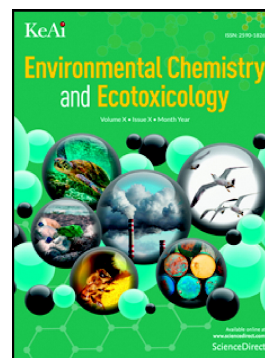


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Enhancing livestock manure composting efficiency through advanced biochar functionalization: A critical review

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Abstract

Composting of livestock and poultry manure (LPM) is a key route for nutrient recycling but faces challenges such as low humification efficiency, greenhouse gas emissions, and residual contaminants including heavy metals and antibiotics. Biochar, with its porous structure and large surface area, has shown great potential as a compost amendment. This review synthesized recent advances in functionalized biochar for LPM composting, covering preparation and modification approaches including physical activation, chemical doping, microbial colonization, composite strategies, and emerging techniques such as molecular imprinting and earthworm bioaugmentation. By comparing the differences among modification methods in terms of performance, scalability, cost, and environmental risk, and by integrating material characterization with multi-omics evidence, this review revealed how specific biochar properties influence composting parameters, microbial communities, and functional gene expression. The multifunctional roles and underlying mechanisms of biochar in optimizing composting parameters, enhancing humification, reducing carbon and nitrogen losses, immobilizing heavy metals, and removing antibiotics are systematically summarized. Finally, this study highlighted key research gaps including mechanistic links between surface chemistry and gene-level responses, and field-scale validation. This work bridged critical gaps between environmental sustainability and agricultural safety offering a comprehensive roadmap for advancing waste management strategies.

Keywords: Functionalized biochar; Livestock manure composting; Pollutant mitigation; Microbial ecology; Antibiotic resistance genes; Sustainable agriculture

1. Introduction

The rapid development of intensive livestock and poultry farming has played a crucial role in meeting the global demand for animal protein. However, it has also led to a significant increase in the production of manure, posing challenges for its effective treatment and utilization. It was reported that China's livestock and poultry manure (LPM) production reaches as high as 3.8 billion tons [1]. LPM is frequently applied directly to soil as a fertilizer owing to its rich content of organic matter, nitrogen, phosphorus, and other essential nutrients [2, 3]. However, to prevent disease and promote animal growth, heavy metals (HM) and antibiotics are often used as feed additives [1, 4, 5]. These substances are not fully absorbed by the animals, with approximately 30-90% being excreted and accumulating in manure or urine [6]. The direct application of LPM to agricultural fields introduces hazardous substances such as antibiotics, HM, and pathogens into soils, posing potential risks to human health and ecosystem stability [7, 8]. Furthermore, improper manure management can lead to soil and water eutrophication as well as increased greenhouse gas emissions [9, 10]. Therefore, developing strategies for the resource-efficient utilization of LPM while minimizing environmental pollution has become an urgent priority in agricultural and environmental science.

Aerobic composting is a controlled biochemical process in which utilizes ubiquitous microorganisms (e.g., bacteria, actinomycetes, fungi) degrade organic matter under suitable moisture conditions and an appropriate carbon-to-nitrogen (C/N) ratio, converting it into stable humus and thereby achieving the detoxification and resource-efficient utilization of LPM [11, 12]. In China, over 80% of LPM produced on farms is composted and subsequently used as organic fertilizer [13]. However, conventional composting suffers from several limitations, such as long fermentation cycles, low humification degrees, limited antibiotic degradation, and unstable HM immobilization [14-16]. Furthermore, substantial emissions of greenhouse gases (N_2O , CO_2 , and CH_4) and harmful gases (NH_3) not only result in significant carbon and nitrogen losses but also exacerbate environmental issues such as the greenhouse effect [17, 18]. These drawbacks not only degrade the quality of compost products but also pose potential risks to ecosystems, thereby failing to meet the requirements of green, low-carbon, and sustainable agricultural practices. Therefore, it is imperative to identify and implement viable solutions to optimize the aerobic composting process.

Biochar (BC) is a carbon-rich, porous material derived from biomass feedstocks (e.g.,

crop straws, wood chips) via pyrolysis or hydrothermal carbonization, characterized by its porous structure, high specific surface area (SSA), and nutrient-rich properties [4, 19, 20]. As a compost additive, BC has shown great potential in LPM composting due to the following advantages: (1) its high porosity and low density enhance compost aeration, thereby improving microbial activity and promoting humification [21]; (2) the exceptional adsorption capacity (AC) effectively mitigates greenhouse gas and harmful gas emissions while retaining carbon and nitrogen nutrients [22]; (3) it facilitates the immobilization of HM and removal of antibiotics and antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) [23]. Furthermore, the incorporation of BC into compost products can more effectively enhance soil fertility and promote carbon sequestration through its unique physicochemical properties [24]. However, pristine BC typically has relatively large pore sizes and limited types and numbers of surface functional groups (FG), which restricts its AC and selectivity in composting applications [25, 26]. To overcome the inherent limitations, increasing attention has been devoted to targeted BC modification strategies aimed at altering its physicochemical properties, enriching functional group types, and thereby enhancing AC and catalytic activity for optimized composting performance. For example, Gu et al. [22] reported that 3% Mg modified corn stover BC reduced CH₄, N₂O, and NH₃ emissions from pig manure compost by 66.7%, 29.0%, and 26.7%, respectively, while effectively improving compost quality and reducing environmental hazards. Following Mg modification, the SSA and pore volume (PV) of BC increased by 46.9% and 40.7%, respectively, resulting in significantly enhanced AC. Similarly, the application of 5% H₃PO₄-modified coconut shell BC in sewage sludge composting enhanced the humification index by 22.19%, while significantly reducing the bioavailable contents of Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Pb, and Zn by 19.32%, 35.28%, 39.72%, 41.99%, 36.28%, and 32.27%, respectively [27]. Despite extensive research on the performance and mechanisms of modified BC in LPM composting, systematic evaluations that integrate the entire chain from preparation to modification and final disposal remains lacking.

