

RESEARCH

Open Access



# Influence of biochar feedstock blends on soil enzyme activity, nutrient cycling, lettuce biomass accumulation and photosynthesis

Jiri Holatko<sup>1,2</sup> , Jiri Kucerik<sup>1</sup> , Adnan Mustafa<sup>1,3\*</sup> , Kamila Lonova<sup>4</sup> , Manzer H. Siddiqui<sup>5</sup>, Muhammad Naveed<sup>6</sup>, Tereza Hammerschmiedt<sup>1</sup> , Antonin Kintl<sup>1,7</sup> , Ondrej Malicek<sup>1</sup> , Tomas Chorazy<sup>8</sup> , Tivadar Baltazar<sup>1</sup> and Martin Brtnicky<sup>1,9\*</sup>

## Abstract

The thermal conversion of municipal sewage sludge (MSS) offers significant potential for sustainable waste management, particularly through the production of biochar. This study investigates the properties and soil application effects of three biochar types produced via pyrolysis: (i) pure sewage sludge (100%), (ii) sewage sludge blended with sawdust (50%+50%), and (iii) sewage sludge combined with sawdust and zeolite (50%+45%+5%). These biochars were applied at rates of 2.5% and 7.5% (w/w) to arable soil and assessed in an 8-week greenhouse experiment using lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L. var. Brilant) as a model crop. The sewage sludge biochar was characterized by high nitrogen, phosphorus, and water-extractable calcium but exhibited low organic matter and organic carbon content. It enhanced soil enzyme activities related to carbon and nitrogen mineralization without affecting microbial respiration. However, at 7.5% application rate, this biochar caused the highest chlorophyll *b* content in lettuce, despite acidifying the soil. Adding sawdust to the pyrolysis feedstock significantly increased organic matter, organic carbon (with reduced recalcitrance), and the C: N ratio of biochar. This biochar formulation promoted microbial activity (as indicated by changes in soil respiration) and nutrient cycling, particularly through increased glucosidase activity. Conversely, addition of zeolite to the pyrolysis feedstock reduced the organic matter and organic carbon content while increasing biochar recalcitrance and nutrient immobilization, particularly of sulfur, ammonium, phosphorus, and calcium. At the 7.5% dose, the sawdust+zeolite-enriched biochar improved soil pH and potentially enhanced nutrient retention. However, it did not stimulate microbial enzyme activity or respiration, leading to lower photosynthetic pigment levels and reduced biomass in lettuce, especially at higher application rate. For short-term soil applications under the conditions of this pot trial, the sewage sludge-sawdust biochar demonstrated the most beneficial effects, rapidly stimulating microbial activity and nutrient transformation. In contrast, the sewage sludge-sawdust-zeolite biochar limited nutrient availability and plant growth, suggesting it may be less suitable for immediate soil and plant nutrition. Long-term studies are needed to fully assess the

\*Correspondence:

Adnan Mustafa  
adnanmustafa780@gmail.com  
Martin Brtnicky  
Martin.Brtnicky@mendelu.cz

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



© The Author(s) 2025. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if you modified the licensed material. You do not have permission under this licence to share adapted material derived from this article or parts of it. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

implications of these biochar types for sustainable agriculture. This study highlights the importance of feedstock composition and selection in tailoring biochar properties to meet specific soil and crop requirements.

**Keywords** Arable soils, Carbon stabilization, Climate change, Microbial activity, Organic matter, Soil amendment

## Introduction

More than 10 million tons of municipal solid waste (MSW), which include sewage sludge, are produced in EU annually for last decade [1]. Demands for safe processing of MSW are gradually increasing. The recycling of municipal sewage sludge (SS) to land either through direct application, or after incineration and landfilling, has been considered an acceptable and beneficial waste management strategy. However, the presence of emerging contaminants including heavy metals, organic toxins, and pathogens, poses considerable risk. These substances can potentially enter the food chain, harm the environment and contaminate surface waters [2].

The SS disposal costs high energy, thus, the interest in valorization technologies increases, because SS represents a raw material with a perspective to be transformed into a secondary product with added value [3]. Currently, thermal processing of various waste materials including MSW culminates [4, 5], specifically in European Union (EU) [6]. Incineration can significantly reduce the quantity of waste and co-generate energy [7], but pyrolysis, i.e. thermal degradation of biomass in the absence of oxygen, also renders advantages: reduction (up to 50%) of waste volume and content of pathogens [8, 9], and concentration of feedstock's organic carbon [10, 11]. The pyrolysis of SS produces both liquid (pyrolysis oil) and solid (tars and biochar) residues [10, 11]. The SS biochar is often macroporous, but the surface properties and specific area varies upon the used sewage sludge [12]. The content of humic compounds in SS [13] increases carbon yield in the resulting biochar [14], therefore, it is more beneficially applicable in agriculture compared to unprocessed sewage sludge [15, 16].

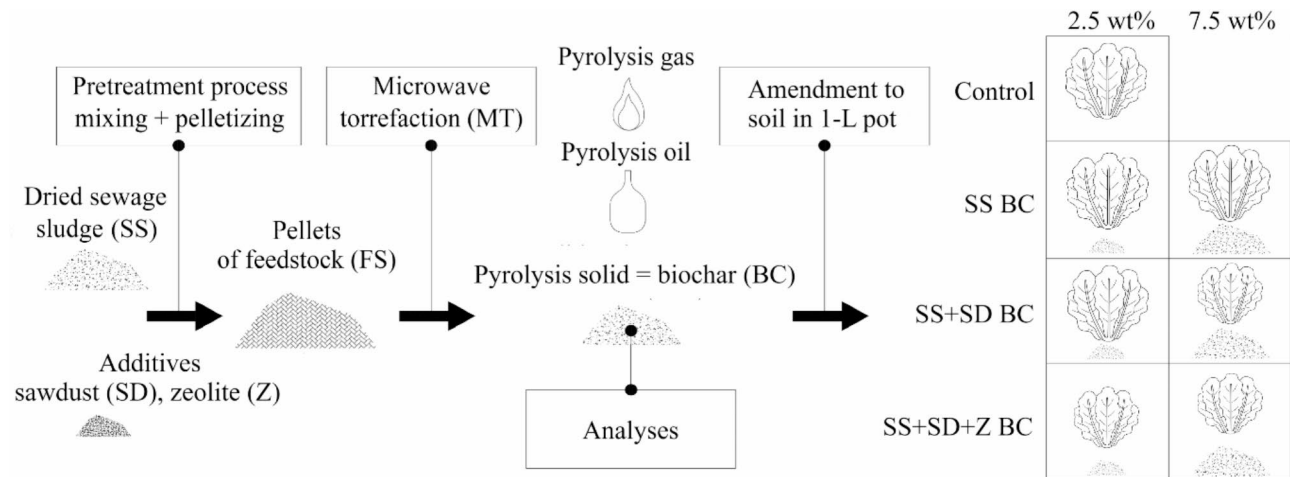
However, the SS biochar also concentrates harmless compounds such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) or metal contaminants [17]. The content of contaminants as well as further chemical and physical biochar properties are determined by conditions of pyrolysis process (maximum temperature, heating rate, feedstock particle size) [18, 19]. The pyrolysis process determines availability and toxicity of emerging contaminants in sewage sludge [20, 21]. In particular, lower temperature (approx. 300 °C) pyrolysis results in a decreased content of PAHs and their toxicity [19], but conversely, trace metal contents such as Pb, Cd, Zn, Cu, Ni and Cr rise. In addition, higher-temperature pyrolysis (up to 600–700 °C) of sewage sludge reduces concentration of volatile organic compounds (VOC) and availability of heavy metals [22], but increases alkalinity and content of stable

aromatic carbon ash, some macro- (Ca, Mg,  $P_2O_5$ , and  $K_2O$ ) and micronutrients (Cu and Zn) [20].

Nevertheless, pyrolysis represents a possible technology for decreasing bioavailability (solubility) of heavy metals in sewage sludge by conversion into a stabilized biochar [21, 22]. In contrast to unstabilized heavy metals of non-pyrolyzed SS, sewage sludge biochar could be more widely used in agriculture as a fertilizer, but its use still entails non-negligible risk of soil contamination [23]. The effect of individual heavy metal (HM) on plants is specific and depends on its concentration, but in general, most HM depress the vitality of plants [17, 24–26]. The risk of the soil contamination with heavy metals (HM), originating from sewage sludge, could be mitigated by modulating pyrolysis treatment of the feedstock by: (i) either higher temperature, as already mentioned [22], or co-pyrolysis with inorganic or organic additives [17, 27, 28], resulting in further enhanced HM immobilization [29].

The decrease in toxicity of SS contaminants is efficiently achieved by co-pyrolysis with various types of biomass [30–32]. Mobility and bioavailability of HM in the produced biochar was reduced via co-pyrolysis of SS with sawdust [30, 33] or lignocellulose waste material (rice straw, nut shells) [31, 34]. Biochar derived from sewage sludge blended with additional feedstock poses beneficial nutrient-binding properties in soil, thereby reducing nutrient losses [33, 35, 36], enhancing plant growth and nutrition [17, 36], supporting C sequestration in soil organic matter (SOM) [36–38]. Additionally, the stabilization of toxic HM can be improved by incorporating organo-mineral clays such as zeolite into the feedstock [39, 40].

Positive catalytic effects of zeolite addition to SS pyrolytic feedstock, leading to HM stabilization and enhancement of biochar's beneficial properties, have been observed [39, 41]. Some studies have already reported about advantages of co-pyrolyzed feedstock blends of SS, zeolite, and other organic material for biochar properties and its effect on soil quality and fertility [40, 42, 43]. However, a comprehensive evaluation of how such biochar type impact broad range of soil chemical and biologic properties as well as plant viability and primary production (determined by photosynthetic indicators) is still missing. Similar studies made on other types of waste-derived biochar emphasized the importance of this approach (utilizing organo-mineral clays e.g. zeolite, bentonite, as a sorption material) [44] for enhancing nutritional and health traits of amended soil [45–47]. Due to



**Fig. 1** Experimental design

**Table 1** Experimental variants of Biochar prepared by microwave pyrolysis and variants of soil amended with the respective Biochar types

Biomass for pyrolysis	Abbrev. biochar	Soil variant	Abbrev. soil
-	-	control (no biochar)	Control
100 wt% SS	BC	2.5 wt% SS biochar	2.5% BC
		7.5 wt% SS biochar	7.5% BC
50 wt% SS + 50 wt% sawdust	BC(SD)	2.5 wt% SS + sawdust biochar	2.5% BC(SD)
		7.5 wt% SS + sawdust biochar	7.5% BC(SD)
50 wt% SS + 45 wt% SD + 5 wt% zeolite	BC(SD + Z)	2.5 wt% SS + sawdust + zeolite biochar	2.5% BC(SD + Z)
		7.5 wt% SS + sawdust + zeolite biochar	7.5% BC(SD + Z)

above-mentioned large availability of SS as a ubiquitous waste with demand for recovering after disposal, we consider the research coarse outlined in this study as highly important and promising from both scientific and social point of view.

The objectives of this study were to evaluate the multiple effect co-pyrolyzed blend of SS + sawdust(+ zeolite) on the properties of both biochar, biochar-treated soil, and growth and vitality of plants grown in amended soil. It was hypothesized that:

1. The blending of sewage sludge (SS) feedstock for pyrolysis with sawdust improves biochar's organic carbon content and C: N ratio.
2. The SS + sawdust blended biochar, applied to soil, increases SOM and total carbon content, resulting in enhanced microbial activity and transformation of nutrients.
3. The blending of sewage sludge pyrolysis feedstock with zeolite and sawdust decreases biochar's carbon aromaticity, mineral nitrogen volatilization, and increases nutrient stabilization compared to the sewage sludge + sawdust biochar.
4. Soil amended with SS + sawdust + zeolite blended biochar also exerts increased stabilization of nutrient, decreases soil nitrogen transformation and

carbon respiratory utilization, despite zeolite-derived decline in the more stable aromatic compounds [48].

## Materials and methods

The scheme to illustrate the experimental design is displayed in Fig. 1.

### Biochar preparation by co-pyrolysis

Variants of biochar, prepared by microwave pyrolysis (MP) from sewage sludge mixed with sawdust or with sawdust and zeolite, are listed in Table 1. Biochar was applied to soil in two doses (weight%): 2.5% and 7.5%. The source of dried sewage sludge was the Brno Modřice Waste Water Treatment Plant.

### Sewage sludge properties (origin, composition, processing prior to co-pyrolysis)

The Brno Modřice Waste Water Treatment Plant (WWTP) has a treatment capacity of approximately 640,000 equivalent inhabitants and is a classic mechanical-biological treatment plant. Wastewater is predominantly of a municipal nature originating from households. Only 12–15% is industrial wastewater, but in general, even these wastewaters are mostly municipal wastewater. Sewage sludge is dried directly at the treatment plant using a contact paddle sludge dryer at

a temperature below 100 °C. The dry matter content in the raw dried sample was 91%, the output fraction from the SS dryer was in powder form with a particle range of 1–8 mm, the TOC content was 30.8%. Heavy metal content in dried SS was as stated in Table 2.

