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<b>Name</b>	Carly Graves	<b>ASABE Member #</b>	1058411
<b>Mailing Address</b>		<b>Email Address</b>	
<b>Research Paper Title</b>	Evaluating Acidified Miscanthus Biochar as a Broiler Litter Amendment for Ammonia Control		
<b>M.S. or Ph.D.</b>	M.S.	<b>Expected Date of Graduation (month/year)</b>	May 2023

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Student's Name Carly Graves

Date 3/15/2023

**GRADUATE PROGRAM INFORMATION**

<b>Major Professor's Name</b>	Dr. Mahmoud Sharara	<b>Major Professor's Email Address</b>	msharar@ncsu.edu
<b>Dept Head's Name</b>	Dr. Garey Fox	<b>Dept Head's Email Address</b>	gafox2@ncsu.edu
<b>Department Name</b>	Biological and Agricultural Engineering		
<b>University Name</b>	North Carolina State University		

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# EVALUATING ACIDIFIED MISCANTHUS BIOCHAR AS A BROILER LITTER AMENDMENT FOR AMMONIA CONTROL

## Highlights

- Biochar pyrolysis temperature, acid modification selection, and application rate were statistically significant ( $p < 0.01$ ) for ammonia emissions.
- A stronger acid (citric acid) did not provide more effective ammonia reduction compared to a weaker acid (acetic acid).
- Pyrolysis temperatures of 400°C were better at retaining oxygen functional groups and had higher acidity.
- Residual acid washing contributed to the decreased performance of biochars compared to sodium bisulfate.

**Abstract.** Biochar from lignocellulosic biomass has proven to be a versatile tool in environmental remediation applications for water, soil, and air quality. This study investigated miscanthus biochar potential to reduce ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ) emissions associated with poultry production.  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions present a concern for animal and human health and the environment. Utilizing biochar to address this challenge creates a unique synergy between biomass/biofuels and food animal sectors. Optimizing the physicochemical properties of the biochar can enhance its adsorption capacity. The goal of this study was to test the impacts of biochar production temperature, organic acid activation, and application rate on its performance as a broiler litter amendment to reduce  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions. A randomized block experiment evaluated biochar produced at 400 and 700°C, activated with acetic or citric acid and applied at two addition rates to the litter: low ( $0.24 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ ) and high ( $0.49 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ ). Biochar production parameters, i.e., temperature, and acid type, significantly affected its performance for  $\text{NH}_3$  control. Ordered by magnitude, the following factors statistically influenced  $\text{NH}_3$  emission rate: biochar application rate ( $p < 0.001$ ), biochar production temperature ( $p = 0.003$ ), and lastly acid type ( $p = 0.007$ ). The best performing biochar was produced at 400°C, activated with acetic acid, and applied at a high addition rate ( $0.49 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ ). This treatment reduced cumulative  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization after two weeks by 19.7%. As a reference, the positive control, sodium bisulfate, reduced  $\text{NH}_3$  by 92.2% after two weeks. Future work should focus on larger scale trials and using different acidification methods to optimize carboxyl and other acidic groups on the biochar surface.

**Keywords.** Acidified biochar, agricultural emissions, ammonia mitigation, litter amendment.

## 28 INTRODUCTION

29 As the global population is expected to reach 9.8 billion by 2050, there is an increasing need  
30 to ensure food security to sustain this growth (Searchinger et al., 2018). Urbanization is changing the  
31 way people buy and consume food resulting in an increase in large scale animal production (Henchion  
32 et al., 2017). Projections for protein demand are of particular interest, with the FAO estimating the  
33 demand for animal-derived protein to increase by 102% by 2050 (Boland et al., 2013; Alexandratos &  
34 Bruinsma, 2012). Poultry leads the globe in meat consumption, ahead of pork and beef, and is  
35 expected to continue increasing at an annual rate of 2% through at least 2031. Poultry protein is  
36 preferred due to its convenience, consistent product quality, low fat content, low cost of production,  
37 and consumer affordability (Kleyn & Ciacciariello, 2021; Dohlman et al., 2022).

38 Addressing global food security by improving poultry production efficiency is a priority.  
39 Similar to other confined animal feeding operations (CAFOs), high animal density increases concerns  
40 for air, soil, and water quality inside and near these operations (Sharpley, 1998; Burkholder, et al.,  
41 2007). Most notable for poultry production is the high levels of ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ) inside the barns, that  
42 are released into the atmosphere. This ammonia is produced by the decomposition of uric acid in the  
43 feces (Ferguson et al., 1998; Emous et al., 2019). The EPA estimates that 0.20 kg  $\text{NH}_3$  is emitted per  
44 bird placed per year. With the US alone producing 9.3 billion finished birds per year, this becomes a  
45 significant environmental impact (Baker et al., 2019; USDA, 2022).