While prior research has examined the role of BC in composting, most remain fragmented in scope and fail to fully integrate BC engineering, composting microbiology, and pollutant attenuation mechanisms. To address this gap, this review systematically introduces BC preparation processes, summarizes conventional BC modification strategies, and explores the

application of emerging technologies for producing functionalized BC. It deeply explores the effect and mechanism of functionalized BC in regulating the composting process of LPM. Particularly emphasize the following innovative contributions: (1) Multidimensional classification of BC modification technologies. This review provided a clear comparative framework of current BC functionalization approaches-including mechanical activation, chemical doping, microbial enhancement, composite material engineering, and emerging technologies such as molecular imprinting and carbon nanomaterials-highlighting their respective advantages, limitations, and composting applicability; (2) Mechanistic elucidation of composting enhancement. The review deciphered how BC, especially when functionalized, modulates core composting parameters (e.g., temperature, pH), accelerated humification pathways, reduced gas emissions, immobilized HM, and reduced ARGs transmission via both physicochemical interactions and microbiome shifts. (3) Microbial-ecological interface of functionalized BC. Highlight recent findings on how functionalized BC influences microbial community succession, metabolic pathway activation, and gene expression patterns during composting emerging frontier linking BC materials science with microbial ecology. Finally, this review outlines current challenges and future opportunities, providing a theoretical foundation for optimizing BC-enhanced LPM composting and promoting its large-scale implementation for sustainable agricultural waste management.

2. Preparation of Biochar

2.1. Feedstock Selection

In 2013, the International Biochar Initiative (IBI) formally defined BC as a solid material obtained from the thermochemical conversion of biomass under limited oxygen conditions [28]. As the fourth largest energy resource worldwide, biomass contributes to approximately 14% of global energy consumption, with this share rising to 23.5% in developing countries [28]. Feedstocks for BC production are diverse and can be classified into four main categories: agricultural waste (e.g., straw and manure), forestry residues (e.g., branches and bark), aquatic plants (e.g., algae and reeds), and food waste [29, 30]. The heterogeneity of biomass is mainly reflected in its organic components (e.g., protein, lignin, and cellulose), inorganic contents (e.g., minerals), moisture content, and volatile matter [29]. Generally, the properties of feedstocks significantly influence the suitability of BC for specific applications. For instance, forestry

waste typically contains higher lignin content, resulting in BC with greater porosity and SSA [31]. Such BC tends to have higher carbon content and lower ash content, making it suitable as a soil amendment [32, 33]. Agricultural waste like manure and straw are rich in nutrients, making their derived BC ideal for use as organic fertilizer to enhance soil fertility and crop yield [34]. Algae-derived BC, enriched with oxygen- and nitrogen-containing FG and surface minerals like calcium, magnesium, and sulfur, exhibits excellent AC for pollutants such as sulfamethoxazole, reaching up to 4879 mg/kg [35]. Despite the promising performance of BC in applications such as soil remediation, greenhouse gas mitigation, and pollutant removal, potential environmental risks must be carefully considered. For instance, sludge-derived BC may release HM, and wood-based BC may contain polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) [36].

2.2. Preparation techniques

The physical and chemical properties of BC are primarily influenced by feedstock type and pyrolysis conditions, including reaction temperature, duration, reactor type, and heating rate. Common methods for BC production include pyrolysis and hydrothermal carbonization.

2.2.1. Pyrolysis

Pyrolysis is the most widely used technique for producing BC, involving thermal treatment of biomass at 300-1000 °C under oxygen-limited conditions [37]. Common pyrolysis variants include slow, intermediate, fast, microwave, flash, vacuum, and hydro. During pyrolysis, biomass components such as cellulose, hemicellulose, lignin, carbohydrates, proteins, and lipids undergo decomposition, dehydration, depolymerization, condensation, cross-linking, aromatization, isomerization, carbonization, decarboxylation, dehydrogenation, and deamination reactions, resulting in solid, liquid, and gaseous products [38, 39]. Table 1 compared the operational parameters of various pyrolysis methods.

Slow pyrolysis, typically conducted at lower temperatures with slow heating rates and longer residence times, produces BC with high SSA and carbon content, making it suitable as a soil amendment or compost additive [40]. Fast pyrolysis features higher temperatures and shorter reaction times and is primarily used for producing bio-oil. It can also yield small-particle BC with high surface activity, applicable in gas adsorption and catalysis [40]. Intermediate pyrolysis offers a compromise between slow and fast pyrolysis, balancing solid

and liquid product yields while accommodating a wider range of feedstock particle sizes and enabling better process control [37]. Generally, increasing pyrolysis temperature reduces BC yield and acidic functional group content but increases basic FG, ash content, and stability [41, 42]. Flash pyrolysis rapidly heats and cools biomass at high rates, minimizing volatile loss and maximizing bio-oil yield [40]. However, the yield of coke during flash pyrolysis is limited, and there is no physical form of coke at the end of flash pyrolysis in some cases. Vacuum pyrolysis, performed under low pressure and oxygen-free conditions, removes volatiles via continuous vacuum pumping, reducing secondary reactions and enhancing bio-oil yield [43]. Microwave pyrolysis directly heats biomass using microwave energy, allowing efficient pyrolysis at lower temperatures while reducing energy consumption and pollution [44]. Moisture content plays a critical role in this method, with in situ steam enhancing impurity removal and energy transfer efficiency [37]. Hydro pyrolysis is an emerging technology that processes biomass with hydrogen under high temperature and pressure, modifying the chemical structure of BC to produce highly aromatic, hydrogen-rich char along with valuable hydrocarbons or alcohols [45].

2.2.2. Hydrothermal Carbonization

Hydrothermal carbonization (HTC) is another thermochemical method for converting high-moisture biomass into solid, coal-like products (hydrochar). It is typically carried out in a closed container at a temperature range of 180-350 °C and a pressure of 2-6 MPa [46]. Compared to conventional pyrolysis, HTC demonstrates superior suitability for high-moisture biomass by directly utilizing inherent water as the reaction medium, thereby eliminating energy-intensive feedstock dewatering or pre-drying steps [47]. The primary mechanism of HTC involves the formation of primary carbonaceous material via low-temperature heat treatment, followed by the generation of secondary char through repolymerization reactions [48]. This process typically achieves a hydrochar yield ranging from 25% to 45%, which can be utilized in applications such as adsorbents, catalysts, and carbon-based functional materials. Furthermore, HTC offers advantages including operational simplicity, lower energy demand, shorter reaction times, and reduced environmental impact, while enabling nutrient recovery and lower carbon emissions.

2.2.3. Other Methods

In addition to pyrolysis and HTC, gasification and torrefaction are also used for converting biomass into BC. Gasification involves reacting biomass with gasifying agents (e.g., H₂O, CO₂) at high temperatures to produce combustible gases (e.g., CO, H₂, CH₄) and a small amount of solid residue-BC [49]. As gas production is the primary goal, BC yield is relatively low. Torrefaction is a mild thermal treatment at 200-300 °C under inert conditions. It does not require chemical reagents and avoids secondary pollution [50]. This process removes moisture and oxygenated volatiles, thereby increasing energy density and producing BC with lower H/C and O/C ratios and higher calorific values [37].