**Sawdust (origin, composition, processing prior to co-pyrolysis)**

Sawdust was added to dried SS to increase the ratio of organic part in produced biochar. Sawdust from soft woods (spruce) was chosen for research activities due to its availability and ease of handling. Processing prior to co-pyrolysis involved mixing sawdust in a weight ratio 50: 50% with dried sewage sludge. Subsequently, pelletization was done using a briquetting press (type JGE 260) for the production of pellets with a size of the extrusion holes of 6 mm and the optional length of the pellets set to approx. 40 mm.

**Zeolite (origin, composition, processing prior to co-pyrolysis)**  
Based on the previous experience [49, 50], synthetic zeolite Purmol 13 was chosen: zeolite type ZSM-5 with admixtures of other zeolites (faujasite, wassalite), particle size < 100 µm. This synthetic zeolite demonstrated the efficiency of the microwave depolymerization process of lignocellulosic biomass. Processing prior to the co-pyrolysis involved mixing dried sewage sludge, sawdust, and zeolite in a weight ratio 50: 45: 5. Subsequently, pelletization took place, with identical conditions as described in the previous Section.

**Microwave pyrolysis (description of the used method)**

For biochar production, low temperature slow microwave pyrolysis (known as torrefaction) (MT) unit was used, which is located and operated in the AdMaS Center. It is a one segment of full-scale MT (originally twelve segments for continuous operation), internally called as a small full-scale MT unit which is still representative for real conditions in industrial WWTP. The capacity of the device is around 10 kg·batch<sup>-1</sup> of dried SS, i.e., it works discontinuously. It consists of one batch reactor equipped with one highly efficient microwave generator (magnetron): 3 kW input power, regulated output power, and a frequency of 2.45 GHz. The glass condenser attached to the pyrolyzer was used for separation of the pyrolysis oil and gaseous products. A tuner was installed for incoming and reflected waves. The pyrolyzed feedstock were pellets

made of SS, sawdust, and zeolite by pelletizing press (pellets), as described in Sect. Sawdust (origin, ...) and Zeolite (origin, ...). Batches were pyrolyzed at low pressure (800 hPa). The temperature was continuously monitored during the process by an infrared thermometer, the temperature did not exceed 300 °C. During the process, the output regulated power of magnetron was 1.2 kW and residence time 60 min.

**Biochar characterization (analytical methods)**

Analysis of organic matter (OM) in resulting biochar was performed using a thermogravimetry analyser Q550 TA Instruments (USA, Delaware) by heating the biochar placed on Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> pans in the air stream (90 mL min<sup>-1</sup>) under temperature program from 30 to 950 °C at heating rate 5 °C min<sup>-1</sup>. Total amount of organic matter was assessed as a mass loss between 200 and 600 °C. Total organic carbon (TOC) and residual oxidizable carbon (ROC) were measured using the Soli TOC<sup>®</sup> Cube (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Langenselbold, Germany). N, H, and O were measured using the FLASH 2000 Organic Elemental Analyzer/CHNS-O Analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) analysis was used to record spectra of biochar samples on a Bruker diffused reflectance infrared Fourier transform (DRIFT) spectrometer at transmission mode 4000–400 cm<sup>-1</sup> with resolution of 8 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 128 scans using OPUS computer-based software was recorded. The samples were prepared by mixing with KBr to form a homogenous mixture for prior analysis. The content of polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) in the obtained biochar types was determined by the pressurized solvent extraction (one PSE, Applied Separations), using toluene as a solvent, and by final gas chromatography with mass spectrometry (Bruker EVOQ GC-TQ) [40]. None of 16 detected PAHs exceeded the permitted content in any of biochars according to the EU guidelines [51]. Biochar's content of phosphorus was determined as PO<sub>4</sub>-P in water (5 g of BC and 50 ml of MilliQ water, filtration after 24 h) and acidic leachate and measured by spectrophotometric method according ČSN EN ISO 6878 (using MQuant<sup>TM</sup> Phosphate Test, Merck) [52]. Leachable heavy metals (HMs) such as Hg, Cu, Cr, Zn, Pb, As, Ni, and Cd were determined in the water extract using atomic absorption spectrometer with electrothermal atomization ZEE nit 60 from Analytik Jena (Germany) with Zeeman background correction

**Table 2** The heavy metal content in the dry matter of sewage sludge from modfice WWTP

Selected heavy metals	As	Cd	Cr	Cu	Hg	Ni	Pb	Zn
	[mg·kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter ± standard deviation]							
dried SS	10.72 ± 0.33	< LOQ	222 ± 12	337 ± 3.9	2.45 ± 0.24	98.6 ± 1.5	5.24 ± 0.23	1 681 ± 17

The metal content of mercury (Hg), cupper (Cu), chromium (Cr), zinc (Zn), led (Pb), arsenic (As), nickel (Ni) and cadmium (Cd)



and selected hollow cathode lamp by Photron (Australia) [40]. None of determined HMs exceeded the permitted content in any of biochars according to the EU guidelines [51].

#### Pot experiment, sampling and assessment of plant growth and photosynthetic parameters

The pot experiment with lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L. var. Brilant, SEMO a.s., Czech Republic) was performed in 1-L pots (diameter 11 cm, height 12 cm). The variety was chosen due to its high resistance to mildew (*Bremia lactucae*). The pots were lined inside with non-woven fabric and filled up with 300 g of commercial garden substrate TS 3 medium basic 425 standard (Klasmann-Deilmann GmbH, Germany), thoroughly mixed with a dose of biochar according to variants in Table 1, i.e. with 7.7 g of biochar for the dose 2.5 wt% and 24.3 g for the dose 7.5 wt%. The substrate was a mixture of light peat (0–25 mm) with wetting agent, dry matter 45%, pH 6.0, salts 1 g·L<sup>-1</sup>, nutrient content (according to manufacturer): N 140 mg·L<sup>-1</sup>, P 44 mg·L<sup>-1</sup>, K 150 mg·L<sup>-1</sup>, Mg 100 mg·L<sup>-1</sup>. Altogether, 7 variants were tested (substrate amended with three types of biochar, each in two doses, and unamended substrate = negative control), each variant was prepared in four replicates.

Each pot was sown with 3 sprouted lettuce seeds into 2 mm depth, then watered with 200 mL of deionized water. The watering was regularly carried out during cultivation in order to maintain the same soil moisture and prevent the plants to wilt. The experiment was carried out for eight weeks in greenhouse of Faculty of Agri-sciences, Mendel University in Brno, Czech Republic (49° 12' 37" N, 16° 36' 49.8" E), under controlled conditions (day/night): temperature 22/18°C, photoperiod 14/10 hours. After 10 days, the seedlings were thinned to one per pot; one representative was left in each pot. All pots were manually watered with approx. 50 mL of deionized water every other day, to maintain ~ 70% of water holding capacity (WHC). At the end of the experiment, the fast chlorophyll fluorescence induction curves (OJIP test) were measured by handheld fluorometer FluorPen FP 100 (Photon Systems Instruments, Czech Republic) at the settings f-pulse 30%, F-pulse 70% and A-pulse 30%. The estimation of chlorophyll fluorescence induction curves (OJIP test) is a useful method to quantify and characterize the intrinsic action of photosystem II (PSII) in plants [53]. For the measurement, fully developed leaves from the middle part of leaf rosette were selected and covered by aluminium foil for 15 min to deactivate photosynthetic electron transport. The obtained data were processed by original software, and then graphically edited in MS Excel. Presented parameters Fv/Fm, Vj and Vi were automatically calculated by original software. The meaning of the individual measured parameters is explained

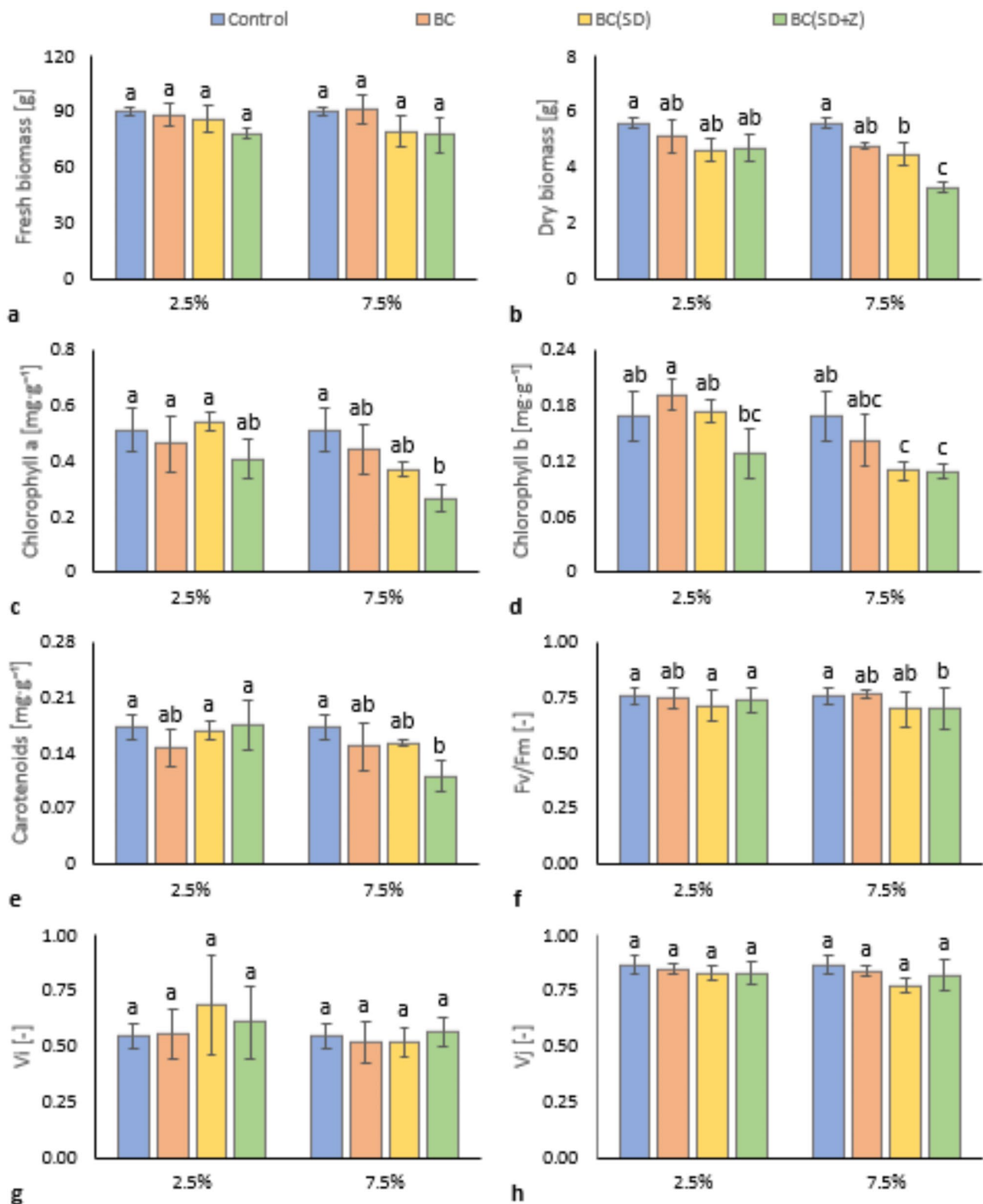
below in the description of Figs. 2 and 3. After the photosynthetic parameters measurement, the above ground plant biomass was harvested for analyses of pigments, and for plant fresh and dry matter estimation. From each fresh plant was collected 0.5 g of leaves for the pigments analyses. These samples were lyophilized and used for acetone extraction. The contents of chlorophyll *a*, chlorophyll *b* and carotenoids were determined by spectroscopic method according to [54] using Spetronic 20 Genesys (Thermo Spectronic, USA). To determine plant fresh biomass, the plant material was weighted on analytical scales immediately after harvest, and then were dried at 60 °C to constant weight to obtained dry biomass. Soil samples were taken from each pot for determination of basic physical, chemical and biological quality indicator.