46 Ammonia volatilization from poultry production presents several concerns for animal health  
47 and welfare, human health, and the environment (Shah et al., 2012). As  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations increase,  
48 there is increased risk of bird diseases, including footpad dermatitis, reducing overall productivity  
49 (Shepherd & Fairchild, 2010; Kaukonen et al., 2016). At low concentrations humans can experience  
50 eye and throat irritation and the odor produced have significant quality of life impacts for workers and  
51 surrounding communities (Sundblad et al., 2004; Blanes-Vidal et al., 2012). Ammonia released into  
52 the atmosphere can deposit and result in harmful nutrient imbalances in soil and water systems

53 (Longo et al., 2021). With increases in bedding cost, litter is reused for multiple flocks, only  
54 exacerbating the problem (Diarra et al., 2021). For these reasons, researchers and growers prioritize  
55  $\text{NH}_3$  emission reduction at the source in poultry houses.

56 Chemical and biological transformations are the driver for  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization. Microorganisms  
57 within the litter drive the decomposition of the manure, transforming organic nitrogen (N) and uric  
58 acid in the manure into ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) which can volatilize as  $\text{NH}_3$  (Jensen & Sommer, 2013).  
59 Simultaneously, the impact of temperature, pH, and moisture on the  $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NH}_3$  equilibrium reaction  
60 has a large impact on the volatilization potential (Du Plessis & Kroontje, 1964). Strategies to control  
61  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions include changes to animal diet, controlling house humidity levels and temperature, and  
62 utilizing additives or amendments to manipulate manure pH and microbial activity (Zhao et al., 2014).  
63 A major class of litter amendments include acidifying agents, like sodium bisulfate, aluminum sulfate  
64 or alum, and clay treated with sulfuric acid. All of these agents work by lowering the pH of the litter  
65 into an acidic range to trap  $\text{NH}_4^+$  within the litter and reduce volatilization (Joerger et al., 2020; Choi  
66 & Moore, 2008). Alum has been shown to reduce  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions from poultry litter by 70% for three  
67 weeks after application, while sodium bisulfate reduces  $\text{NH}_3$  by 90% for two weeks after application  
68 (Tasistro et al., 2007). Some of these agents however are found to have corrosive properties, requiring  
69 protection of fans and concrete block walls (Hunolt et al., 2015). Another class of litter amendments  
70 include adsorbers, which reduces  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization by physical means rather than chemical. These  
71 typically include naturally occurring, porous biomaterials like zeolite, bentonite, and peat (Wlazło et  
72 al., 2016).

73 Recent research has explored biochar, as a litter amendment due to its adsorbent properties  
74 (Linhoss et al., 2019; Ritz et al., 2011; Flores et al., 2021; Doydora et al., 2011). Biochar is a carbon  
75 rich residue produced by the high temperature treatment (300-900°C) of biomass in the absence of  
76 oxygen (i.e., pyrolysis). During this process, volatile organic compounds are released from the  
77 biomass particle increasing its surface area, at times to several thousand times that of the original

78 particle (Beesley et al., 2011). Additionally, biochar properties can be further modified via physical  
79 and chemical methods to increase the surface area or add specific functional groups to the surface.  
80 Biochar continues to be investigated for various applications, including the adsorption of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  (Ro et  
81 al., 2015; Salimova et al., 2020).

82 Linhoss et al. (2019) found the addition of biochar to pine shaving poultry bedding increased  
83 water holding capacity by up to 32.2% and reported no negative effects on bird health. Flores et al.  
84 (2021) had similar results, finding no negative impacts on bird health as well as high body weight at  
85 20 weeks. Ritz et al. (2011), on the other hand, found that peanut hull biochar addition alone was not  
86 enough to significantly reduce litter  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions. Alternatively, they also evaluated acidified pine  
87 bark and coconut husk biochar activated with sulfuric acid which reduced  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions by 440  
88  $\text{mmol NH}_3 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ , close to 50%. This acidification without subsequent washing lowered the  
89 amendment pH from 9.2 to 2.0. In a slightly different application Doydora et al. (2011) found that  
90 land applied poultry litter treated with HCl activated pine chip and peanut hull biochar (both pH 2.50)  
91 reduced  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization by 58-63%. Most recently, Baral et al. (2023) treated solid separated  
92 anaerobic digestate with orthophosphoric acid activated *Miscanthus* biochar and digestate biochar.  
93 The acid activation, without washing, lowered the pH of the *Miscanthus* biochar from 10.4 to 4.8  
94 while the digestate pH remained 8.9. The treatments reduced  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions by 37-51% in the first  
95 month of storage.