3. Modification methods of Biochar

Although preparation methods and pyrolysis conditions have been optimized in some research, the AC of BC remains insufficient for various environmental applications [51]. Therefore, physical, chemical, and biological modification strategies are necessary to fully exploit its potential. The different modification methods of BC were shown in Fig. 1.

3.1. Physical modification

Common physical modification methods include ball milling, steam activation, and gas purging, which aim to increase the SSA, FG, and pore structure of BC. Ball milling employs the kinetic energy derived from the movement of grinding balls to induce the cleavage of chemical bonds, modify particle morphology, and generate nanoscale particles, thereby improving the physicochemical properties of BC [52]. Ball-milled BC has been demonstrated to promote phenanthrene degradation by modulating bacterial oxidative stress, with a degradation rate 2.84 times higher than that of the control group [53]. However, prolonged ball milling may reduce BC catalytic efficiency due to compaction and agglomeration effects [54]. Steam activation facilitates impurity removal and pore unblocking during BC production, ultimately optimizing pore structure [55]. Additionally, this process promotes volatile matter precipitation and increases crystalline carbon content, enhancing BC stability and aromaticity [56]. Rajapaksha et al. [57] reported that steam activation at 700 °C increased the SSA of BC by 207% and enhanced its AC for sulfamethoxazole in water by 55%, attributing the primary adsorption mechanism to electrostatic interactions. Nevertheless, the widespread implementation of this method is limited by challenges in regulating activation temperature, insufficient activation, and low yields. During gas purging modification, specific gases (e.g.,

CO₂ and N₂) interact with active sites on or within BC, resulting in changes to surface FG and optimization of the pore structure. These alterations enhance the AC, catalytic performance, or other specific functionalities of the BC. After CO₂ and N₂ blowing, the modified BC exhibits a high AC for HM lead in water, reaching a maximum of 256.4 mg/g [58], with ion exchange and complexation between HM and surface FG including C=O and -OH serving as the dominant mechanisms.

3.2. Chemical modification

Acid and alkali modification represents the most prevalent chemical treatment for BC, primarily enhancing AC by increasing SSA, optimizing pore structure, and introducing oxygen-containing FG [59]. Acid-modified BC exhibits elevated surface electronegativity, thereby improving stability, whereas alkali treatment enhances surface alkalinity and reduces hydrophilicity [60]. For instance, Chu et al. [61] demonstrated that H₃PO₄-modified wood BC achieved a 296% increase in SSA (from 411 to 1627 m²/g) and a 383% expansion in total PV (from 0.18 to 0.87 cm³/g). Similarly, H₃PO₄-treated plant-leaf BC showed a 43.7% enhancement in ciprofloxacin AC (from 43.48 to 62.50 mg/g), attributed to the negatively charged PO₄³⁻ group enhancing the effective binding of cations in ciprofloxacin molecules to the surface FG of BC [62]. Zhang et al. [63] demonstrated that KOH-modified bamboo BC exhibited a significantly larger SSA (526.36 m²/g) than unmodified (91.17 m²/g), H₂O (191.22 m²/g), CO₂ (174.09 m²/g), ZnCl₂ (96.93 m²/g), and H₃PO₄ modified (85.52 m²/g), achieving a CO₂ AC of 3.73 mmol/g, representing a 1.59 times enhancement over pristine BC. During the pyrolysis process, K⁺ in KOH can degrade the carbon matrix, causing existing pores to expand and form new pores, thereby exhibiting excellent CO₂ capture performance [64]. Similarly, NaOH modification also increased the SSA of wheat straw BC by 4.5 times, and enhanced the interaction between electron donor-acceptor (EDA) and antibiotic FG by enriching surface -OH [65]. These changes resulted in elevated adsorption rates for bisphenol A, tetracycline, and ofloxacin in wastewater by 26.3%, 34.2%, and 72.7%, respectively. Notably, NaOH and KOH have different modification mechanisms for BC. During KOH modification, in situ-generated K atoms are intercalated between the microcrystalline carbon layers, whereas NaOH modification primarily involves surface reactions, with Na exhibiting no intercalation behavior within the carbon structure [66].

Beyond acid and alkali modification, oxidants, metal/metal compound loading, and heteroatom doping were widely used for chemical modification. Oxidants such as H_2O_2 and KMnO_4 exhibit potent oxidative capacity, enabling interactions with carbon atoms on BC surfaces to introduce or augment $-\text{COOH}$, $-\text{OH}$, and $-\text{COO}-$. Furthermore, oxidative treatment optimizes BC pore structures, yielding a more favorable pore size distribution that enhances pollutant adsorption [67]. Yue et al. [68] demonstrated that KMnO_4 -modified corn stover BC exhibited a 3.2 times increase in SSA and a 7.7 times enhancement in oxytetracycline AC (200.4 mg/g). The dominant adsorption mechanisms were identified as hydrogen bonding, π - π interactions, and surface complexation. Beyond effectively augmenting oxygen-containing FG and micropores, KMnO_4 modification also introduced MnO_x species, which facilitated antibiotic degradation through Mn-O complexation [69]. H_2O_2 modification of yak dung BC increased $-\text{COOH}$ group content by 101% while reducing ash content by 42%, thereby significantly enhancing its removal capacity for aqueous HM like Pb^{2+} , Cu^{2+} , Cd^{2+} , and Zn^{2+} [70]. However, pinewood BC modified with higher-concentration H_2O_2 exhibited significantly reduced AC for methylene blue, indicating that the AC of BC is related to biomass feedstock and pollutant type [71]. As an oxidizing agent, H_2O_2 is relatively cost-effective compared to strong acids and bases. Owing to its decomposition products being H_2O and O_2 , it exhibits high environmental safety. The modification with metals/metal oxides can enhance the SSA and active sites of BC, while also regulating surface charge, thereby improving both the surface properties and AC of BC [60]. There are three main methods for metal/metal oxide modification of BC: (1) mixing metal powders with BC followed by ball milling to produce metal-BC composites with enhanced dispersion; (2) co-pyrolyzing metal oxides with biomass to generate in situ functionalized BC; (3) immersing BC in a solution containing metal oxides through liquid-phase precipitation or reduction methods. The impact of different metals or metal oxides on the AC of BC largely depends on their intrinsic chemical properties, including electronic configuration, atomic size, and oxidation state [60]. Research has shown that Fe modified lincomycin fermentation residues BC exhibits excellent catalytic performance in the persulfate oxidation system, achieving a tetracycline degradation rate of 85.1% within 30 min [72]. This represents a 15.5% increase in comparison to unmodified BC. Additionally, it inactivated 60.1% of antibiotic-resistant bacteria (*Pseudomonas aeruginosa* HLS-6) within 60