#### Determination of soil quality attributes

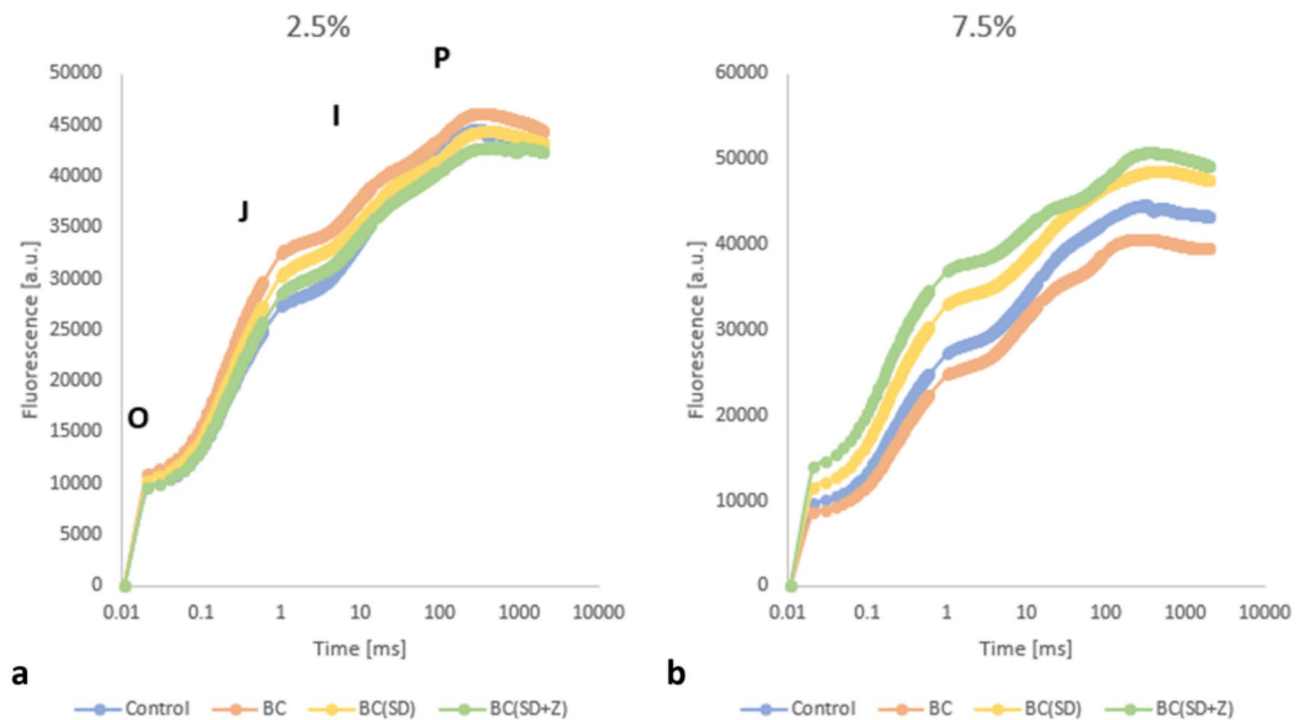
The substrate from each pot was homogenized by sieving through 2 mm mesh (Retsch sieve 200×50, Retsch, Germany) under sterile conditions and stored at 4 °C (for determination of soil respiration), lyophilized and stored at -18 °C (for determination of soil enzyme activities), and dried at 105 °C to constant weight (for pH measurement). Soil reaction – pH (CaCl<sub>2</sub>) – was determined according to ISO 10390:2005 [55]. Soil basal and substrate-induced respirations (expressed in µg CO<sub>2</sub>·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>) was determined by the MicroResp® method according to the official supplier protocol (Technical Manual v2.1, The James Hutton Institute) and ref [56]. with terminal spectrophotometric measurement. Following compounds, representing the most common carbon substrates in SOM and plant necromass (e.g. monosaccharides as units of plant structural polymers), were used for substrate-induced respiration: D-glucose (Glc-SIR), D-mannose (Man-SIR), protocatechuic acid (Pro-SIR), D-trehalose (Tre-SIR), N-acetyl-β-D-glucosamine (NAG-SIR), and L-alanine (Ala-SIR). Enzymatic activities, representing indicators of nitrogen transformation in soil - urease (Ure), N-acetyl-β-D-glucosaminidase - and carbon utilization in soil - β-glucosidase (GLU), were determined in enzymatic assays according to [57] and measured spectrophotometrically: the values were expressed in nmol NH<sub>3</sub>·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> (urease) and in nmol (p-nitrophenol) PNP·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> (other two enzymes). A microplate reader Tecan Infinite® 200 PRO (Tecan Group Ltd., Switzerland) was used for all spectrophotometric measurements.

#### Statistical analyses

Data obtained from the determination of plant biomass and qualitative properties, soil chemical and biological parameters, and biochar properties, were statistically analysed using R Program, version 4.3.1 [58]. The methods of principal component analysis (PCA) and Pearson correlation analysis [58, 59] were employed to



**Fig. 2** Growth and photosynthetic parameters of plants cultivated in pot conditions treated with different types and doses of biochar. Displayed properties: fresh biomass [g], dry biomass after drying at 60 °C [g], content of photosynthetic pigments [ $\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  FW] – chlorophyll *a*, chlorophyll *b* and total carotenoids. Fluorescent parameters automatically calculated from OJIP curves measure (Fig. 5) – maximum quantum yield of photosystem II =  $F_v/F_m = (F_m - F_o)/F_m$ , where  $F_m$  is maximal fluorescence,  $F_o$  is the minimal fluorescence and  $F_v$  is variable fluorescence.  $V_j$  is the size of wave J in the OJIP curve and  $V_i$  is size of wave I in OJIP curve. Fluorescent parameters are given in arbitrary units [a.u.]; mean values  $\pm$  error bars (= standard deviation), letters indicate statistical differences (calculated by Tukey's HSD posthoc test) among variants at the significance level  $p \leq 0.05$



**Fig. 3** Fast chlorophyll fluorescence induction curves (OJIP curves) measured on dark adapted leaves of the experimental plants. Curves of fast chlorophyll fluorescence induction (OJIP) measured on dark adapted leaves. The presented curves reported the average values of measured data of all plants of every experimental variant. For better clarity of the curves shape they are presented without the statistics. Statistical evaluation is reported in Fig. 4 f-h (chlorophyll fluorescent parameters). Point O indicate the origin of the OJIP curve and corresponds to minimal fluorescence  $F_0$ , part O-J indicate the changes in reduction of primary electron acceptor ( $Q_A$ ), J-I indicated changes in reduction of secondary electron acceptor ( $Q_B$ , plastoquinone and cytochrome), point P corresponded with the value of maximum fluorescence  $F_m$  [121, 122]

characterize the relationship between experimental variants and selected soil properties. The results of Pearson's correlation analysis were interpreted (according to the value of correlation coefficient  $r$ ) as follows:  $0.5 < r < 0.7$  (moderate correlation),  $0.7 < r < 0.9$  (high correlation),  $r > 0.9$  very high correlation [60]. Package “ggplot2” [61] was used for creating advanced statistical graphs.

For statistical comparison, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) Type I (sequential) sum of squares was conducted at a 0.05 significance level [62], to characterize the relationships among the treatments and selected soil properties. For this purpose, it was used package “FactoMineR” [63] and “factoextra” [64]. To identify the difference among factor level means between response and categorical variables after ANOVA, Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test was used, also at a significance level of 0.05. Factor level means with standard error of the mean (SEM) were calculated based on “treatment contrasts” [65].

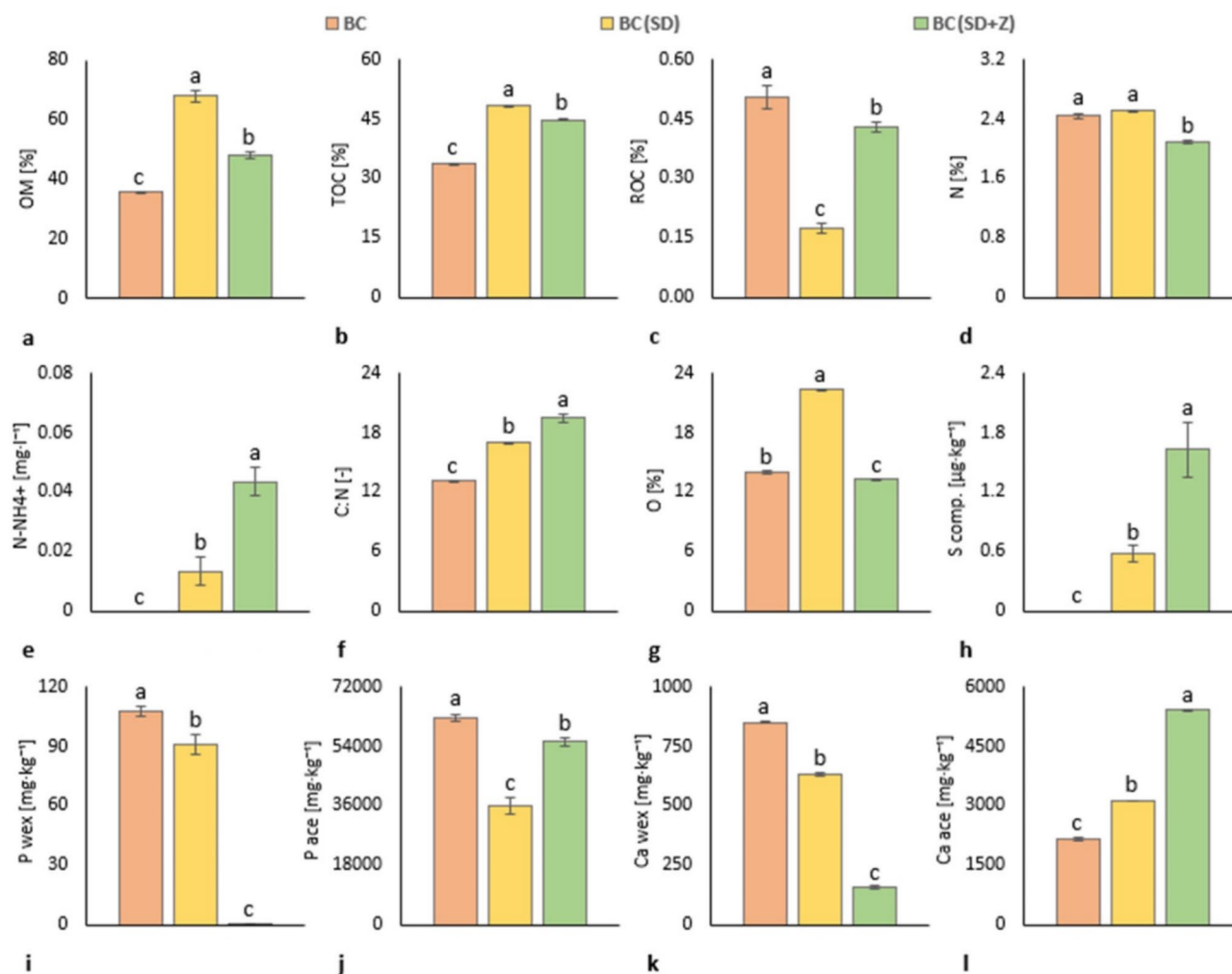
After all statistical analyses the assumptions of selected models were also checked at significance level of 0.05. For testing the normality, it was used Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Anderson-Darling normality test from package “nortest” [66] and for testing the homoscedasticity, it was used Bartlett's test and Flinger-Killeen test

of homogeneity of variances. Besides, for this purpose it was also used the following diagnostic plots: Plot of residuals versus fitted/predicted values, normal Q-Q plot of standardized residuals, standardized residuals versus fitted/predicted values, Cook's distances, residuals versus leverage and Cook's distance versus leverage [65, 67]. The measuring of data skewness was performed by using D'Agostino's K-squared test and the measuring of kurtosis by using Anscombe-Glynn test from package “moments” [68].