96 These studies demonstrate that acid activated biochars, without a washing step, are more  
97 effective in  $\text{NH}_3$  emission control than non-acidified biochars. However, there still remain many  
98 research questions on what physical and chemical properties contribute to the greatest  $\text{NH}_3$  adsorption  
99 potential. In this study, biochar derived from miscanthus grass (*Miscanthus × giganteus*), a common  
100 fast-growing bioenergy crop originating in Asia, are applied to fresh broiler litter to compare biochar  
101 production temperatures, acid types, and acid strength on the reduction of  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization. The  
102 purpose of this study is to explore the potential for a litter amendment combining adsorbent properties

103 and milder acidifying properties to control ammonia emissions and reduce the use of corrosive acids  
104 inside poultry houses and promote green chemistry practices for environmental remediation.

## 105 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 106 **2.1 LITTER COLLECTION AND CHARACTERIZATION**

107 Broiler litter was collected from a commercial broiler farm in Randolph County, North  
108 Carolina, USA. The farm is under contracted broiler production with Mountaire Farms (headquartered  
109 in Little Rock, AR). Litter was collected at 6 weeks into a flock with 12 flocks previously raised on  
110 this litter (2.5 year old litter). Wood shavings were used as bedding material and litter had received  
111 sodium bisulfate treatment at the beginning of the flock. Sampled litter was collected from multiple  
112 spots throughout the house, excluding wet areas near the watering lines and feeders. A 15 kg sample  
113 of litter was collected and transferred to the BAE Department laboratory at NC State University and  
114 cold stored (at 4°C). The triplicate samples of the collected litter were analyzed Agronomic Services  
115 Lab (North Carolina Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services, Raleigh, NC) to quantify  
116 total N, NH<sub>4</sub>-N, NO<sub>3</sub>-N, total C, C:N, MC%, and pH).

### 117 **2.2 BIOCHAR PRODUCTION**

118 Miscanthus grass (*Miscanthus x giganteus*) grown in Goldsboro, NC was provided by  
119 AGgrow Tech as the biomass feedstock for biochar production. The Miscanthus was heated in a  
120 muffle furnace to 400 or 700°C in the absence of oxygen, i.e. pyrolyzed, for 4 h using nitrogen as the  
121 carrier gas. Thereafter, the resulting biochar was ground to a uniform particle size of 0.1 mm and  
122 subject to acid activation following methods by Doyadora et al. (2011). Acetic acid (AA) and citric  
123 acid (CA) were used for activation at 2 mol L<sup>-1</sup> concentrations for activation.

124 Composition and electronic state of the biochar samples was analyzed by X-ray photoelectron  
125 spectroscopy (XPS) using a SPECS System with PHOIBOS 150 Analyzer. Data reduction, energy  
126 calibration, and peak fitting was processed using XPSPEAK41. Additionally, pH and titration

127 methods were used to quantify free hydrogen ions as well as the total acidity present on the biochar  
 128 using methods described by Gomes et al. (2010).

### 129 **2.3 LITTER TREATMENTS**

130 This study utilizes biochar produced as described above. The effects of biochar production  
 131 temperature, acid treatment, and application rate on litter ammonia emissions were investigated in this  
 132 study. In addition to the biochar amended litter, positive and negative control treatments were chosen  
 133 to benchmark biochar performance. The positive control was sodium bisulfate, (PLT®, Jones  
 134 Hamilton Co., Richburg, South Carolina, USA), which is a commonly used acidifying product to  
 135 control ammonia levels (Hunolt et al., 2015). Sodium bisulfate was applied at the equivalent rate as  
 136 industry recommendations, 0.49 kg m<sup>-2</sup> (0.1 lb ft<sup>-2</sup>) (Jones-Hamilton, 2010). The negative control was  
 137 unamended litter.

138 Two biochar application rates were selected and coded as a low and high addition to the litter.  
 139 The low addition rate (L) was set to half the recommended sodium bisulfate rate, 0.24 kg m<sup>-2</sup> (0.05 lb  
 140 ft<sup>-2</sup>) while the high addition rate (H) was equal to the sodium bisulfate recommendation of 0.49 kg m-  
 141 2 (0.1 lb ft<sup>-2</sup>). Table 1 lists all the treatments and their application rates tested in this study.