min, and significantly reduced the abundances of ARGs including *sull*, *sul2*, and *intI1* by 0.05-2.74 log₂. The formation of Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles on BC was found to accelerate the Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ redox cycle, promote electron transfer on the catalyst surface and increase the production of free radicals such as •OH and ¹O₂, thereby promoting attacks on tetracycline molecules, resistance gene fragments, and antibiotic-resistant bacterial cells. Similarly, MnO₂-modified corn stover BC exhibited enhanced SSA and PV, which significantly facilitated electron transfer between syntrophic bacteria and methanogens in anaerobic digestion systems, ultimately increasing CH₄ production by 5.38% [73]. Heteroatom doping (e.g., N, O, S and P) represents an effective BC modification strategy, which can provide more surface FG and active sites. Zhang et al. [74] developed a novel nitrogen-doped porous BC using waste loofah as the raw material, NaHCO₃ as the activating agent, and urea as the nitrogen source through a one-step pyrolysis and co-activation process. Compared to the pristine loofah BC, the nitrogen-doped BC exhibited 6.3 and 5.7 times increases in SSA and total PV, respectively. It demonstrated excellent AC toward bisphenol A (BPA), with a maximum AC of 308.4 mg/g. Pore filling and π-π interactions served as primary adsorption mechanisms, while the incorporated nitrogen atoms formed multiple bonding configurations such as pyrrolic-N, graphitic-N, and pyridinic-N, providing abundant active sites for BPA adsorption. In another study, corn cobs were used as the biomass feedstock, and urea and thiourea were employed as nitrogen and sulfur sources, respectively, to prepare N-doped and S-doped BC via hydrothermal carbonization [75]. The results showed that the removal efficiencies of sulfamethazine (SMZ) by N-doped and S-doped BC, through activated peroxymonosulfate (PMS), were 3.9 and 2.9 times higher than that of unmodified BC, respectively. The incorporation of heteroatoms into the BC matrix enhanced non-radical degradation pathways, thereby significantly improving the antibiotic removal performance.

As a multifunctional material, BC modification methods have attracted increasing attention. Emerging technologies such as carbonaceous materials and molecular imprinting have been successively applied to BC modification, aiming to further enhance its performance and application scope. Carneiro et al. [76] demonstrated that graphene oxide-poultry litter BC composites enhanced Cu and Zn adsorption capacities by 16.2% and 17.7%, respectively, compared to unmodified BC, while simultaneously improving Cu/Zn bioavailability as

micronutrient fertilizers for legume crops. The presence of amorphous carbon on the composite surface facilitated higher oxygen surface functionality, explaining its superior adsorption for Cu and Zn. Inyang et al. [77] used multi-walled carbon nanotubes to modify walnut and sugarcane bagasse BC and found that the modified composite materials had SSA of 351 and 390 m²/g, respectively. The AC of the two BC composites for methylene blue in dye wastewater was significantly increased compared to unmodified BC, reaching a maximum of 6.2 mg/g. Molecular imprinting enhances the selective AC of BC by constructing specific recognition sites, enabling it to target pollutants that are present at low concentrations but exhibit high toxicity in the environment [78]. This technique is also employed for the detection and quantification of trace antibiotics in food and environmental samples. Li et al. [79] developed molecularly imprinted magnetic BC using Fe-Mn modified peanut shell BC as the functional monomer and 0.3 mg/L sulfamethoxazole solution as the template. The resulting material exhibited an SSA of 192.83 m²/g, significantly higher than both non-imprinted magnetic BC (162.48 m²/g) and unmodified BC (40.93 m²/g). The imprinted cavities demonstrated superior sulfamethoxazole AC (25.65 m²/g), representing a 1.34 times enhancement over the non-imprinted counterpart, primarily through hydrogen bonding, electrostatic interactions, hydrophobicity, and π - π stacking. Another research synthesized a molecularly imprinted magnetic BC via molecular imprinting precipitation polymerization, leading to the formation of imprinting cavities on the BC surface [80]. The material exhibited pronounced selective adsorption for oxytetracycline, even in the presence of interfering antibiotics, achieving an AC of 6.10 mg/g. Moreover, the BC demonstrated good stability and regeneration performance, with only a 9.36% decrease in oxytetracycline adsorption after seven adsorption-desorption cycles.

3.3. Biological modification

Microbial modification refers to the process by which specific functional microorganisms colonize and proliferate on the surface of BC, forming a biofilm that imparts biological activity to the BC [81]. Microbial metabolic activity can introduce FG such as -COOH, -OH, and -NH₂ on the surface of BC through biological oxidation/reduction reactions, thereby enhancing the AC of BC [82]. For instance, Qi et al. [83] immobilized microbial inoculants (*Bacillus subtilis*, *Bacillus cereus*, and *Citrobacter* sp) onto corn straw BC for the remediation of soil

contaminated with HM uranium (U) and cadmium (Cd). The results showed that the BC acted both as a physical barrier and a nutrient source for the microbial strains, leading to reductions of 67.4% and 54.2% in bioavailable U and Cd concentrations, respectively. In addition, BC facilitated electron transfer, thereby accelerating the microbial co-precipitation and reduction of U and Cd. Zhao et al. [84] demonstrated that sludge BC modified with the *ZXY4* strain developed a highly porous structure, providing abundant active sites for adsorption. This resulted in 3.6 times increase in sulfamethoxazole uptake from wastewater. Compared to chemical modification, microbial modification offers a more sustainable approach that not only effectively tailors the surface properties of BC to enhance its AC, but also significantly reduces adverse environmental impacts.

As natural “ecosystem engineers” in soil, earthworms not only improve soil aeration and permeability through their movement and burrowing activities but also consume organic waste and utilize their gut microbiota to biodegrade antibiotics, thereby reducing soil pollution [85]. Compared to unmodified and KMnO_4 -modified fruit-derived BC, earthworm-modified BC exhibited 1.3 and 3.6 times increases in average pore diameter, respectively, along with a significant increase in the number of surface FG. Additionally, it enhanced the abundance of carbon-cycling-related bacteria [86]. BC contained abundant extracellular enzymes (e.g., alkaline phosphatase, carboxylesterase) relevant to biogeochemical cycling and bioremediation. Earthworm modification enhances their hydrolytic activity by 8 times, primarily attributed to earthworm mucus effects rather than internal activation within the gastrointestinal tract [87]. BC serves as an effective carrier for microbially derived extracellular enzymes, while earthworms function as microbial stimulants, collectively enhancing enzymatic proliferation for pollutant degradation [88]. Research has shown that the synergistic interaction between earthworms and BC significantly enhanced the degradation of pyraclostrobin and PAHs in soil [89, 90].