## Results

### Biochar properties

Organic matter (OM) content, organic carbon forms, and nitrogen forms were the key chemical properties determined in the experimental biochar variants. The organic matter (OM) and total organic carbon (TOC) contents were significantly different within all variants: the values were higher in the sewage sludge + sawdust (BC(SD)) and the sewage sludge + sawdust + zeolite (BC(SD + Z)) variants compared to unamended SS biochar (BC), with expected trend of OM and TOC increasing proportionally to the added organic (sawdust) biomass to the total pyrolyzed matter (Fig. 4a, b). In contrast, residual oxidizable carbon (ROC) was indirectly related to the amount



**Fig. 4** Properties of biochar pyrolyzed from sewage sludge, sewage sludge + sawdust, and sewage sludge + sawdust + zeolite

Displayed properties: OM=organic matter [%], TOC=total organic carbon [%], ROC=residual oxidizable carbon [%], N=nitrogen [%],  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ =ammonium nitrogen [ $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ], C:N=carbon: nitrogen content ratio, O=oxygen [%], S comp. = S-compounds [ $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ], P wex=water-extractable phosphorus [ $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ], P ace=acid-extractable phosphorus [ $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ], Ca wex=water-extractable calcium [ $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ], Ca ace=acid-extractable calcium [ $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ]; mean values  $\pm$  error bars (=standard deviation), letters indicate statistical differences (calculated by Tukey's HSD posthoc test) among variants at the significance level  $p \leq 0.05$

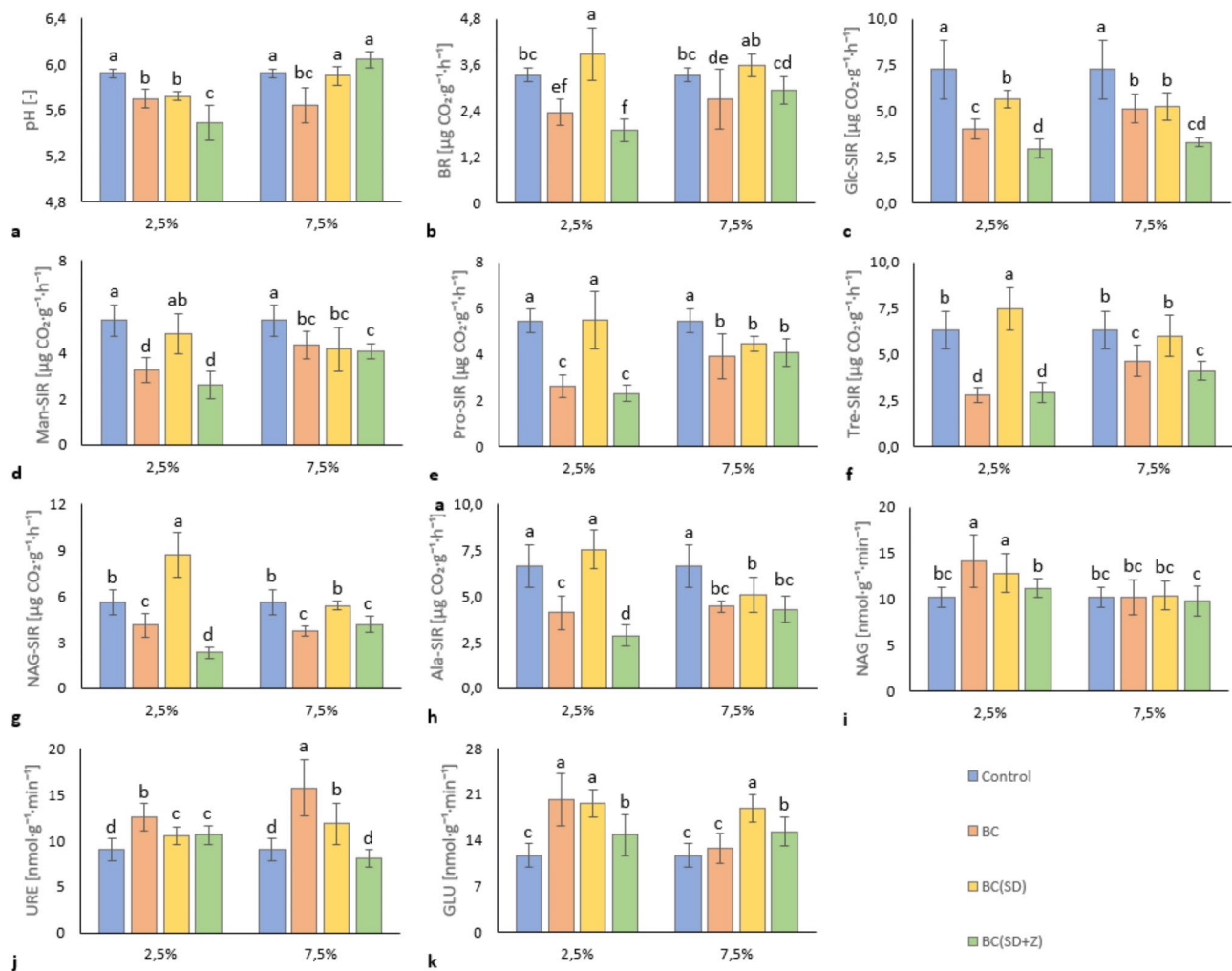
of organic matter added to the feedstock (Fig. 4c). Furthermore, woody biomass is a nitrogen-poor material, therefore BC(SD) did not show significantly increased total nitrogen as compared to sewage sludge biochar (Fig. 4d). The replacement of 5% sawdust with nitrogen-free zeolite in feedstock decreased the total nitrogen of final pyrolyzed product significantly (Fig. 4d) and determined the highest C: N ratio (close to 20:1) compared to other variants (BC(SD)  $\sim$  17:1, BC  $\sim$  13:1; Fig. 4f). Whereas BC(SD) (compared to the BC) showed significantly increased oxygen content, BC(SD+Z) (compared to BC) exerted decreased (and strongly lower than BC(SD)) values comparable to BC (Fig. 4g). In contrast, BC(SD+Z) exerted the significantly highest ammonium nitrogen, sulfuric compounds and acid-extractable calcium ( $\text{N-NH}_4^+$ , S comp. and Ca ace) content compared to

other variants and the similar trend (Fig. 4h, l). However, zeolite content in BC(SD+Z) significantly decreased values of water-extractable phosphorus and calcium (P wex and Ca wex) as compared to BC(SD) and BC, albeit e.g. the acid-extractable fraction of phosphorus (P ace) was significantly higher in BC(SD+Z) compared to BC(SD) – Fig. 4i-k. The BC showed the significantly highest water- and acid-extractable phosphorus (P wex, P ace) compared to other two variants, as sewage sludge is out of all three materials used for feedstock the one with the highest phosphorus content.

#### Effects of amendments on soil properties

The above displayed difference in biochar properties among three types were to a large extent projected into the differences in evaluated traits of biochar-amended





**Fig. 5** Soil pH and biological properties of the variants amended with various biochar types

Displayed properties: pH, BR=basal respiration [ $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ ], Glc-SIR=respiration induced by D-glucose [ $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ ], Man-SIR=respiration induced by D-mannose [ $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ ], Pro-SIR=respiration induced by protocatechuic acid [ $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ ], Tre-SIR=respiration induced by D-trehalose [ $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ ], NAG-SIR=respiration induced by N-acetyl- $\beta$ -D-glucosamine [ $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ ], Ala-SIR=respiration induced by L-alanine [ $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ ], NAG=N-acetyl- $\beta$ -D-glucosaminidase activity [ $\text{nmol PNP}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ], URE=urease activity [ $\text{nmol NH}_3\cdot\text{min}^{-1}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ], GLU= $\beta$ -glucosidase activity [ $\text{nmol PNP}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ]; mean values  $\pm$  error bars (= standard deviation), letters indicate statistical differences (calculated by Tukey's HSD posthoc test) among variants at the significance level  $p \leq 0.05$

soil variants. The impact of soil treatment on the soil pH( $\text{CaCl}_2$ ) was determined by different types of copyrolysed additives and various doses of biochar. The pH( $\text{CaCl}_2$ ) was significantly decreased (compared to the control) in all 2.5% variants, with decreasing trend from BC to BC(SD + Z), while at 7.5% dose, the opposite trend was found (with decreased value in BC variant, Fig. 5a).

The most significant variability between biochar organic matter, organic carbon, and other nutrients (nitrogen, phosphorus) content resulted into differences in the transformation and mineralization of soil carbon, nitrogen and other nutrients. The biochar types with higher ROC content (BC and BC(SD + Z)) determined in the treated soil the significant decrease in the basal respiration (BR) and other respiration types (SIRs) at both

doses (2.5%, 7.5%) compared to the respective control variants (Fig. 5b and h). The respiration activity values of soil BC and BC(SD + Z) variants were comparable for the most of respiration types except for Glc- (both doses), NAG- and Ala-SIRs (at 2.5%). Even the BC(SD) biochar, which was the most TOC and the least ROC abundant, contributed at high dose (7.5%) to the soil carbon stabilization, as shown by (compared to the unamended control) similar values of BR, Tre- and NAG-SIR, as well as decreased values of all other SIRs (Fig. 5c-e, h). However, BC(SD) biochar at low dose (2.5%) was able to increase respiration activities BR, Tre- and NAG-SIR (Fig. 5b, f, g) in comparison to the control, while Glc-SIR was decreased. This finding indicated a negative effect of all biochar amendments on the potential respiration

capacity of soil and tendency to the soil organic carbon sequestration. High doses (7.5%) of tested biochar types derived mostly negative effects on respiration potential, comparable among various carbon sources, as documented by comparably lowered (in comparison to the control) Glc-, Man-, Pro-, Ala-SIR values in all biochar-treated soil variants.

The tendency to lower carbon and nitrogen mineralization rate at high (7.5%) dose of biochar types was observed for soil enzymatic activity of N-acetyl- $\beta$ -D-glucosaminidase (NAG), degradation indicator of polysaccharide chitin: the values of all biochar-treated soil variants were comparable to the control (Fig. 5i). However, low dose (2.5%) of biochar types still promoted plant and fungi necromass-related carbon mineralization, indicated by the both significantly increased  $\beta$ -glucosidase (GLU) and NAG in all biochar-treated soil variants (or only in BC and BC(SD) in case of NAG; Fig. 5i, k), as well as increased GLU in 7.5% BC(SD) and 7.5% BC(SD + Z). The significantly most enhanced urease (URE) activity, was detected in the 2.5% BC and 7.5% BC variants, amended with biochar possessing the lowest C: N ratio (close to 13:1; Fig. 5j). The amendment of both co-pyrolysed biochar types enhanced URE comparably at 2.5% dose. At higher amended dose of biochar, 7.5% BC(SD) still increased URE compared to the control, but 7.5% BC(SD + Z) did not.

#### Effects of amendments on plant properties

The three tested biochar types differently affected growth and quality of lettuce cultivated in the pot experiment. The basic growth parameters, chlorophyll fluorescence parameters, and content of photosynthetic pigments were studied (Figs. 2 and 3). There were observed no significant differences in fresh (at both biochar doses) or dry (at 2.5% dose) aboveground biomass among the variants treated with different types of biochar and compared to the control (Fig. 2a, b). Only at 7.5% dose, soil BC(SD) and BC(SD + Z) variants exerted reduced dry biomass compared to the control, and 7.5% also BC(SD + Z) also compared to 7.5% BC variant (Fig. 2b).

The noticeable differences were observed in the levels of photosynthetic pigments. While chlorophyll *a* (Fig. 2c) and carotenoid (Fig. 2e) contents were significantly reduced (compared to the control) only in plants cultivated in 7.5% BC(SD + Z), content of chlorophyll *b* (Fig. 2d) was decreased both in BC(SD), BC(SD + Z) variants compared to the control (at 7.5% dose) and in BC(SD + Z) also compared to the BC variant (at 2.5% dose). There were no significant differences in Fv/Fm ratios (at 2.5% dose), Vi and Vj among the variants, except of significantly decreased value of Fv/Fm ratio in the 7.5% BC(SD + Z) variant (compared to the control; Fig. 2f).

The OJIP curves in the Fig. 3 reflected the Fast chlorophyll fluorescence induction kinetics. From these curves is clearly visible, that the application of 2.5% dose of any tested biochar types had no significant effect on electron transport chain in photosystem II, which is confirmed statistically in Fig. 2f-h. Although the Fig. 3b infers that after the application of higher dose of tested biochar could have some effect to primary photosynthetic processes, the statistical analysis of the basic fluorescent parameters (Fig. 2f-h) showed no noticeable differences between influence of applicated biochar or their different doses, because of the relatively high variability of the measured data.

## Discussion

### Biochar properties

The properties of produced biochar were strongly influenced by the feedstock used for pyrolysis, particularly the nutrient composition of charred plant biomass (sawdust) and the high adsorption capacity of zeolite. Consequently, the significant reductions in water-extractable calcium and, especially, phosphorus observed in the zeolite-enriched biochar were likely due to decreased leachability of these elements, as well as differences in phosphorus (P) content among zeolite, sawdust and sewage sludge. Sewage sludge, even after incineration, remains a P-rich source [69]. Previous studies by Mosa et al. (2020) and Wang et al. (2021) have reported that zeolite-biochar composites exhibit significantly higher nutrient efficiency compared to single-component biochar [70, 71]. Acid-extractable phosphorus content (P<sub>ace</sub>) decreased the most in BC(SD) due to the addition of P-deficient sawdust compared to more P-abundant sewage sludge. The BC(SD + Z) exhibited less decreased P<sub>ace</sub> content than BC(SD), as zeolite causes high post-pyrolytical stabilization of phosphorus [72], due to its natural affinity to phosphate [73]. Conversely, the desorption of bound phosphorus (P<sub>wex</sub> value) strongly decreased. This has already been reported by Mosa et al. (2020) who referred to the both enhanced P-adsorption and P-desorption in the zeolite-enriched biochar [70].

