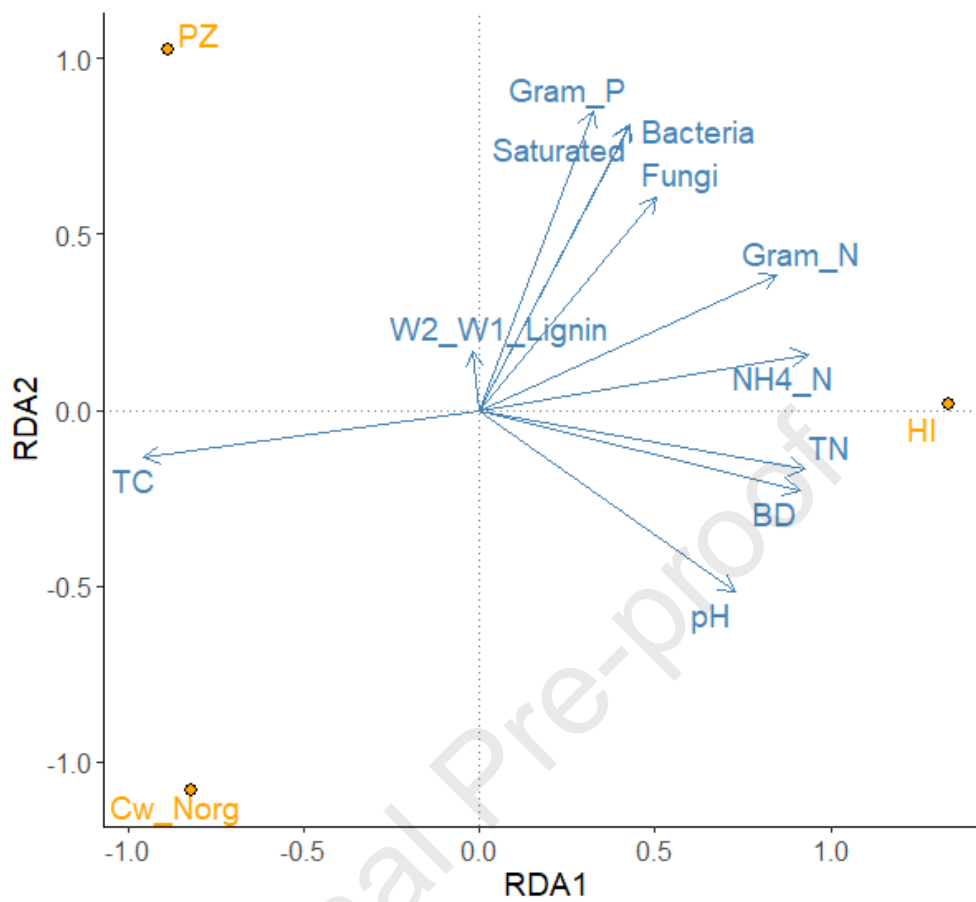


Fig. 7. Biplot of redundancy analysis (RDA) using various indicators of organic matter and key monitoring parameters at thermal stage of composting prepared from cattle manure (CM) and poultry manure (PM), with and without biochar. Data obtained from this study and from our previous our studies (Jindo et al 2012 & 2016). The list of the variables and its abbreviations are described in the supplemental material. The variables with orange letters are response variables (CH_4 , CO_2 , *pmoA*, *mcrA*).

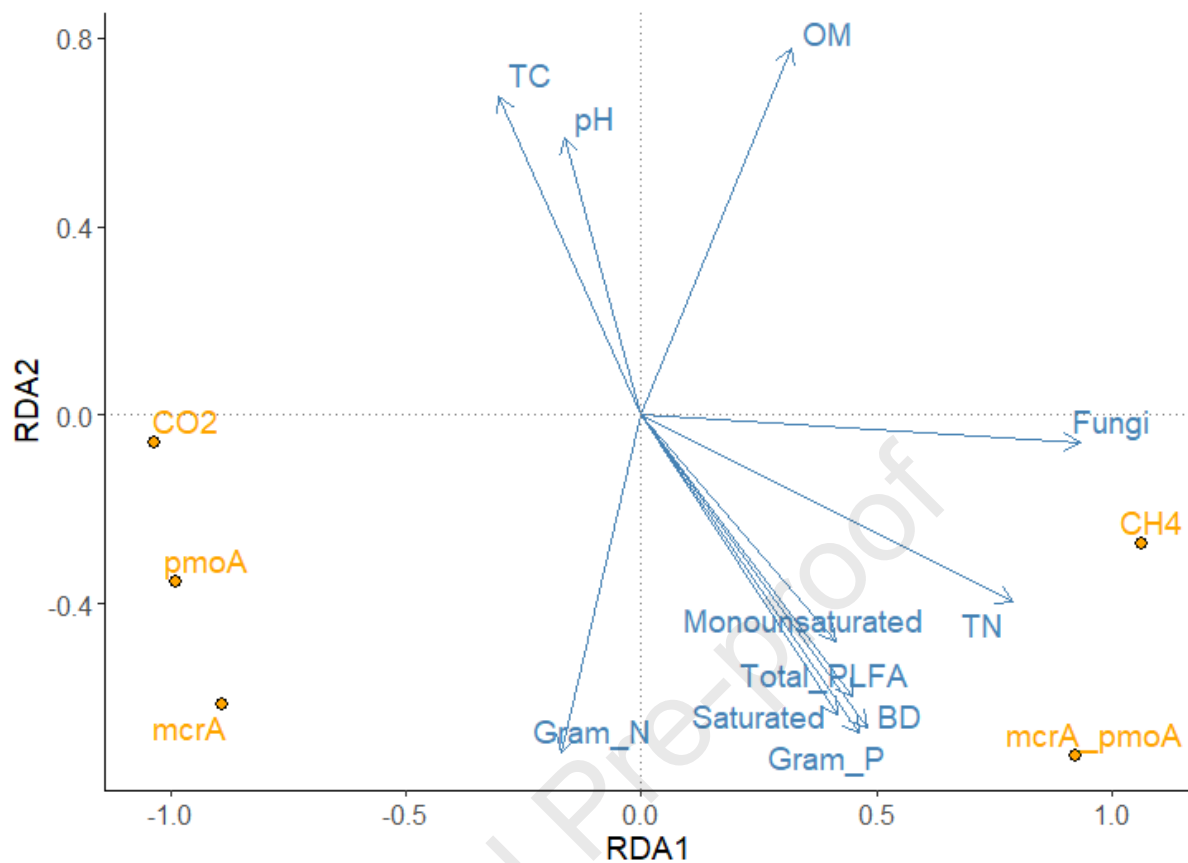


Fig. 8 Biplot of redundancy analysis (RDA) using various indicators of organic matter and key monitoring parameters at final stage of composting prepared from cattle manure (CM) and poultry manure (PM), with and without biochar. Data obtained from this study and from our previous our studies (Jindo et al 2012 & 2016; Sonoki et al., 2013). The list of the variables and its abbreviations are described in the supplemental material. The variables with orange letters are response variables (Cw_Norg: Total dissolved carbon/organic nitrogen; PZ: Polymerization (humic acid/fulvic acid); HI: Humification index).

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Journal Pre-proof

Title: Stabilizing organic matter and reducing methane emissions in composting with biochar to strengthen the role of compost in soil health.

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Declaration of Interest statement

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.