3.4. Composite material modification

To further enhance the AC, reactivity, and stability of BC, composite material modification has been proposed. This approach combines the advantages of functional modifiers with those of BC to produce tailored BC-based materials with specific functionalities, thereby meeting the demands of various application fields. For example, Fe-Mn spinel oxide-

modified cattle manure BC demonstrated exceptional performance as a PMS activator, achieving 98.6% removal efficiency of SMZ from wastewater [91]. The extensive conjugated graphite structure in BC induces the reconstruction of Fe 3d orbital electrons, thereby enhancing the valence state transitions of Fe and Mn as well as facilitating electron transfer processes, which collectively contribute to a significant improvement in SMZ removal efficiency. Additionally, approximately 8.6 log units of SMZ-resistant bacteria were inactivated, and the expression of associated ARGs was markedly suppressed, effectively mitigating the risk of horizontal gene transfer (HGT) during bacterial inactivation. Similarly, Fe-Mn bimetallic modification of microalgae-derived BC resulted in more than 4 times increase in both SSA and PV, thereby significantly enhancing its phosphate AC in wastewater [92]. The adsorption mechanism mainly includes functional group complexation, precipitation reaction, electrostatic attraction, and ion exchange. Zhu et al. [81] confirmed that the SSA and total PV of reed straw BC modified with ultraviolet (UV) and *Bacillus subtilis* increased by 1.4 and 1.2 times, respectively. The AC of Cd²⁺ in wastewater increased by 2.1, 1.7, and 1.2 times, respectively, compared to unmodified, *Bacillus subtilis*-modified, and UV-modified BC. UV modification increased the SSA of BC, introduced many oxygen-containing FG, and reduced the Zeta potential, promoting mechanisms such as ion exchange, surface complexation, and electrostatic interactions. Microorganisms adsorb Cd²⁺ through the surface FG of BC and produce extracellular metabolites that form chelates with Cd²⁺. BC provides nutrients and electron donors for microorganisms, promoting their redox function and enhancing their ability to degrade pollutants.

Different modification strategies exhibit distinct performance characteristics and applicability. Physical activation (e.g., steam activation, ball milling) is cost-effective and easily scalable but provides limited control over surface chemistry and catalytic activity. Chemical modifications such as acid/alkali treatment or heteroatom doping introduce abundant functional groups, significantly improving adsorption and redox activity; however, they may cause secondary contamination if washing is inadequate and can increase operational cost. Metal-loaded BC effectively catalyzes redox reactions and promotes pollutant degradation, but excessive metal dosage may raise ecological risks due to potential leaching. Biological modification (e.g., microbial colonization, biofilm formation) offers a sustainable route for

targeted pollutant removal but suffers from stability issues under fluctuating composting conditions. Composite BC and emerging hybrid materials integrate multiple mechanisms and show promising synergistic effects, but their high preparation cost and process complexity may limit large-scale application.

4. Regulation of livestock and poultry manure composting by functionalized biochar

4.1. Improve composting parameters

BC can optimize the composting environment by regulating temperature and pH (Fig. 2). Temperature serves as a critical parameter governing composting processes by directly regulating microbial activity [9]. Tang et al. [93] demonstrated that compared to unmodified BC, Fe-modified wood chips BC amendment elevated the peak temperature (74.9 °C) in swine manure composting systems. Fe-modified BC exhibited 2.5 times increase in SSA and 1.8 times enhancement in total PV compared to unmodified BC, thereby providing favorable conditions for microbial decomposition of organic matter and generating more heat. Similarly, during swine manure composting, the co-addition of 12% wheat straw BC with modified basal salt media (MBSM) extended the thermophilic phase from 14 to 18 days and increased the peak temperature (66.8 °C) by 5.2 °C compared to using 12% BC alone [94]. Generally, the temperature of LPM composting must be maintained above 50 °C for 5-10 days to meet agricultural safety standards for application [95]. Research has shown that the addition of functionalized BC enables compost to maintain at least 10 days above 50 °C, indicating its potential to enhance pathogen inactivation and ensure the biosafety of manure [21, 93]. pH serves as a critical regulatory factor influencing microbial activity and community structure during composting processes [30]. During the initial stage of composting, the decomposition of organic matter generates acidic substances, leading to a pH decrease [96]. BC typically rich in alkaline cations such as K^+ and Na^+ , exhibits strong H^+ exchange capacity [97]. This effectively neutralizes acidic compounds in the compost matrix, helping to maintain the pH within an optimal range and thereby enhancing microbial activity. Gu et al. [21] found that the pH of pig manure compost products treated with Mg-modified BC was slightly lower than that treated with unmodified BC treatment. This difference was attributed to the formation of $MgNH_4PO_4 \cdot 6H_2O$ through the combination of Mg^{2+} , PO_4^{3-} , and NH_4^+ . Ravindran et al. [98] found that adding 3%, 5%, and 10% rice husk BC to LPM and food waste co-composting

systems increased the final pH by 0.6-1.0 compared to the control without BC. This increase was primarily attributed to enhanced organic matter mineralization, intensified ammonification, and the inherent alkalinity of the BC. The pH variations in BC-amended composting systems primarily result from the intrinsic characteristics of functionalized BC interacting with compost substrate properties [99]. Moreover, weakly alkaline fertilizers are generally preferred for soil application, as most plants thrive under slightly alkaline conditions [30]. The addition of alkaline compost helps neutralize acidic soils while enhancing nutrient availability and overall soil health.