Zeolite has been reported to have high content as well as high affinity to calcium (and other ions) [74]. Therefore, the highest acid-extractable (Ca<sub>ace</sub>) calcium was probably caused by natural enrichment of used zeolite with this element. The lowest water-extractable calcium content (Ca<sub>wex</sub>) in BC(SD + Z) was ascribed to the Ca adsorption. This finding was in the line with reports of Ayalew and Aragaw (2019) that equilibrium between dissolved and precipitated calcium is deflected towards adsorption to zeolite (at room temperature) [75]. Compared to the (sole) sewage sludge biochar, the presumably increased absorbance of calcium to the pyrolysis-derived, sawdust-coupled ash in the BC(SD) was likely the reason

for the significantly lower value of water-extractable calcium (Ca wex) but higher (in BC(SD), compared to BC's value of Ca ace. These results agreed with Johan et al. (2021) who referred to ash-promoted increase in calcium affinity to phosphate [76]. Both P and Ca showed much higher persistence towards water-extraction compared to acid-extraction, as shown by Ca ace values higher two levels of magnitude compared to Ca wex values and by P ace values higher by almost three levels of magnitude than P wex values. Very high significant ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) positive correlation between P wex and Ca wex corroborated their relation, whereas very high negative correlation of Ca ace with P wex and Ca wex documented various biochar amendment-derived differences in the calcium extractability (Figure A1).

Total sulfur content in the biochar variants was presumably related to the variable amendment-related adsorption and chemical properties as well. Albeit the sewage sludge is an important source of sulfur, it can be lost by volatilization during the pyrolysis (or other type of combustion) [77]. However, significantly increased content of sulfur (S\_comp.) in the BC(SD + Z) as compared to BC(SD) and BC was likely due to the zeolites, which are capable of efficient adsorption of sulfur dioxide, hydrogen sulfide, and other S-compounds [78]. Similarly, the presumed volatilized sulfur binding to pyrolyzed sawdust and protection from losses by emissions likely caused higher S\_comp. in BC(SD) than in BC, which assumption agreed with the previous findings [79].

The thermal processing (e.g. incineration) of sewage sludge causes significant emissions as well as loss of ammonium (Wielgosinski et al. 2016). As the increased ammonium nitrogen content in the BC(SD + Z) was detected, compared to the BC(SD) and BC, an enhanced zeolite-coupled adsorption and mitigation of ammonium emission was assumed. This feature agreed with several authors' references [71, 80] to high affinity of zeolite to ammonium ions ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ). The affinity of pyrolysed sawdust to ammonium [81] was presumably responsible for the differences in N-  $\text{NH}_4^+$  between BC and BC(SD). Several related cation contents were documented by the significant ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) and very high positive correlation of N- $\text{NH}_4^+$  and Ca ace, S\_comp., as well as negative correlation between N- $\text{NH}_4^+$  and Ca wex, P wex (Figure A1).

Finally, the presence of zeolite and pyrolyzed sawdust in the sewage sludge biochar markedly affected the content of the organic matter and the key macroelements – carbon, nitrogen and oxygen. The organic matter (OM) and total organic carbon (TOC) contents were significantly highest in BC(SD) biochar, supplied with 50% sawdust (more organic- and carbon-abundant feedstock biomass compared to SS) prior to the pyrolysis, than in BC(SD + Z) with 5% less sawdust supply, and BC biochar (no sawdust supply). OM and TOC significantly

( $p \leq 0.001$ ) and highly positively correlated with each other (Figure A1). BC had approximately half of the organic content of BC(SD), which was in the line with findings of Tomczyk et al. (2020), reporting that biochars produced from solid waste feedstocks exert lower carbon content than biochars produced from wood biomass [82]. However, the organic carbon composition was in BC(SD + Z) biochar disproportionally shifted towards the more abundant recalcitrant fraction ROC in comparison to BC(SD). Whereas BC type showed the highest ROC values, presumably due to the losses of more labile forms of organic carbon (OC) from SS during pyrolysis, complex compounds in SD underwent depolymerization [83] and did not enrich the ROC fraction of OC. Nevertheless, zeolite, which acts as a catalyser accelerates cleavage of bonds in lignocellulose substrates, may enhance the production of gaseous products [84], leading in BC(SD + Z) to lower TOC content, but due to higher rate of labile carbon losses to higher ROC value. This indirect dependence of TOC and ROC contents were documented also by significant ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) and high negative correlated each other, furthermore ROC was significantly ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) highly negatively related to OM as well (Figure A1).

Total nitrogen was comparable between BC and BC(SD) types despite the fact that wood material (lignocellulose) typically contains twenty- to 100-fold less nitrogen than sewage sludge in dry biomass. A decreased volatilization of nitrogen compounds during the pyrolysis process was assumed, due to the wood matter addition. Kawamoto (2017) reported that phenolic compounds may be released into the pyrolyzed product during the thermal degradation of lignin from sawdust [85]. Ozdal et al. (2013) reported that protein-polyphenol complexes change secondary and tertiary structures of proteins, presumably causing increased thermal stability [86]. Similar complexing of sawdust-derived polyphenols with polypeptides from sewage sludge was considered in this study resulting in lowered emissions of gaseous and volatile nitrogen compounds in BC(SD). In the biochar variant BC(SD + Z), which exhibited significantly decreased total nitrogen content (compared to the other two variants). This protective effect may be mitigated due to zeolite adsorbed the phenolic compounds and prevent them from complexing with polypeptides. This observation is in line to work of Pérez et al. (2017) who referred to zeolite adsorption and removal of ionizable phenolic compounds from water [87]. Therefore, this impoverishment of BC(SD + Z) with nitrogen determined the significantly highest C: N ratio in this variant as compared to both other variants. In contrast, the lowest TOC value of sewage sludge biochar BC led to the significantly lowest C: N. Pearson's correlation showed significant ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) positive correlation of C: N with TOC and negative correlation ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) with total nitrogen (Figure A1).

As the last evaluated biochar property, the oxygen content in all variants was determined and compared. The BC(SD) showed significantly highest percentage of oxygen compared to the other two variants. The sawdust amendment to sewage sludge may be the reason as Kawamoto (2017) reported that lignin is prone to oxidation at relatively low temperatures of pyrolysis [85]. Han et al. also referred to apparently higher oxygen content in pinewood biochar (pyrolyzed at 250 and 450 °C) compared to the sewage sludge biochar [88]. The increased oxygen content of BC(SD) compared to BC(SD + Z) could be caused by physico-chemical potential of zeolite to reduce electron transfer during pyrolysis. As zeolite is known as a versatile antioxidant [89], the sawdust-mediated tendency to increase pyrolytical oxidation of BC(SD + Z) was presumably mitigated by zeolite amendment. Concluding the results of biochar properties determination, the hypotheses 1. and 3. were verified.

#### Effects of amendments on soil properties

The specific biochar properties of the respective types (Sect. Biochar properties) influenced the soil pH, albeit in a contrasting way according to the applied dose. Lower doses (2.5%) of all biochar types decreased pH of the treated soil, whereas two biochar types, BC(SD) and BC (SD + Z), did not decrease the soil pH at higher dose (7.5%). This could be ascribed to the effect of biochar on the soil cation exchange capacity (CEC) [90]. We speculate that at the low (2.5%) application rate, the CEC increased to such an extent that nearly all alkaligenic ions ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ) in the treated soil were absorbed by the biochar. This likely altered their availability, preventing them from counteracting the acidifying effect of  $\text{H}^+$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{K}^+$  ions, ultimately leading to a decline in soil pH. However, at higher (7.5%) biochar application rate, the effect of soil CEC became saturated. Instead of further ion adsorption, intrinsic (and previously immobilized) calcium and magnesium ions were replaced by an additional input of these elements, introduced through the amendment, which was applied at a three-fold higher quantity than at the lower biochar dose. Solely pyrolyzed SS has been reported to produce a biochar that lowers soil pH [91], as also evidenced in this study by the lowest total content of alkalizing minerals e.g.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  considering both water- and acid-extractable fractions (Sect. Biochar properties).

Concurrently, the pH decrease in 2.5% BC(SD + Z) variant may have resulted from increased ammonium concentration and its subsequent nitrification, a process known to promote acidification. This process may have been coupled with increased urease activity at the low biochar dose (2.5%), which facilitated  $\text{NH}_4^+$  release. However, at the high 7.5% biochar dose, the lower urease activity inhibited nitrification-driven pH decrease. At this higher application rate, the alkalizing effects of both

pyrolysis additives (sawdust and zeolite) may have further contributed to soil pH stabilization or increase [92, 93].

The BC type did not stimulate microbial respiratory activity (in the 7.5% BC variant), presumably due to the low OM content, higher recalcitrance of carbon sources (high ROC) and low other nutrients (e.g.  $\text{N-NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{S}_{\text{comp}}$ ). Similar positive effect of sewage sludge biochar on higher soil carbon recalcitrance [94] and negative effect on the soil respiration have already been reported [95–97]. None of variants at 7.5% application rate exerted significantly higher basal respiration (BR) compared to the control, the highest BR value was found in the 2.5% BC(SD). All types of biochar exhibited stabilizing effect on the external amended organic carbon and SOM sequestration, which was likely coupled with humus formation [98, 99]. However, significant difference between the BR values of BC(SD) and BC(SD + Z) variants at both doses presumed that zeolite amendment to biochar could affect the aerobic degradation processes in the treated soil. Zeolites may act antagonistically to the soil aerobic decomposition: due to their stable structure and desorption of cations they accelerate the formation of condensed humic molecules from soil organic matter (SOM) [92]. Thus, BC(SD + Z) variant showed the lowest values of many SIR respiration types. Despite relatively high TOC and ROC values, BC(SD + Z) biochar was inefficient to enhance respiration activity in soil to higher  $\text{CO}_2$  emission. This finding supports the hypothesis 4. Moreover, BR showed a significant ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) moderate positive correlation with OM and O content in biochar and negative correlation with ROC (Figure A2).

The D-glucose-induced respiration (Glc-SIR), as an indicator of soil respiration potential, was lower compared to the control in all amended soil variants, caused presumably by the negative effect of sewage sludge biochar and zeolite on the soil microbiome, both aerobic microbes [95] and total bacteria [91]. Other studies also showed that compared to positive effect of very low doses of SS biochar (0.5–1%) amendment to soil on microbial biomass carbon (MBC), higher amendment (>2%) led to MBC values (i.e. soil microbial biomass) comparable to unamended soil [100]. The mutual significant ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) moderate positive correlation of Glc-SIR with all other SIRs, which are related to the metabolism of other nutrients (e.g. nitrogen) too, showed that nutrient (metabolite) sorption and desorption in the soil was biochar-mediated and dependent, as also previously referred by [101]. D-trehalose (Tre)-SIR and N-acetyl- $\beta$ -D-glucosamine (NAG)-SIR properties are related to decomposers of fungal necromass as the substrates D-trehalose [102] and N-acetyl- $\beta$ -D-glucosamine (a part of chitin) are common components of fungal cell wall. The significantly highest Tre-SIR (NAG-SIR) in 2.5% BC(SD) assumed increased abundance of soil fungi and their turnover. This indicates



a stimulatory effect of sawdust biochar on soil fungal biomass (and the mycorrhiza abundance), which has already been reported [103]. The mutual relation between both indicators (Tre-SIR, NAG-SIR) was evidenced by the significant moderate positive correlation ( $p \leq 0.001$ , Figure A2). L-alanine (Ala)-SIR, common soil amino acid and nitrogen source, was the indicator of nitrogen mineralization: the control and 2.5% BC(SD) variants showed significantly higher Ala-SIR in comparison to other variants. These results prerequisite higher soil L-alanine availability to decomposition in the respective soil variants, it could be related to the presumably higher turnover of fungal biomass, corroborated by the significant ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) high positive correlation between Ala-, Tre-, and NAG-SIR (Figure A2). These findings corroborated the hypothesis 2. In contrast to positive effect of sawdust biochar on soil induced respiration (Tre- and NA-SIR), zeolite exerted opposite, markedly negative effect on CO<sub>2</sub> emission from soil, which could be ascribed to the affinity of carbon dioxide to the clay surface [104].

The organic matter composition of the biochar variants further determined the activities of soil enzymes involved in the carbon and nitrogen mineralization. N-acetyl- $\beta$ -D-glucosaminidase (NAG) is the enzyme that catalyzes the cleavage of N-acetyl- $\beta$ -D-glucosamine, thus it is involved in C and N cycling in soils [105].  $\beta$ -glucosidase (GLU) catalyzes the hydrolysis of the glycosidic bonds to terminal non-reducing residues in  $\beta$ -D-glucosides (e.g. cellulose, oligosaccharides), it serves as a soil C-cycling and quality indicator [106]. The highest NAG and GLU activities were induced by the amendment of low dose (2.5%) of BC and BC(SD) biochar types, which exhibited high TOC, N, O content (BC(SD) or ROC, N content (BC; see Sect. Biochar properties). The assumption that revealed enzyme activity values are related to the increased accessibility of the organic carbon and the limiting microbial nutrients (e.g. N, P), was corroborated by the significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) positive moderate correlation of GLU with N and O, as well as by GLU and NAG mutual correlation (Figure A2). Positive effect of biochar amendment on the soil  $\beta$ -glucosidase activity was already reported [107, 108], however the sewage sludge application to soil showed mostly an adverse impact [96, 109], but this effect was dose-dependent [100]. The hypothesis 2. was not verified as BC(SD) biochar stimulated GLU-mediated carbon mineralization even at higher application dose (7.5%) in comparison to the control unamended soil and in agreement with previous findings [40].