142 **Table 1. Litter amendment treatments used in experiment**

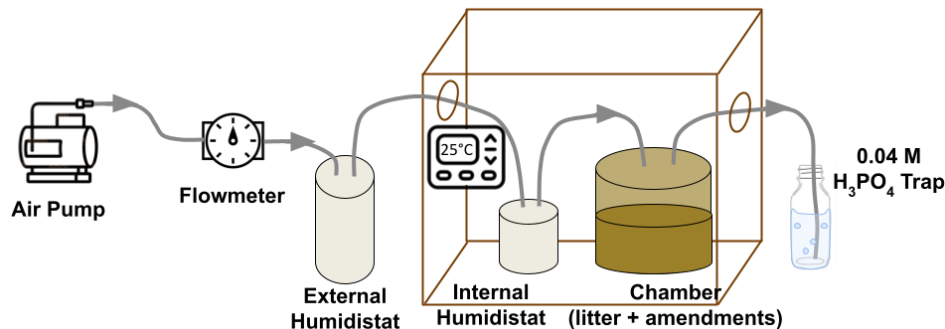
Treatment ID	Biochar Temp. (°C)	Biochar Acid Type	Application Rate (kg m <sup>-2</sup> )	Application Rate (lb ft <sup>-2</sup> )
C	--	--	--	--
PLT	--	--	0.49	0.1
400 - L	400	--	0.24	0.05
400 - H	400	--	0.49	0.1
700 - L	700	--	0.24	0.05
700 - H	700	--	0.49	0.1
400 AA - L	400	Acetic Acid	0.24	0.05
400 AA - H	400	Acetic Acid	0.49	0.1
700 AA - L	700	Acetic Acid	0.24	0.05
700 AA - H	700	Acetic Acid	0.49	0.1
400 CA - L	400	Citric Acid	0.24	0.05
400 CA - H	400	Citric Acid	0.49	0.1
700 CA - L	700	Citric Acid	0.24	0.05
700 CA - H	700	Citric Acid	0.49	0.1

143

### 144 **2.4 EXPERIMENTAL SET-UP**

145 A set of temperature-controlled volatilization chambers, previously used by Kulesza et al.  
 146 (2014), and originally designed and validated by Woodward et al. (2011) were used in this study as

147 shown in Figure 1. Each volatilization chamber is a glass, threaded-top jar 100 mm (3.94 in) diameter,  
148 150 mm (5.91 in) height, with airflow fittings in the cap. Each chamber was filled with 186 g (0.41 lb)  
149 of as-received broiler litter, for a target depth of 50 mm (1.97 in), then covered with the selected  
150 amendment. Figure 1 illustrates the experimental setup used to test the impact of different  
151 amendments on litter emissions. Each treatment was evaluated in four replicates, with chambers  
152 maintained at 25°C (77°F) throughout the testing period (14 days). Upstream to the chambers was an  
153 air pump, flowmeter, and two humidistats to maintain incoming air 100% humidity to increase the  
154 response variable (Cassity-Duffey et al., 2015). Downstream of the litter chambers were bottles filled  
155 with 200 ml 0.04 M phosphoric acid ( $H_3PO_4$ ) to trap gaseous  $NH_3$  released during the trial (Hunolt,  
156 2015). A Hiblow® 80A Septic Air Pump provided airflow with flow rates controlled using Omega™  
157 acrylic mechanical flow meters set to  $1 L min^{-1}$  ( $0.035 ft^3 min^{-1}$ ). Flowmeters were calibrated at the  
158 beginning of the experiment using an Omega™ FMA 1818A mass flow meter. A timer (24 Hour BN-  
159 LINK) was utilized to control pump operation using a 5 minute on, 30 minute off cycle to maintain an  
160 air exchange rate (ACH) of  $15 h^{-1}$  to mimic air exchange rates of a typical broiler house (Carr et al.,  
161 1990). Each run was conducted for a total of two weeks. During each run, treatments were  
162 simultaneously evaluated in four replicates, each with a positive and negative control.



163  
164 **Figure 1. Ammonia volatilization study chamber set-up**

## 165 2.5 AMMONIA EMISSION QUANTIFICATION

166 Acid traps were replaced at the following intervals (in hours from the test start): 1, 3, 6, 9, 12,  
167 18, 24, 36, 48, 60, 72, 84, 96, 108, 120, 144, 168, 192, 216, 240, 264, 288, 312, and 336 hours.



168 Collected acid bottles were capped and immediately refrigerated at 3°C (38°F) until analysis. To track  
169 the mass balance of the system, humidistats and litter chambers were weighed at the start and end of  
170 the study, as well as all acid bottles before and after placement. The entire system was routinely  
171 checked to verify flow rates, the timer setting, and acid traps were in place and bubbling exhaust  
172 airflow as expected. A 50 ml aliquot from each used acid bottle was submitted to the Environmental  
173 Analysis Lab (NC State University) for quantifying trapped NH<sub>3</sub>. A K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-CuSO<sub>4</sub> digestion was  
174 conducted prior to ammonia-salicylate-nitroprusside-hypochlorite calorimetry analysis on a Lachat  
175 Instrument Autoanalyzer System. A dilution factor of 100 was applied to all samples.