4.2. Promote humification

The fertilizer utilization of LPM depends on compost quality. Humus content is a key indicator for evaluating compost maturity, primarily consisting of fulvic acid (FA) and humic acid (HA). The conversion of FA to HA can accelerate compost maturation and enhance the degree of humification [100]. BC enhances microbial catabolic activity by promoting microbial proliferation, supplying nutrients, and mediating electron transfer between microorganisms (Fig. 2). This facilitates the formation of humus precursors and accelerates chemical condensation reactions, ultimately leading to enhanced humus synthesis [101]. Qi et al. [24] found that compared to the CK, 5% MnO₂-modified corn stover BC (MBC) increased the concentrations of humus and HA in chicken manure compost products by 29.1% and 37.2%, respectively. The addition of MBC significantly increased the absolute abundance of humification-promoting microorganisms including *Microbacterium*, *Bacteroides*, *Kroppenstedtia*, *Gracilibacillus*, and *Lentibacillus*, thereby accelerating the humification process. BC could enhance microbial diversity and activity in composting, accelerating organic matter decomposition and facilitating the conversion of unstable small molecules into stable macromolecules [102]. Similarly, nano-BC facilitates the conversion of recalcitrant lignin and cellulose within the compost matrix into humic substances by enhancing microbial activity, significantly improving compost fertility compared to conventional BC treatment [103]. Wang et al. [100] demonstrated that the addition of Mn-modified bamboo powder BC (MBC) increased the HA/FA ratio by 36.5% in compost, significantly enhanced lignocellulose degradation, and ultimately promoted the humification process of the compost. On the one hand, Mn²⁺ enhanced the activity of lignin-degrading extracellular enzymes (e.g., lignin

peroxidase and manganese peroxidase) while being oxidized to Mn^{3+}/Mn^{4+} through redox reactions that generated substantial $\bullet OH$, collectively promoting the degradation of lignocellulosic components. On the other hand, the redox cycling of Mn facilitated electron transfer processes, providing sustained energy support for enzymatic catalysis and thereby accelerating the transformation of lignin intermediates and the polymerization of humus. Furthermore, humification facilitates the effective removal of contaminants during composting, thereby ensuring the safety of the final compost product. BC could enhance the degradation of fluoroquinolone antibiotics and the immobilization of Cu during composting by accelerating humification processes [104, 105]. Future research should integrate advanced spectroscopic and omics techniques to elucidate the precise electron transfer pathways and enzymatic mechanisms by which modified BC accelerates the conversion of FA to HA. Moreover, quantitative modeling linking BC surface chemistry, microbial consortia dynamics, and humic substance formation kinetics is needed to enable property-driven BC design for targeted humification enhancement.

4.3. Reduce gas emissions

The microbial activity and organic matter decomposition during the LPM composting process could cause the emission of irritating gases such as NH_3 and H_2S , as well as greenhouse gases such as N_2O , CO_2 , and CH_4 [22, 106]. It has been reported that the losses of C and N during LPM composting reach up to 48.7% and 27.5%, respectively [107]. These nutrient losses not only reduce the agronomic value of the compost products but also pose significant ecological risks through gaseous emissions. BC showed significantly enhanced adsorption and catalytic performance after modification, thereby reducing gas emissions in compost (Fig. 2). Cao et al. [106] showed that, compared with the control group, the addition of 10% NaOH-modified corn straw BC in the process of chicken manure composting reduced the emissions of NH_3 and H_2S by 40.6% and 77.8%, respectively. NaOH modification increased the SSA, porosity, and alkaline functional group content of BC, thus enhancing its AC for NH_3 . This treatment also promoted the growth of microorganisms such as *Limnochordaceae*, *Savagea*, and *IMCC26207*, which facilitate the conversion of H_2S to sulfate. Concurrently, it inhibited the decomposition and conversion of sulfate to sulfite, ultimately leading to a reduction in H_2S emissions. Additionally, elemental analysis showed that the low O/C and (O+N)/C ratios in

modified BC decreased its surface polarity and hydrophilicity. The resulting inhibition of H₂O molecule penetration promoted gas adsorption. Tao et al. [103] found that adding 5% nanoscale corn straw BC produced by ball milling to manure composting increased the retention rate of total nitrogen by 63.6% and reduced NH₄⁺-N loss. There were mainly three reasons: (1) The high SSA and microporous structure of nanoscale BC are conducive to the adsorption of NH₄⁺-N, reducing its volatilization and leaching; (2) Nanoscale BC can promote the growth and activity of nitrifying bacteria, enhance the nitrification process in composting and the conversion of NH₄⁺-N to NO₃⁻-N; (3) Nanoscale BC enriches the abundance of bacteria related to improving N cycle (e.g., *Desulfomicrobium* and *Chloropseudomonas*) and retention (e.g., *NBI-j*) in the composting process. Another research indicated that 3% Mg-modified corn stover BC not only serves an adsorption function during swine manure composting but also reduces N₂O and CH₄ emissions. This mitigation effect was attributed to the suppression of denitrifying bacteria, such as *Pseudoxanthomonas* and *norank-f-Methylococcaceae*, as well as anaerobic methanogenic bacteria (e.g., *Jeotgalibaca* and *Lactobacillus*). Meanwhile, this composite material reduced the emissions of NH₃ and N₂O by enhancing the expression of the *hao*, *nxrAB* and *nosZ* genes [21]. Moreover, it mitigates NH₃ emissions through the interaction of adsorbed NH₃ and NH₄⁺ to form MgNH₄PO₄·6H₂O [22]. Similarly, Fe-modified BC promoted ammonium adsorption by increasing the SSA and FG (C-O, Fe-O, -OH, -COOH), while selectively enriching nitrogen-cycling microorganisms (such as *Terrisporobacter*) and enhancing the expression of nitrification (*amoA*, *hao* and *nxrA*) and nitrogen fixation genes [93]. Ultimately, this resulted in a 30% reduction in NH₃ emissions during composting. These microbial enrichments and gene activations may be attributed to the addition of modified BC, which optimized the microenvironment of the composting system, including pH, aerobic/anaerobic environment, and electron transfer capacity [91, 99]. Future research should integrate surface chemical analysis with transcriptomics to link specific functional groups with the activation of metabolic pathways, thereby further elucidating the mechanisms of gas emission reduction.