The highest enhancement of soil nitrogen mineralization, indicated by urease (URE) activity, due to the amendment of sewage sludge biochar was assumed. Urease converts urea into ammonia and carbon dioxide and it indicates the intensity of nitrogen relevant reactions in the soil [110]. The highest URE in the 2.5% BC

and 7.5% BC variants, amended with sewage sludge biochar, was ascribed from high N content and low C: N, N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in the respective biochar type, which may prerequisite high deamination rate due to promoted high demand for mineral nitrogen in soil. This observation aligns with previous reports of improved urease activity in SS biochar-amended soil [100, 111]. However, the positive effect of a higher SS biochar application contrasts with another study that reported an adverse impact of increased biochar addition [109]. The significant ( $p \leq 0.05$  and less) moderate correlations of URE with N (positive relation) and with the C: N ratio (negative relation) further supports these findings (Figure A2). The high dose (7.5%) of BC determined the highest soil urease activity due to the abundant precursors of the urea decomposition pathway. On the other hand, the 7.5% BC(SD + Z) variant exhibited significantly decreased URE values as compared to variants amended with all other (7.5%) biochar types. Presumably, the BC(SD + Z)-mediated SOM stabilization and protection from decomposition (due to recalcitrancy) was coupled with rigid coating of pyrolyzed matter with more complex organic compounds [112] associated with zeolite. This verifies the hypothesis 4, which proposed increased SOM recalcitrance and stabilization of nutrients by BC(SD + Z) biochar, was done.

#### Effects of amendments on plant properties

Biochar amendment to soil affects plant growth and physiology via alteration of exogenous conditions such as physicochemical properties, nutrition availability, soil microbiome composition and activity [97]. One of the basic physiologic and metabolic processes of green plants is photosynthesis, which was monitored via the determination of photosynthetic pigments chlorophyll *a*, *b*, and carotenoids and measurement of photochemical parameters reported about photosystem II efficiency. Experimental results showed no significant differences between the control and the biochar-amended variants in none of three measured photosynthetic pigments at low application dose (2.5%) of biochar, the only significant decrease in the chlorophyll *b* content was in BC(SD + Z) variant compared to BC variant. At high application dose, the negative effect of BC(SD + Z) type in the respective amended soil on all three leaf pigments was even more markable (compared to unamended control soil). Carotenoids, which had the important role in plant antioxidant system could also secondarily lead to an increase of both chlorophylls content and disrupt the photosynthetic electron transfer chain [113]. This worsened plant quality and reduced biomass production could be related to the observed lowered nutrient transformation activities, microbial biomass and metabolism, due to the findings that zeolite and sawdust-enriched biochar contained lower levels of water-soluble and plant-accessible



nutrients compared with soil variants treated with BC or BC(SD). Previously, it has been reported that immobilization of nutrients in soil, which was presumably caused by zeolite presence in soil, was coupled with decreased content of chlorophyll [114]. This assumption was supported by the significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) moderate positive correlation of Dry\_biomass with P wex and C wex (Figure A2). For example, calcium, whose water-soluble form was significantly reduced in BC(SD + Z) biochar, plays an important role as the signal molecule in plant and it is involved in photosynthetic processes [36, 115]. However, it cannot be stated with certainty that the experimental plants were negatively affected by calcium deficiency, as no typical symptoms of Ca-deficiency, such as the tipburn [116] were observed. The same type of biochar BC(SD + Z) reduced the content of water-soluble phosphorus and nitrogen. It is known that these two nutrients are limiting factors of the plant growth and metabolism. For example, P is essential for the plant energetic metabolism, among other (structural) function, and N is necessary as the element of proteins. Their deficiency also plays a direct and/or indirect role in photosynthetic processes [117]. Although, similar to Ca-deficiency, no typical symptoms of N or P deficiency, such as dwarfism or purple leaf discoloration, were visible in the plants, the reduction of dry matter and decreased chlorophyll and carotenoids correspond with a potential lack of these nutrients [118–120].

However, information on pigment content must always be complemented by biomass production data and efficiency indicators of the photosynthetic process, such as the quantum yield of photosystem II (Fv/Fm) or the properties of OJIP curves (which represent chlorophyll fluorescence induction), specifically the Vi and Vj values. Moreover, not all plant stress conditions necessarily manifest at the photosynthetic level [121]. Despite the insignificant differences in Fv/Fm, Vi, Vj, and the fresh biomass production between the lettuce plants cultivated in soil amended with various biochar types and doses, the higher dose BC(SD + Z) biochar caused a slight flattening of the Vj part of the OJIP curves. This effect could indicate impaired photosystem II function, especially on the level of the second electron acceptors [122].

Nonetheless, the only detectable reduction in dry biomass production among the experimental lettuce plants was observed at the 7.5% dose in the BC(SD + Z) variant. Therefore, it can be assumed that none of the tested biochar types exerted a strong negative or phytotoxic effect on plant growth. At the same time, the potential growth promoting effects of these biochar types cannot be definitely excluded. Given that long-term application of SS-derived biochar have been reported to positively influence the availability of certain nutrients [123], and considering that this study is based on the relatively

short-term pot experiment, further investigation is warranted.

Moreover, zeolite is known to function as a long-term mineral fertilizer, as it naturally provides N, K, Ca, Mg, Fe and other essential minerals. Thus, over a longer cultivation period, the positive and differential effects of the various biochar types may become more pronounced. Furthermore, the slight short-term slightly negative effect of most biochar types on microbial biomass (indicated by lower values of Glc-SIR) could potentially slow the rate of nutrient utilization by the soil microbiome. This trade-off might, in turn, contribute to prolonged soil fertility by sustaining nutrient availability for plant uptake [124].

## Conclusions

The short-term pot experiment, based on soil amendment with biochar produced from three types of pyrolysis feedstock i.e. 100% sewage sludge (BC), 50% sewage sludge + 50% sawdust (BC(SD)), and 50% sewage sludge + 45% sawdust + 5% zeolite (BC(SD + Z)), showed variable effects on soil and lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L. var. Brilant) properties, depending on the application dose (2.5% or 7.5%). BC biochar, low in organic matter and carbon but rich in nitrogen, phosphorus, and water-extractable calcium, enhanced soil enzymes despite decreased microbial respiration, and acidified soil at 7.5% dose. Partial replacement of sewage sludge with sawdust in feedstock for BC(SD) biochar maximized its organic matter, total organic carbon, oxygen content, and C: N ratio as hypothesized, with low content of stable carbon, and acid-extractable phosphorus. BC(SD) type supplied amended soil with the most accessible form of organic matter and promoted enhanced basal respiration as well as several types of induced respiration, it also increased  $\beta$ -glucosidase activity at 7.5% dose. For short-term soil applications in conditions determined by the described pot trial, the sewage sludge-sawdust biochar demonstrated the most favourable effects, rapidly enhancing microbial activity and nutrient transformation. Zeolite addition to sewage sludge + sawdust feedstock changed BC(SD + Z) biochar in comparison to BC(SD) towards reduced organic matter and total organic carbon but increased sulfur, ammonium, and acid-extractable phosphorus and calcium. These traits were ascribed to zeolite's immobilizing effect on nutrients due to their sorption, which feature promoted the most mitigated respiration and enzyme activity of urease and N-acetyl- $\beta$ -D-glucosaminidase. The assumed limited availability of nutrients in BC(SD + Z) variant was coupled with the most negatively affected plant traits – dry biomass and content of leaf pigments (chlorophyll *a*, *b*, carotenoids). BC(SD) biochar demonstrated promising short-term benefits for soil microbiome (activity and biomass) and fertility, plant nutrition, while BC(SD + Z) exerted

completely opposite effect, with long-termed implication for higher stabilization of organic matter and prolonged and gradual release of bound nutrients, which could benefit to sustainable agriculture practice. However, these assumptions of long-term promising implications of the tested biochar types warrant further investigation, which will necessarily include testing in the field conditions on the small-scaled-plot level.

## Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12870-025-06352-w>.

Supplementary Material 1

## Acknowledgements

The authors sincerely acknowledge the Researchers Supporting Project number (RSP2025R347), King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

## Author contributions

Conceptualization, T.H., J.H., J.K., A.Z. and M.B.; methodology, T.H., K.L., J.H., O.M., L.M., T.C.H. and M.B.; software, T.B., M.H.S. and A.K.; validation, M.B., T.H., L.M., M.N. and A.M.; formal analysis, A.M., A.K., S.A. and T.B.; investigation, J.H., A.M. and M.B.; resources, A.K., K.L., L.M., T.C.H., and O.M.; data curation, T.H., T.B., K.L. and O.L.; writing—original draft preparation, A.Z., K.L. and J.H.; writing—review and editing, A.Z., T.H., J.H., J.K., A.M., M.N., M.H.S., S.A. and M.B.; visualization, T.H., T.B. and A.K.; supervision, A.M., J.K., T.C.H. and M.B. and project administration, J.H., A.K., L.M., K.L., M.H.S., S.A. and T.C.H. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

## Funding

The work was supported by the projects of Technology Agency of the Czech Republic TJ0200026, by the Ministry of Agriculture of the Czech Republic, institutional support MZE-RO1224, MZE-RO1724 and by Researchers Supporting Project number (RSP2025R347), King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

## Data availability

Data is provided within the manuscript or supplementary information files.

## Declarations

### Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

### Consent for publication

Not applicable.

### Institutional review board statement

Not applicable.

### Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

## Author details

<sup>1</sup>Department of Agrochemistry, Soil Science, Microbiology and Plant Nutrition, Faculty of AgriSciences, Mendel University in Brno, Brno 613 00, Czech Republic

<sup>2</sup>Agrovýzkum Rapotín, Ltd, Vyzkumníku 863, Rapotín 788 13, Czech Republic

<sup>3</sup>Key Laboratory of Vegetation Restoration and Management of Degraded Ecosystems, South China Botanical Garden, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guangzhou 510650, China

<sup>4</sup>Department of Plant Biology, Faculty of AgriSciences, Mendel University in Brno, Brno 61300, Czech Republic

<sup>5</sup>Department of Botany and Microbiology, College of Science, King Saud University, Riyadh 11451, Saudi Arabia

<sup>6</sup>Institute of Soil and Environmental Sciences, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad, Pakistan

<sup>7</sup>Agricultural Research, Ltd, Troubsko 664 41, Czech Republic

<sup>8</sup>AdMaS Research Centre, Faculty of Civil Engineering, Brno University of Technology, Purkynova 651/139, Brno 61200, Czech Republic

<sup>9</sup>Department of Landscape Ecology, Landscape Research Institute, Lidicka 25/27, Brno 60200, Czech Republic