## 176 **2.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

177 Treatments in this study were arranged in a randomized block design with each chamber  
178 representing an experimental unit while each box is an experimental block. Student t tests were  
179 conducted for a means comparison between amendment properties and cumulative NH<sub>3</sub> release after  
180 one and two weeks using JMP Pro 16 statistical package (SAS Institute, 2019). Statements of  
181 statistical significance were accepted at  $\alpha < 0.05$ .

## 182 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### 183 **3.1 BIOCHAR CHARACTERISTICS**

184 Acidified and unmodified biochar properties are included in Table 2. Increasing pyrolysis  
185 temperature from 400 to 700°C increased biochar carbon content by 7% as a result of a greater  
186 volatile matter loss due to higher conversion severity (Li et al., 2017). Acid modification using citric  
187 or acetic acid had no effect on total oxygen (O). Increased biochar production temperatures led to  
188 increases in biochar pH from 7.29 to 9.95. Higher pyrolysis temperatures resulted in an increase in pH  
189 due to the decrease of organic functional groups such as carboxyl and hydroxyls (Chellappan et al.,  
190 2018).

191            Acidified biochar had significantly lower pH levels between 2.71 and 3.88. Citric acid treated  
192 biochars had significantly lower pH levels than acetic acid treated chars for both temperature levels,  
193 attributed to the fact that citric acid has three carboxyl groups and acetic acid has one. Acidified  
194 biochars pH was comparable to values observed in commercial litter amendments, e.g., aluminum  
195 sulfate (alum) and acidified clay have a  $\text{pH} < 3$ , putting them in the desirable range as an acidic litter  
196 amendment. Acidity values shown in represent the combined effect of the following groups: carbonyl,  
197 carboxyl, hydroxyl, and lactone groups. Total acidity was higher in biochar produced at  $400^{\circ}\text{C}$  than  
198  $700^{\circ}\text{C}$ , with a mean of 968 and 477  $\mu\text{moles/g}$  acidic group, respectively. This trend was expected  
199 considering O groups contribute greatly to acidity and higher pyrolysis temperatures observed a  
200 reduction in O content (Wang et al., 2020). Additionally, acid activation increased total acidity by 33-  
201 73% in  $700^{\circ}\text{C}$  biochar and 80-88% in  $400^{\circ}\text{C}$  biochar.

202            Acid activation aims to transfer acid groups ( $-\text{COOH}$ ) to the biochar surface, and acidification  
203 methods seem to play a large role in this transfer. The biochar and acid mixing duration used by Doydora  
204 et al. (2011) was a short duration compared to other studies who used mixing durations of 3 to 24 hours  
205 (Liu et al., 2020). This observed phenomenon could also be attributed to the acid type used in this study,  
206 i.e. citric and acetic acids, which are considerably weaker than mineral acids such as nitric, phosphoric,  
207 and sulfuric acids. Current studies that evaluate acetic or citric acid modified biochar do not report  
208 acidity values, only pH (Sun et al., 2015). Another important factor in the attachment and presence of  
209 acid groups is whether a residual acid washing step was used. Several studies do not report washing the  
210 acidified biochar prior to testing. Meanwhile, others report washing the biochar with water until the  
211 biochar reaches a neutral pH of 7.0 (Lonappan et al., 2020). Unwashed, acidified biochar will show  
212 greater acidity values due to acid residuals present. The lack of studies solely on post-activation  
213 processing (i.e. washing, acidification duration) makes it difficult to conclude any of these reasons alone  
214 are responsible for the results found in this study.

215 **Table 2. Chemical properties of Miscanthus biochar before and after activation using acetic acid (AA) and citric acid**  
 216 **(CA)**

Biochar Type	400°C	400°C - AA	400°C - CA	700°C	700°C - AA	700°C - CA
Mass Yield (%)	34.1%	-	-	24.5%	-	-
Carbon (wt. %)	85%	84%	84%	92%	95%	95%
Oxygen (wt. %)	15%	16%	16%	8%	5%	5%
pH	7.29 ± 0.04	3.88 ± 0.30	2.71 ± 0.12	9.95 ± 0.13	3.54 ± 0.09	3.08 ± 0.06
Acidity (µmoles/g)	968 ± 66	1,739 ± 56	1,821 ± 22	477 ± 96	636 ± 46	826 ± 110