4.4. Enhance pollutant removal

Composting could partially degrade antibiotics and immobilize HMs in LPM through thermophilic conditions and microbial activity, while functionalized BC enhances this process,

thereby reducing the application environmental risks of compost products (Fig. 2). BC-enhanced HM immobilization during composting is predominantly achieved through adsorption, precipitation, electrostatic attraction, ion exchange, and surface complexation mechanisms [16, 108]. Qiu et al. [27] demonstrated that the incorporation of 5% H₃PO₄-modified coconut shell BC significantly reduced the bioavailable contents of HM in the compost product, with decreases of 19.3% for Cu, 35.3% for Fe, 39.7% for Mn, 42.0% for Ni, 36.3% for Pb, and 32.3% for Zn. The porous structure of BC provides it with strong AC, which can fix HM ions in compost and form complexes, thereby reducing their bioavailability [30]. Awasthi et al. [94] showed that compared with unmodified BC treatment, the addition of mixed MBSM and BC reduced the bioavailability of Cu and Zn in pig manure compost products by 3.6% and 10.9%, respectively. MBSM exhibited strong HM immobilization capacity, while BC, with its abundant FG and high SSA, could bind metal ions and regulate microbial community structure to enhance microbial activity and humification [109]. This synergistic effect further promoted HM passivation. Chen et al. [110] observed that H₃PO₄ modification introduced abundant phosphorus-containing acidic FG and increased the SSA of wheat straw BC by 5.6 times. During swine manure composting, the phosphates introduced by BC formed metal phosphates (e.g., Zn₂P₂O₇·H₂O, Zn₂(PO₃)₄ and Cu₃(PO₄)₂) through coprecipitation, while acidic FG (e.g., -COOH and -OH) provided H⁺ for ion exchange with Cu²⁺ and Zn²⁺, ultimately led to 15.2% and 36.5% reductions in bioavailable Cu and Zn contents, respectively. H₃PO₄-modified BC (PBC) treatment altered bacterial community structure and reduced the abundance of host bacteria carrying ARGs and metal resistance genes (MRGs) in compost products. Compared to the treatment without BC addition, the abundances of total MRGs (*copA*, *pcoA*, *cusA*, *trcB* and *zntA*) and ARGs (*sulI*, *sul2*, *tetX*, *tetG*, *tetW*, *parC*, *ermF*, *ermB* and *aac(6')-Ib*) in the PBC-treated compost product were reduced by 58.8% and 66.2%, respectively, while *intI1* was completely removed. Additionally, the porous structure of BC reduces direct microbial contact and limits cell-to-cell adhesion during composting, thereby suppressing the HGT of ARGs and MRGs [111]. Zhou and Li [112] observed that the ARGs abundance in the Nano-Fe⁰ modified BC (NB) amended group decreased by 12.78% during the pig manure process, while the group treated with unmodified BC increased by 28.96%. The application of NB impeded intercellular electron transfer during composting, reduced the

abundance of ARGs-hosting bacteria, and disrupted associated metabolic pathways, ultimately decreasing the overall abundance of ARGs. BC has abundant pores and a large number of FG including C-O, C=O and -OH, which could enhance the adsorption of antibiotics through electrostatic interactions, π - π interactions, and hydrogen bonding, accelerating the degradation of antibiotics by microorganisms [104]. Beyond physicochemical adsorption, biodegradation serves as the dominant pathway for antibiotic dissipation during composting [113]. BC enhances antibiotic degradation by promoting organic matter decomposition and elevating composting temperatures, thereby creating a thermophilic environment conducive to antibiotic breakdown. In swine manure composting amended with 10% wheat straw BC, the degradation rates of oxytetracycline, chlortetracycline, and tetracycline increased by 13.8%, 10.3%, and 23.3%, respectively [114]. The elevated temperature during the process was identified as the primary factor contributing to antibiotic removal. There are many factors that affect the surface function of BC and antibiotics, including pore structure, types and nature of surface functional groups, pH, BC dose, pollutant concentration, coexisting ions [115]. Most research have focused on the adsorption of individual antibiotics in wastewater using BC. However, this approach may not be directly applicable to actual environment, particularly complex systems like the composting process. Thus, future research should integrate advanced techniques such as in situ spectroscopy, isotope tracing, and multi-omics analysis to comprehensively elucidate the mechanisms of antibiotic removal during composting.

Although BC and its modified derivatives were widely recognized for improving composting parameters, promoting humification, reducing gas emissions and enhancing hazardous substance removal, their potential ecotoxicological risks in composting systems also warrant significant attention. Previous research has indicated that inappropriate methods for the preparation and modification of BC could lead to the formation of harmful substances including PAHs, persistent free radicals (PFRs), and perfluorochemicals (PFCs), which could pose risks to soil organisms and human health once compost was applied to agricultural land [4, 36]. PAHs exhibited high biotoxicity and can accumulate in plants and animals, ultimately entering the food chain and threatening human health [116]. Rombolà et al. [117] reported that one year after BC application, the PAHs contents in soil were approximately 6.4 times higher than in the control, reaching 153 ± 38 ng/g. Moreover, BC derived from sewage sludge or

produced at low pyrolysis temperatures tends to exhibit higher bioavailability [36]. PFRs in BC, such as hydroxyl radicals $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$, possess strong oxidative capacities that can severely inhibit plant growth and development [118]. For instance, BC containing PFRs has been shown to significantly suppress seed germination and seedling growth in wheat, rice, and corn [119]. Similarly, PFCs were highly persistent organic pollutants characterized by strong C-F bonds, exceptional thermal stability, and high bioavailability [120]. Kim et al. [121] detected that perfluorooctanesulfonic acid and perfluorooctanoic acid in BC at concentrations of 15.8-16.9 ng/g. Notably, PFCs exhibit limited degradation under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions and may even transform into novel persistent compounds [122]. Future research should focus on developing standardized protocols for BC production and modification that minimize the generation of toxic byproducts, as well as establishing robust ecological risk assessment frameworks specifically designed for compost application. Such efforts are essential to ensure the safe and sustainable integration of BC technologies into modern agricultural practices.

5. Conclusions and recommendations for future

This review systematically examined the preparation and modification of BC and its multifaceted regulatory functions in livestock and poultry manure composting. It highlighted how diverse functionalization strategies, from single modification to composite and emerging material approaches, enhance the adsorption and catalytic properties of BC, leading to improved composting parameters, accelerated humification, reduced gas emissions, and effective removal of heavy metals, antibiotics, and resistance genes. A key contribution of this review was its interdisciplinary perspective, integrating principles from environmental materials science, microbial ecology, and waste management to establish functionalized BC as a core tool for advancing precision composting and sustainable waste valorization. Future research should prioritize the following areas:

(1) Tailored design of BC: Optimize BC properties (e.g., porosity, surface chemistry, reactivity) based on specific composting goals and feedstock conditions. This includes adjusting raw material selection, pyrolysis parameters, and post-treatment methods.

(2) Mechanistic understanding at the molecular and microbial level: Use omics technologies (e.g., metagenomics, transcriptomics) to explore how functionalized BC

influences microbial community succession, gene expression, and enzymatic activities throughout the composting cycle.

(3) Development of smart BC systems. Integrate BC with nanomaterials, functional coatings, or microbial consortia to create multifunctional composites capable of real-time pollutant removal, nutrient release modulation, and biosensor integration.

(4) Focus on field-scale validation of functionalized BC systems under diverse manure management scenarios to assess their practical stability, scalability, and cost-effectiveness.