Received: 18 December 2024 / Accepted: 4 March 2025

Published online: 13 March 2025

## References

1. Milieu/WRC/RPA. Environment economic and social impacts of the use of sewage sludge on land. Final Report, Part III: Project Interim Reports. In: *Report prepared for the European Commission, DG Environment*. Brussels, Belgium; 2010.
2. Healy M, Fenton O, Cummins E, Clarke R, Peyton D, Fleming G, Wall D, Morrison L, Cormican M. EPA research report 200. Health and Water Quality Impacts Arising from Land Spreading of Biosolids; 2017.
3. Sztangret I. The System Value of Municipal Waste - Entities, Processes, Outcomes. In: *35th International Business Information Management Association Conference (IBIMA): Apr 01–02 2020; Seville, SPAIN*. NORRISTOWN: Int Business Information Management Assoc-Ibima; 2020. 2665–2678.
4. Fox JT, Zook AN, Freiss J, Appel B, Appel J, Ozsuer C, Sarac M. Thermal conversion of blended food production waste and municipal sewage sludge to recoverable products. *J Clean Prod*. 2019;220:57–64. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.02.055>
5. Schnell M, Horst T, Quicker P. Thermal treatment of sewage sludge in Germany: a review. *J Environ Manage*. 2020;263:16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2020.110367>
6. Stapf D, Ciceri G, Johansson I. Trends and drivers in alternative thermal conversion of waste. IEA bioenergy: task 36. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.5445/IR/1000124179>
7. Herbert GMJ, Krishnan AU. Quantifying environmental performance of biomass energy. *Renew Sustain Energy Rev*. 2016;59:292–308. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2015.12.254>
8. Bicakova O, Cimova N, Voros D, Nahunkova J, Rimnacova D. The processing of stabilized sewage sludge by high-temperature slow pyrolysis and gasification. In: *7th International Conference on Chemical Technology (ICCT): Apr 15–17 2019; Mikulov, CZECH REPUBLIC*. PRAGUE: Czech Soc Industrial Chemistry; 2019. 329–334.
9. Goldan E, Nedeff V, Barsan N, Culea M, Tomozei C, Panainte-Lehadus M, Mosnegutu E. Evaluation of the use of sewage sludge biochar as a soil amendment—a review. *Sustainability*. 2022;14(9):22. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s14095309>
10. Inguanzo M, Domínguez A, Menéndez JA, Blanco CG, Pis JJ. On the pyrolysis of sewage sludge: the influence of pyrolysis conditions on solid, liquid and gas fractions. *J Anal Appl Pyrol*. 2002;63(1):209–22. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0165-2370\(01\)00155-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0165-2370(01)00155-3)
11. Khiari B, Marias F, Zagrouba F, Vaxelaire J. Analytical study of the pyrolysis process in a wastewater treatment pilot station. *Desalination*. 2004;167:39–47. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.desal.2004.06.111>
12. Zielińska A, Oleszczuk P, Charnas B, Skubiszewska-Zięba J, Pasieczna-Patkowska S. Effect of sewage sludge properties on the biochar characteristic. *J Anal Appl Pyrol*. 2015;112:201–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaap.2015.01.025>
13. Michalska J, Turek-Szytów J, Dudło A, Surmacz-Górska J. Characterization of humic substances recovered from the sewage sludge and validity of their removal from this waste. *EFB Bioeconomy J*. 2022;2:100026. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioeco.2022.100026>
14. Udayanga WDC, Veksha A, Giannis A, Lisak G, Lim TT. Effects of sewage sludge organic and inorganic constituents on the properties of pyrolysis products. *Energy Conv Manag*. 2019;196:1410–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enconman.2019.06.025>
15. Gascó G, Blanco CG, Guerrero F, Méndez Lázaro AM. The influence of organic matter on sewage sludge pyrolysis. *J Anal Appl Pyrol*. 2005;74(1–2):413–20. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaap.2004.08.007>
16. Hossain MK, Strezov V, Chan KY, Ziolkowski A, Nelson PF. Influence of pyrolysis temperature on production and nutrient properties of wastewater sludge

- biochar. *J Environ Manage.* 2011;92(1):223–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2010.09.008>
17. Kong L, Liu J, Zhou Q, Sun Z, Ma Z. Sewage sludge derived biochars provoke negative effects on wheat growth related to the PTEs. *Biochem Eng J.* 2019;152:107386. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bej.2019.107386>
  18. Lu H, Zhang W, Wang S, Zhuang L, Yang Y, Qiu R. Characterization of sewage sludge-derived biochars from different feedstocks and pyrolysis temperatures. *J Anal Appl Pyrol.* 2013;102:137–43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaap.2013.03.004>
  19. Zielińska A, Oleszczuk P. The conversion of sewage sludge into biochar reduces polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon content and ecotoxicity but increases trace metal content. *Biomass Bioenergy.* 2015;75:235–44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2015.02.019>
  20. de Souza Souza C, Bomfim MR, Conceicao de Almeida MD, Alves LS, de Santana WN, da Silva Amorim IC, Santos JAG. Induced changes of pyrolysis temperature on the physicochemical traits of sewage sludge and on the potential ecological risks. *Sci Rep.* 2021;11(1):974. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-79658-4>
  21. Vali N, Åmand L-E, Combres A, Richards T, Pettersson A. Pyrolysis of municipal sewage sludge to investigate char and phosphorous yield together with heavy-metal removal—experimental and by thermodynamic calculations. *Energies.* 2021;14(5):1477. <https://doi.org/10.3390/en14051477>
  22. Li B, Ding S, Fan H, Ren Y. Experimental investigation into the effect of pyrolysis on chemical forms of heavy metals in sewage sludge biochar (SSB), with brief ecological risk assessment. *Mater (Basel).* 2021;14(2). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma14020447>
  23. Singh RP, Agrawal M. Potential benefits and risks of land application of sewage sludge. *Waste Manage.* 2008;28(2):347–58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2006.12.010>
  24. Ciscato M, Vangronsveld J, Valcke R. Effects of heavy metals on the fast chlorophyll fluorescence induction kinetics of photosystem II: a comparative study. *Z Für Naturforschung C.* 2014;54. <https://doi.org/10.1515/znc-1999-9-1019>
  25. Rau S, Miersch J, Neumann D, Weber E, Krauss GJ. Biochemical responses of the aquatic moss fontinalis antipyretica to cd, Cu, Pb and Zn determined by chlorophyll fluorescence and protein levels. *Environ Exp Bot.* 2007;59(3):299–306. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2006.03.001>
  26. Huang XH, Zhu F, Yan WD, Chen XY, Wang GJ, Wang RJ. Effects of Pb and Zn toxicity on chlorophyll fluorescence and biomass production of *Koeleria paniculata* and *Zelkova Schneideriana* young plants. *Photosynthetica.* 2019;57(2):688–97. <https://doi.org/10.32615/ps.2019.050>
  27. Wang S, Guo W, Gao F, Yang R. Characterization and Pb(II) removal potential of corn straw- and municipal sludge-derived biochars. *Royal Soc Open Sci.* 2017;4(9):170402. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsos.170402>
  28. Xu X, Hu X, Ding Z, Chen Y. Effects of coprolysis of sludge with calcium carbonate and calcium hydrogen phosphate on chemical stability of carbon and release of toxic elements in the resultant biochars. *Chemosphere.* 2017;189:76–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2017.09.021>
  29. Gopinath A, Divyapriya G, Srivastava V, Laiju AR, Nidheesh PV, Kumar MS. Conversion of sewage sludge into biochar: a potential resource in water and wastewater treatment. *Environ Res.* 2021;194:110656. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2020.110656>
  30. Jin J, Wang M, Cao Y, Wu S, Liang P, Li Y, Zhang J, Zhang J, Wong MH, Shan S, et al. Cumulative effects of bamboo sawdust addition on pyrolysis of sewage sludge: biochar properties and environmental risk from metals. *Bioresour Technol.* 2017;228:218–26. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2016.12.103>
  31. Konczak M, Oleszczuk P. Co-pyrolysis of sewage sludge and biomass in carbon dioxide as a carrier gas affects the total and leachable metals in biochars. *J Hazard Mater.* 2020;400:123144. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2020.123144>
  32. Lin Y, Liao Y, Yu Z, Fang S, Ma X. A study on co-pyrolysis of bagasse and sewage sludge using TG-FTIR and Py-GC/MS. *Energy Conv Manag.* 2017;151:190–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enconman.2017.08.062>
  33. Huang H-j, Yang T, Lai F-y, Wu G-q. Co-pyrolysis of sewage sludge and sawdust/rice straw for the production of biochar. *J Anal Appl Pyrol.* 2017;125:61–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaap.2017.04.018>
  34. Zhao B, Xu X, Xu S, Chen X, Li H, Zeng F. Surface characteristics and potential ecological risk evaluation of heavy metals in the bio-char produced by co-pyrolysis from municipal sewage sludge and hazelnut shell with zinc chloride. *Bioresour Technol.* 2017;243:375–83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2017.06.032>
  35. Duan X-Y, Cao Y, Liu T-Z, Li L, Wang B, Wang X-D. Nutrient stability and sorption of sewage sludge biochar prepared from co-pyrolysis of sewage sludge and stalks / mineral materials. *Env Pollut Bioavail.* 2020;32(1):12–8. <https://doi.org/10.1080/26395940.2019.1710259>
  36. Wang Z, Xie L, Liu K, Wang J, Zhu H, Song Q, Shu X. Co-pyrolysis of sewage sludge and cotton stalks. *Waste Manage (New York NY).* 2019;89:430–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2019.04.033>
  37. Rodriguez JA, Lustosa Filho JF, Melo LCA, de Assis IR, de Oliveira TS. Co-pyrolysis of agricultural and industrial wastes changes the composition and stability of biochars and can improve their agricultural and environmental benefits. *J Anal Appl Pyrol.* 2021;155:105036. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaap.2021.105036>
  38. Bolognesi S, Bernardi G, Callegari A, Dondi D, Capodaglio AG. Biochar production from sewage sludge and microalgae mixtures: properties, sustainability and possible role in circular economy. *Biomass Convers Biorefinery.* 2019;11(2):289–99. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13399-019-00572-5>
  39. Li Q, Zhong ZP, Du HR, Zheng X, Zhang B, Jin BS. Co-pyrolysis of sludge and kaolin/zeolite in a rotary kiln: analysis of stabilizing heavy metals. *Front Env Sci Eng.* 2022;16(7):13. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11783-021-1488-1>
  40. Lonova K, Holatko J, Hammerschmidt T, Mravcova L, Kucerik J, Mustafa A, Kintl A, Naveed M, Racek J, Grulichova M, et al. Microwave pyrolyzed sewage sludge: influence on soil microbiology, nutrient status, and plant biomass. *Chem Biol Technol Agric.* 2022;9(1):20. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40538-022-00354-8>
  41. Li Y, Yu Z, Chen L, Tang F, Ma X. Fast catalytic co-pyrolysis characteristics and kinetics of *Chlorella vulgaris* and municipal solid waste over hierarchical ZSM-5 zeolite. *Bioenergy Res.* 2020;14(1):226–40. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12155-020-10185-w>
  42. Biney M, Gusiati MZ. Biochar from co-pyrolyzed municipal sewage sludge (MSS): part 2: biochar characterization and application in the remediation of heavy metal-contaminated soils. *Materials.* 2024;17(15):3850.
  43. Mustafa A, Holatko J, Hammerschmidt T, Kucerik J, Kintl A, Baltazar T, Malicek O, Brtnicky M. The role of biochar co-pyrolyzed with sawdust and zeolite on soil microbiological and physicochemical attributes, crop agronomic, and ecophysiological performance. *J Soil Sci Plant Nutr.* 2023;13. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42729-023-01428-8>
  44. Singh M, Saladeen SA, Norouzi O, Al-Salem SM, Gilroyed BH, Dutta A. Co-pyrolysis of biomass and tires using commercial zeolite and biochar-based catalyst. *Chem Eng Process - Process Intensif.* 2023;187:109356. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cep.2023.109356>
  45. An X, Wu Z, Yu J, Cravotto G, Liu X, Li Q, Yu B. Coprolysis of biomass, bentonite, and nutrients as a new strategy for the synthesis of improved biochar-based slow-release fertilizers. *ACS Sustain Chem Eng.* 2020;8(8):3181–90. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acssuschemeng.9b06483>
  46. Piasch MI, Iwabuchi K, Itoh T. Synthesizing biochar-based fertilizer with sustained phosphorus and potassium release: co-pyrolysis of nutrient-rich chicken manure and Ca-bentonite. *Sci Total Environ.* 2022;822:153509. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2022.153509>
  47. Wang F, Zhang R, Donne SW, Beyad Y, Liu X, Duan X, Yang T, Su P, Sun H. Co-pyrolysis of wood chips and bentonite/kaolin: influence of temperatures and minerals on characteristics and carbon sequestration potential of biochar. *Sci Total Environ.* 2022;838:156081. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2022.156081>
  48. Doni S, Gispert M, Peruzzi E, Macchi C, Mattii GB, Manzi D, Masini CM, Grazia M. Impact of natural zeolite on chemical and biochemical properties of vineyard soils. *Soil Use Manag.* 2020;37(4):832–42. <https://doi.org/10.1111/sum.12665>
  49. Sevcik J, Raček J, Hlušík P, Hlavinec P, Dvořák K. Microwave pyrolysis full-scale application on sewage sludge. *Desalination Water Treat.* 2017;112. <https://doi.org/10.5004/dwt.2018.22108>
  50. Raček J, Ševčík J, Komendova R, Kučerík J, Hlavinec P. Heavy metal fixation in Biochar after microwave pyrolysis of sewage sludge. *Desalination and Water Treatment;* 2019.
  51. EBC. European Biochar Certificate—Guidelines for a sustainable production of Biochar. In. European Biochar Foundation; 2023.
  52. ISO\_6878. Water quality - Determination of phosphorus - Ammonium molybdate spectrometric method in. Geneva, Switzerland: International Organization for Standardization; 2004.
  53. Rolfe SA, Scholes JD. Quantitative imaging of chlorophyll fluorescence. *New Phytol.* 1995;131(1):69–79. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.1995.tb03056.x>
  54. Lichtenthaler H, Buschmann C. Chlorophylls and carotenoids: Measurements and characterization by UV-Vis spectroscopy. *Food Analytical*