217

### 218 3.2 LITTER CHARACTERISTICS

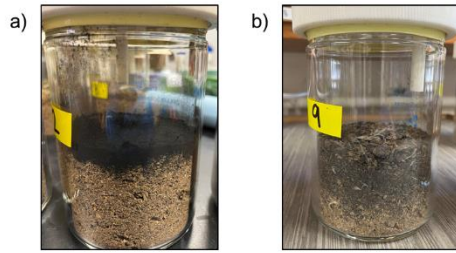
219 Litter properties before and after emission testing are shown in Table 3. Initial litter samples  
 220 did not contain any amendments, while final samples included respective amendments, except for the  
 221 negative control (C) samples. Consistent trends observed among all treatments include an increase in  
 222 litter moisture content from 6.6-13.5% due to. A decrease in total nitrogen, ranging from 4.6-9.8%  
 223 (dry basis) was observed for all biochar treatments after two weeks of incubation, while the control  
 224 saw a decrease of 6.2% and sodium bisulfate 3.7%. This decrease is attributed mostly to NH<sub>3</sub>  
 225 volatilization, which was captured in the acid traps throughout the experiment. Mineralization of N  
 226 from organic to non-organic forms (i.e. NO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrification and denitrification processes  
 227 are potential pathways for N loss. Nitrification takes approximately two to six weeks, so this pathway  
 228 is less likely to have played a large role in N loss from litter samples. Finally, a decrease in pH by  
 229 1.7% in the control, 4.6% in sodium bisulfate, and 0.5-1.8% for all biochar treatments. The reduction  
 230 in pH for the control is attributed to the organic matter decomposition similar to all other treatments,  
 231 as well as the increased NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization since ammonia is a basic compound. The combination of  
 232 these three properties, i.e., moisture content, pH, and nitrogen content and speciation, are the largest  
 233 factors contributing to NH<sub>3</sub> formation of in poultry litter (Ritz et al., 2004). In general, NH<sub>3</sub> emissions  
 234 are higher when litter pH is above 8.0, while litter between 7.5 and 8.5 will show 50-80% of total  
 235 available N in the litter converted to NH<sub>3</sub> (Carr et al., 1990; Reece et al., 1979).

**Table 3. Broiler litter properties before and after ammonia volatilization testing (two week duration)**

Treatment ID		Moisture Content (%)	Total N (g kg <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>[a]</sup>	NH <sub>4</sub> -N (g kg <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>[a]</sup>	NO <sub>3</sub> -N (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>[a]</sup>	pH
Mean ± Std. Deviation						
Initial	--	24.3 ± 0.65	30.4 ± 1.2	5.0 ± 0.2	74.5 ± 7.7	8.26 ± 0.05
Final	C	27.0 ± 0.6	27.5 ± 0.8	4.5 ± 0.2	67.1 ± 12.3	8.12 ± 0.08
	PLT	27.6 ± 1.3	28.0 ± 0.6	5.3 ± 0.8	71.2 ± 9.3	7.88 ± 0.07
	400 - L	26.6 ± 0.2	27.1 ± 0.4	4.7 ± 0.1	62.8 ± 6.1	8.15 ± 0.03
	400 - H	25.9 ± 0.2	28.4 ± 0.2	4.6 ± 0.0	72.3 ± 6.3	8.18 ± 0.02
	700 - L	27.1 ± 0.4	26.4 ± 0.6	4.6 ± 0.2	43.7 ± 8.9	8.13 ± 0.05
	700 - H	26.2 ± 0.3	28.0 ± 1.1	4.6 ± 0.2	73.7 ± 8.4	8.21 ± 0.01
	400 AA - L	26.6 ± 0.1	27.0 ± 0.2	4.7 ± 0.2	63.5 ± 10.2	8.12 ± 0.05
	400 AA - H	26.1 ± 0.4	27.5 ± 0.9	4.5 ± 0.2	70.9 ± 4.1	8.19 ± 0.02
	700 AA - L	26.9 ± 0.6	27.0 ± 0.7	4.7 ± 0.2	58.9 ± 20.2	8.11 ± 0.04
	700 AA - H	26.2 ± 0.1	28.0 ± 0.5	4.6 ± 0.2	72.9 ± 6.1	8.19 ± 0.03
	400 CA - L	27.0 ± 0.2	27.0 ± 1.1	4.3 ± 0.2	81.5 ± 2.6	8.13 ± 0.10
	400 CA - H	27.2 ± 0.3	27.9 ± 0.8	4.3 ± 0.1	76.3 ± 1.9	8.22 ± 0.03
	700 CA - L	27.3 ± 0.4	26.8 ± 0.9	4.3 ± 0.1	83.7 ± 5.8	8.13 ± 0.11
	700 CA - H	27.1 ± 0.4	26.6 ± 1.0	4.3 ± 0.1	78.5 ± 6.9	8.16 ± 0.08

237 <sup>[a]</sup> Wet basis

238 Despite no mechanical mixing after amendment addition (Figure 2a), biochar covers migrated  
 239 downward through the litter layer (Figure 2b). Vibration, attributed to mechanical fan and air flow  
 240 inside environment-control boxes, combined with the small biochar particle size (0.1 mm) can be the  
 241 cause behind this observation. Covali et al. (2021) found that acid modified biochar were less  
 242 hydrophobic than unmodified chars allowing them to incorporate more when surface applied to cattle  
 243 digestate. Mixing of amendments and litter would be expected when used in full-scale broiler houses  
 244 due to bird activity. Mold formation was observed in some experimental units (Figure 3) but there  
 245 was no specific treatment associated with this observation. The bedding material age (2.5 years),  
 246 coupled with high moisture level in the incubation chambers are the likely causes of this phenomenon  
 247 (Bernhart & Fasina, 2008). No fungicides were applied to the litter prior to sampling for our study.