In conclusion, functionalized BC represents a transformative material for the next generation of manure composting technologies. Through continued innovation in material design and mechanistic research, BC has the potential to play a pivotal role in realizing safe, circular, and climate-resilient agricultural waste management systems.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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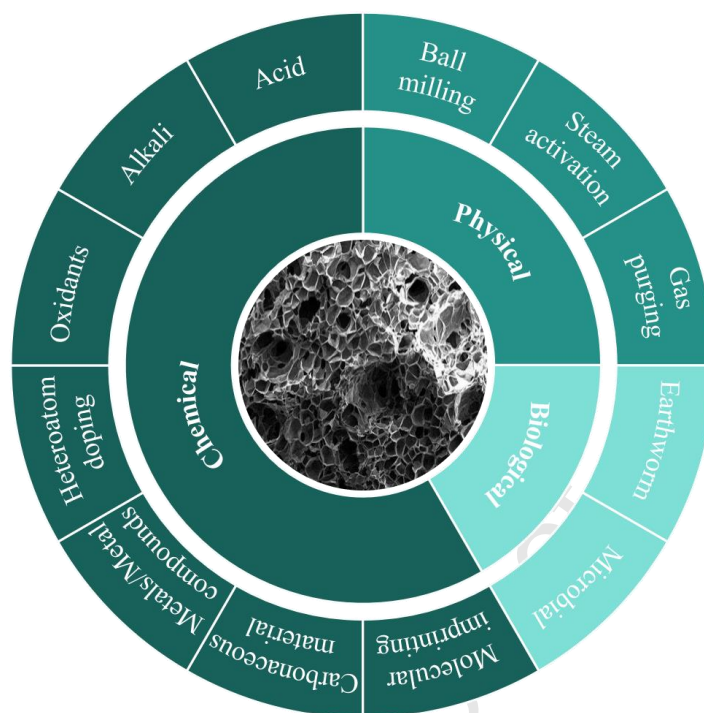


Fig. 1. Modification methods of biochar (BC).

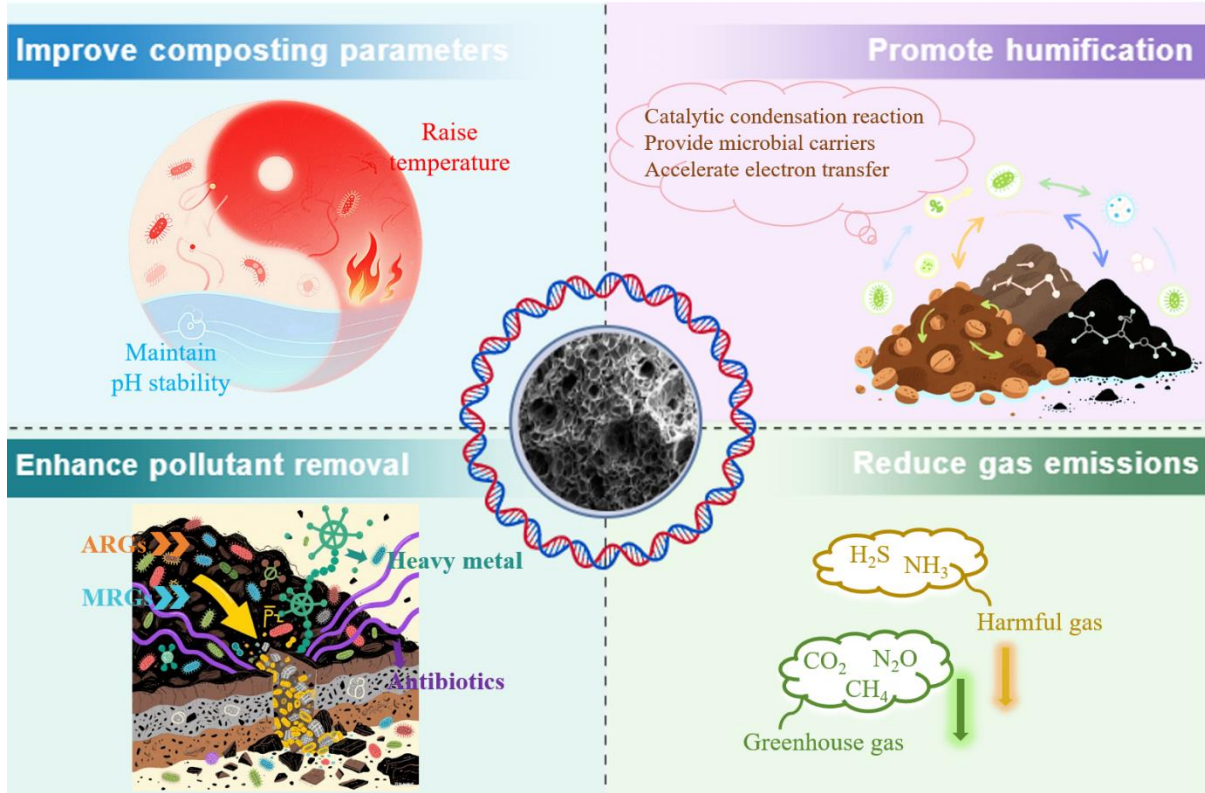


Fig. 2. Regulation of livestock and poultry manure (LPM) composting by functionalized BC.

Table 1 Comparison of different pyrolysis processes for biochar (BC).

| Pyrolysis type | Temperature (°C) | Heating rate (°C/s) | Residence time (s) | Pressure (MPa) | Particle size (nm) |
|------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| Slow pyrolysis | 300-500 | 0.1-1.0 | 300-1800 | 0.1 | 5-50 |
| Fast pyrolysis | 500-1250 | 10-200 | 0.5-10 | 0.1 | <1.0 |
| Intermediate pyrolysis | 500-650 | 1.0-10 | 5-30 | 0.1 | 1-10 |
| Flash pyrolysis | 900-1200 | >1000 | <1.0 | 0.1 | <0.5 |
| Vacuum pyrolysis | 450-600 | 0.1-1.0 | 0.001-1.0 | 0.05-0.2 | 0.01-0.02 |
| Microwave pyrolysis | 300-600 | - | 300-1200 | - | - |
| Hydro pyrolysis | 350-450 | - | ~1800 | 5-20 | 5-20 |

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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Highlights

- Critically reviews functionalized biochar's role in manure composting
- Functionalized biochar enhances composting via superior adsorption and catalysis
- Unveils the interaction mechanisms linking biochar properties to microbial regulation
- Proposes research priorities for tailored biochar design and large-scale application

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