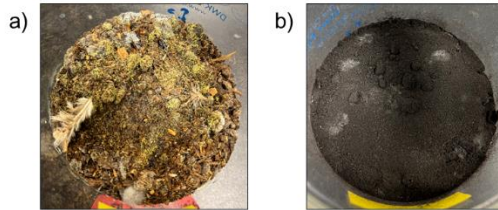


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**Figure 2. Visual differences in biochar mixing across the litter profile after 2 weeks; some jars showed little mixing (a), while others mixed further down into the litter (b)**



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**Figure 3. Molding incidents in sodium bisulfate (a) and biochar (b) treatments**

253

### **3.3 CUMULATIVE AMMONIA EMISSIONS**

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All treatments showed a linear increase in cumulative  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  released throughout the experiment, with  $R^2$  values for linear fit ranging between 0.96-1.00 for all treatments except sodium bisulfate with  $R^2 = 0.47$ . There were close to zero emissions at the one-week mark for the sodium bisulfate treatment, with a slight decrease in performance between one and two weeks as shown by the second order graph shape. The negative control treatment showed the largest  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  release compared to all other treatments.

260

Table 4 summarizes cumulative  $\text{NH}_3$  released after one and two weeks of incubation. Sodium bisulfate performed significantly better than biochar treatments, with a 92.2%  $\text{NH}_3$  reduction at two weeks. Alternatively, the best performing biochar treatment, 400 AA - H, showed a 19.7 % reduction after two weeks. Doyadora et al. (2011) found a 58-63%  $\text{NH}_3$  reduction from surface application of acidified biochar and poultry litter to soil. However, biochar and poultry litter were mixed thoroughly at a 1:1 ratio, biochars were treated with HCl for 24 hours, residual acid was not washed away, and the final biochar pH was 2.5. For all these reasons, a much higher reduction in  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions can be attributed to the difference in acid strength, residual acid from treatment, and treatment duration. Ritz

267

268 et al. (2011) had more comparable findings to the present study at an identical application rate of 0.24  
 269 kg m<sup>-2</sup> using biochar acidified using H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> without residual acid washing (biochar pH of 2). At  
 270 application rates of 0.73 kg m<sup>-2</sup> Ritz et al. found NH<sub>3</sub> reduction increased from 5% to almost 50%.

271 **Table 4. Cumulative NH<sub>3</sub>-N released (mg g litter<sup>-1</sup>) during litter incubation**

Treatment ID	After one week <sup>[a]</sup>	After two weeks <sup>[a]</sup>
C	1.03 ± 0.06 <sup>a</sup>	1.88 ± 0.09 <sup>a</sup>
PLT	0.01 ± 0.01 <sup>h</sup>	0.15 ± 0.09 <sup>g</sup>
400 - L	0.95 ± 0.04 <sup>b, c, d</sup>	1.80 ± 0.08 <sup>a, b</sup>
400 - H	0.84 ± 0.04 <sup>e, f</sup>	1.61 ± 0.06 <sup>e, f</sup>
700 - L	0.91 ± 0.05 <sup>c, d, e</sup>	1.74 ± 0.07 <sup>b, c, d</sup>
700 - H	0.84 ± 0.01 <sup>e, f</sup>	1.63 ± 0.03 <sup>d, e, f</sup>
400 AA - L	0.79 ± 0.13 <sup>f, g</sup>	1.59 ± 0.21 <sup>e, f</sup>
400 AA - H	0.74 ± 0.05 <sup>g</sup>	1.51 ± 0.05 <sup>f</sup>
700 AA - L	0.91 ± 0.06 <sup>c, d, e</sup>	1.73 ± 0.09 <sup>b, c, d</sup>
700 AA - H	0.88 ± 0.05 <sup>d, e</sup>	1.66 ± 0.05 <sup>e, d, e</sup>
400 CA - L	0.96 ± 0.07 <sup>b, c</sup>	1.76 ± 0.09 <sup>b, c</sup>
400 CA - H	0.83 ± 0.03 <sup>e, f</sup>	1.59 ± 0.03 <sup>e, f</sup>
700 CA - L	1.02 ± 0.04 <sup>a, b</sup>	1.86 ± 0.06 <sup>a, b</sup>
700 CA - H	0.94 ± 0.06 <sup>c, d</sup>	1.74 ± 0.10 <sup>b, c, d</sup>

<sup>[a]</sup> Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly different ( $\alpha < 0.05$ ).  
 Emissions at one and two weeks were run in a fit of least squares, separately.

272  
273

### 274 3.4 BIOCHAR TREATMENT IMPACTS ON AMMONIA EMISSIONS

275 Analysis of variance was conducted to assess the impact of biochar properties (production  
 276 temperature, acid type, and application rate) on cumulative NH<sub>3</sub>-N released (mg g litter<sup>-1</sup>). An  
 277 interaction term was added to explore any potential synergies between biochar production temperature  
 278 and acid type used in activation. Overall, the model goodness-of-fit, R<sup>2</sup> = 0.50, indicated biochar  
 279 described half of the variability observed in emissions.

280 Biochar amendment rate was by far the most influential factor on NH<sub>3</sub> emissions ( $p < 0.001$ ).  
 281 Biochar applied at the 0.49 kg m<sup>-2</sup> rate released an average 1.62 mg NH<sub>3</sub>-N g litter<sup>-1</sup> while the 0.24 kg  
 282 m<sup>-2</sup> addition rate released an average of 1.75 mg NH<sub>3</sub>-N g litter<sup>-1</sup>. Biochar production temperature was  
 283 the second most influential factor impacting cumulative NH<sub>3</sub> emissions ( $p = 0.003$ ), with 400°C

284 biochar amended litter releasing 1.64 mg NH<sub>3</sub>-N g litter<sup>-1</sup> and 700°C releasing 1.73 mg NH<sub>3</sub>-N g  
285 litter<sup>-1</sup>. Least important, but still statistically significant, was the acid choice ( $p = 0.007$ ), with acetic  
286 acid activated biochar treatments releasing 1.62 mg NH<sub>3</sub>-N g litter<sup>-1</sup> while citric acid biochar  
287 treatments releasing 1.73 mg NH<sub>3</sub>-N g litter<sup>-1</sup>.

288         The performance of the high addition rate versus the low addition rate is possibly due to a  
289 thicker cover on top of the litter acting as a physical barrier reducing volatilization. Further analysis of  
290 the biochar after the experiment with XPS could have confirmed or rejected this theory. Biochar  
291 produced at 400°C was more effective in reducing NH<sub>3</sub> emissions than that produced at 700°C. This  
292 observation could be attributed to the higher concentration of oxygen functional groups present  
293 (associated with more acidic groups and a lower pH). Acetic acid was significantly better as an  
294 activation acid than both unacidified biochar and citric acid at reducing NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization. Although  
295 citric acid performed slightly better than no acid addition, there was no statistically significant  
296 difference between the two based on a means comparison (1.73 versus 1.69 mg NH<sub>3</sub>-N g litter<sup>-1</sup>).  
297 Citric acid resulted in biochar with lower pH than acetic acid, as well as higher acidity so it cannot be  
298 determined whether pH or acidity are the greatest contributor. Although citric acid is the stronger  
299 acid, the biochar was washed after acid activation removing residual acid from the biochar surface  
300 possibly minimizing this effect (Soto-Herranz et al., 2022).

301         The assumption would be that the acetic acid was then more effective at transferring acidic  
302 groups to the biochar than citric acid due to its increased performance, but that is not supported by the  
303 titration data in Table 1. Previously, Lonappan et al. (2019) found that citric acid at comparable  
304 strengths increased total acidic functional groups by 10-26% in pinewood, pig manure, and almond  
305 shell biochars. Their study soaked the biochar in acid for 24 hours which could be a large contribution  
306 to their more successful activation.

## 307 **CONCLUSIONS**

308           Two week litter incubation studies confirmed that biochar application rate is the most  
309 important factor for a litter amendment, followed by the biochar production temperature, and lastly  
310 acid type. The presence of acidic sites on the biochar had a strong correlation to increased NH<sub>3</sub>  
311 reduction. The most effective treatment was 400 AA - H, which was biochar produced at 400°C,  
312 treated with acetic acid and applied at a high addition rate with a 19.7% NH<sub>3</sub> reduction after two  
313 weeks. A commonly used product in the poultry industry, sodium bisulfate, saw 92.2% reduction after  
314 two weeks. While the goal of this study was not to compare acidified biochar performance to products  
315 currently used in commercial applications, it is a benchmark of how much improvement needs to  
316 occur for biochar to be considered a viable alternative in the poultry industry and provide a return on  
317 investment. Biochar activation methods are essential to adequately modifying functional groups and  
318 pH of the biochar. Longer soaking times and no residual acid washing step increase successful  
319 activation.

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