- Chemistry: Pigments, Colorants, Flavors, Texture and Bioactive Food Components* 2005:171–178.
55. ISO\_10390. Soil quality - Determination of pH. In: Geneva, Switzerland: International Organization for Standardization; 2005.
56. Campbell CD, Chapman SJ, Cameron CM, Davidson MS, Potts JM. A rapid microtiter plate method to measure carbon dioxide evolved from carbon substrate amendments so as to determine the physiological profiles of soil microbial communities by using whole soil. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2003;69(6):3593–9. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.69.6.3593-3599.2003>
57. ISO\_20130. Soil quality — Measurement of enzyme activity patterns in soil samples using colorimetric substrates in micro-well plates. In: Geneva, Switzerland: International Organization for Standardization; 2018.
58. R\_Core\_Team: R. A language and environment for statistical computing. In: Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2022.
59. Mendiburu dF. *agricolae*: Statistical Procedures for Agricultural Research. In., R package version 1.3-1 edn; 2020.
60. Hinkle DE, Wiersma W, Jurs SG. *Applied statistics for the behavioral sciences*. 5th ed. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin; 2003.
61. Wickham H. *ggplot2*: elegant graphics for data analysis. In: New York, USA: Springer-; 2016.
62. Zar JH. *Biostatistical analysis*. 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc.; 1984.
63. Lê S, Josse J, Husson F. *FactoMineR*: an R package for multivariate analysis. *J Stat Softw*. 2008;25(1):1–18. <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v025.i01>
64. Kassambara A, Mundt F. *Factoextra*: Extract and Visualize the Results of Multivariate Data Analyses. In., 1.0.7. edn; 2020.
65. Faraway RJJ. *Linear models with R*. Boca raton, FL, USA: Chapman & Hall/CRC; 2014.
66. Gross J, Ligges U. *Nortest*: Tests for normality. CRAN: Contributed Packages. 2015. <https://doi.org/10.32614/cran.package.nortest>
67. Pekár S, Brabec M, Brno. Czech Republic: Masaryk University; 2016.
68. Komsta L, Novomestky F. *moments*: Moments, Cumulants, Skewness, Kurtosis and Related Tests. CRAN: Contributed Packages. 2022. <https://doi.org/10.32614/cran.package.moments>
69. Franz M. Phosphate fertilization from sewage sludge ash (SSA). *Waste management* (New York, NY). 2008;28(10):1809–1818. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2007.08.011>
70. Mosa A, El-Ghamry A, Tolba M. Biochar-supported natural zeolite composite for recovery and reuse of aqueous phosphate and humate: batch sorption–desorption and bioassay investigations. *Environ Technol Innov*. 2020;19:100807. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eti.2020.100807>
71. Wang Y, Song X, Xu Z, Cao X, Song J, Huang W, Ge X, Wang H. Adsorption of nitrate and ammonium from water simultaneously using composite adsorbents constructed with functionalized biochar and modified zeolite. *Water Air Soil Pollut*. 2021;232(5):19. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11270-021-05145-9>
72. Wang C, Ouyang Y, Xing E, Luo Y, Shu X. Pressured hydrothermal activation on phosphorus to stabilize framework al for better ZSM-5-based cracking catalysts. *Microporous Mesoporous Mater*. 2021;323:111205. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micromeso.2021.111205>
73. Deng Z, Gu S, Cheng H, Xing D, Twagirayezu G, Wang X, Ning W, Mao M. Removal of phosphate from aqueous solution by zeolite-biochar composite: adsorption performance and regulation mechanism. *Appl Sci*. 2022;12(11):5334.
74. Szatanik-Kloc A, Szerement J, Adamczuk A, Jozefaciuk G. Effect of low zeolite doses on plants and soil physicochemical properties. *Mater* (Basel). 2021;14(10). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma14102617>
75. Ayalew AA, Aragaw TA. Removal of water hardness using zeolite synthesized from Ethiopian Kaolin by hydrothermal method. *Water Pract Technol*. 2019;14(1):145–59. <https://doi.org/10.2166/wpt.2018.116>
76. Johan PD, Ahmed OH, Maru A, Omar L, Hasbullah NA. Optimisation of charcoal and Sago (*Metroxylon sagu*) bark ash to improve phosphorus availability in acidic soils. *Agronomy*. 2021;11(9):1803. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy11091803>
77. Dewil R, Baeyens J, Roels J, Steene BVD. Distribution of sulphur compounds in sewage sludge treatment. *Environ Eng Sci*. 2008;25(6):879–86. <https://doi.org/10.1089/ees.2007.0143>
78. Khan M, Tarafder M, Priti M. Potential use of zeolites in agriculture: a review. *SAARC J Agric*. 2024;22:17–30. <https://doi.org/10.3329/sja.v22i1.72433>
79. Wang T, Zhang Q, Xiong Q, Huang J, Du D, Liu B, Xue Y. Effect of wood sawdust on pyrolytic performance of dyeing sludge: focusing on the sulfur migration and transformation. *Sep Purif Technol*. 2023;323:124421. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2023.124421>
80. Milovanovic J, Rakic V, Simic A, Alibegovic S, Krogstad T, Rajic N. Zeolite as a binding agent for ammonia ions and as a soil additive. Part 1 ammonia adsorption by the zeolite; 2013.
81. van de Garde JLB. Ammonia release from fast pyrolysis of MDF. Eindhoven, Netherlands: University of Technology of Eindhoven; 2006.
82. Tomczyk A, Sokołowska Z, Boguta P. Biochar physicochemical properties: pyrolysis temperature and feedstock kind effects. *Reviews Environ Sci Bio/Technology*. 2020;19(1):191–215. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11557-020-09523-3>
83. Domingues RR, Trugilho PF, Silva CA, Melo ICNd, Melo LC, Magriotis ZM, Sanchez-Monedero MA. Properties of biochar derived from wood and high-nutrient biomasses with the aim of agronomic and environmental benefits. *PLoS ONE*. 2017;12(5):e0176884.
84. Taarning E, Osmundsen CM, Yang X, Voss B, Andersen SI, Christensen CH. Zeolite-catalyzed biomass conversion to fuels and chemicals. *Energy Environ Sci*. 2011;4(3):793–804. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c004518g>
85. Kawamoto H. Lignin pyrolysis reactions. *J Wood Sci*. 2017;63(2):117–32. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10086-016-1606-z>
86. Ozdal T, Capanoglu E, Altay F. A review on protein–phenolic interactions and associated changes. *Food Res Int*. 2013;51(2):954–70. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2013.02.009>
87. Pérez EE, de la Luz AM, Rivalcoba VS, Hernández ALM, Santos CV. Removal of Phenolic Compounds from Water by Adsorption and Photocatalysis. In: *Phenolic Compounds - Natural Sources, Importance and Applications*. Edited by Soto-Hernandez M, M. P-T, del Rosario MG-M. London, UK: IntechOpen; 2017. <https://doi.org/10.5772/66895>
88. Han L, Ro KS, Wang Y, Sun K, Sun H, Libra JA, Xing B. Oxidation resistance of biochars as a function of feedstock and pyrolysis condition. *Sci Total Environ*. 2018;616–617:335–44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.11.014>
89. Laurino C, Palmieri B. Zeolite: the magic stone; main nutritional, environmental, experimental and clinical fields of application. *Nutr Hosp*. 2015;32(2):573–81. <https://doi.org/10.3305/nh.2015.32.2.8914>
90. Premalatha RP, Poorna Bindu J, Nivetha E, Malarvizhi P, Manorama K, Parameswari E, Davamani V. A review on biochar's effect on soil properties and crop growth. *Front Energy Res*. 2023;11. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fenrg.2023.1092637>
91. You J, Sun L, Liu X, Hu X, Xu Q. Effects of sewage sludge biochar on soil characteristics and crop yield in loamy sand soil. *Pol J Environ Stud*. 2019;28(4):2973–80. <https://doi.org/10.15244/pjoes/93294>
92. Filcheva EG, Tsadilas CD. Influence of clinoptilolite and compost on soil properties. *Commun Soil Sci Plant Anal*. 2007;33(3–4):595–607. <https://doi.org/10.1081/css-120002766>
93. Wang Y, Liu R. Improvement of acidic soil properties by biochar from fast pyrolysis. *Environ Prog Sustain Energy*. 2018;37(5):1743–9. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ep.12825>
94. Breulmann M, van Afferden M, Müller RA, Schulz E, Fühner C. Process conditions of pyrolysis and hydrothermal carbonization affect the potential of sewage sludge for soil carbon sequestration and amelioration. *J Anal Appl Pyrol*. 2017;124:256–65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaap.2017.01.026>
95. Mierzwa-Hersztek M, Gondek K, Klimkowicz-Pawlas A, Baran A, Bajda T. Sewage sludge biochars management-ecotoxicity, mobility of heavy metals, and soil microbial biomass. *Environ Toxicol Chem*. 2018;37(4):1197–207. <https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.4045>
96. Paz-Ferreiro J, Gascó G, Gutiérrez B, Méndez A. Soil biochemical activities and the geometric mean of enzyme activities after application of sewage sludge and sewage sludge biochar to soil. *Biol Fertil Soils*. 2011;48(5):511–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-011-0644-3>
97. Figueiredo C, Moreira Leão, Paz V. Carbon mineralization in a soil amended with sewage sludge-derived biochar. *Appl Sci*. 2019;9(21):4481. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app9214481>
98. Lu W, Ding W, Zhang J, Li Y, Luo J, Bolan N, Xie Z. Biochar suppressed the decomposition of organic carbon in a cultivated sandy loam soil: a negative priming effect. *Soil Biol Biochem*. 2014;76:12–21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2014.04.029>
99. Wang J, Xiong Z, Kuzyakov Y. Biochar stability in soil: meta-analysis of decomposition and priming effects. *GCB Bioenergy*. 2015;8(3):512–23. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcbb.12266>
100. Barbosa FLA, Santos JMR, Mota JCA, Costa MCG, Araujo ASF, Garcia KGV, Almeida MS, Nascimento IV, Medeiros EV, Ferreira OP, et al. Potential of biochar to restoration of microbial biomass and enzymatic activity in a highly degraded semiarid soil. *Sci Rep*. 2024;14(1):26065. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-024-77368-9>



101. Feng Z, Fan Z, Song H, Li K, Lu H, Liu Y, Cheng F. Biochar induced changes of soil dissolved organic matter: the release and adsorption of dissolved organic matter by biochar and soil. *Sci Total Environ*. 2021;783:147091. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.147091>
102. Nwaka S, Holzer H. Molecular biology of trehalose and the trehalases in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Prog Nucl Acid Res Mol Biol*. 1998;58:197–237. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0079-6603\(08\)60037-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0079-6603(08)60037-9)
103. Solaiman ZM, Abbott LK, Murphy DV. Biochar phosphorus concentration dictates mycorrhizal colonisation, plant growth and soil phosphorus cycling. *Sci Rep*. 2019;9(1):5062. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-41671-7>
104. Cataldo E, Salvi L, Paoli F, Fucile M, Masciandaro G, Manzi D, Masini CM, Mattii GB. Application of zeolites in agriculture and other potential uses: a review. *Agronomy*. 2021;11(8):1547. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy11081547>
105. Ekenler M, Tabatabai M.  $\beta$ -Glucosaminidase activity of soils: effect of cropping systems and its relationship to nitrogen mineralization. *Biol Fertil Soils*. 2002;36:367–76. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-002-0541-x>
106. Stott DE, Andrews SS, Liebig MA, Wienhold BJ, Karlen DL. Evaluation of  $\beta$ -glucosidase activity as a soil quality indicator for the soil management assessment framework. *Soil Sci Soc Am J*. 2010;74(1):107–19. <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj2009.0029>
107. Lopes ÉMG, Reis MM, Frazão LA, da Mata Terra LE, Lopes EF, dos Santos MM, Fernandes LA. Biochar increases enzyme activity and total microbial quality of soil grown with sugarcane. *Environ Technol Innov*. 2021;21:101270. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eti.2020.101270>
108. Oladele SO. Effect of biochar amendment on soil enzymatic activities, carboxylate secretions and upland rice performance in a sandy clay loam alfisol of Southwest Nigeria. *Sci Afr*. 2019;4:e00107. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sciaf.2019.e00107>
109. Jafari Tarf O, Akça MO, Donar YO, Bilge S, Turgay OC, Sinağ A. The short-term effects of pyro- and hydrochars derived from different organic wastes on some soil properties. *Biomass Convers Biorefinery*. 2021;12(1):129–39. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13399-021-01282-7>
110. Guettes R, Dott W, Eisentraeger A. Determination of urease activity in soils by carbon dioxide release for ecotoxicological evaluation of contaminated soils. *Ecotoxicology*. 2002;11(5):357–64. <https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1020509422554>
111. Yu G, Xie S, Ma J, Shang X, Wang Y, Yu C, You F, Tang X, Levatti UH, Pan L et al. Influence of sewage sludge biochar on the microbial environment, Chinese cabbage growth, and heavy metals availability of soil. In: *Biochar - An Imperative Amendment for Soil and the Environment*. Edited by Lazinica A, Kordic V: IntechOpen; 2019. <https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.82091>
112. Hagemann N, Joseph S, Schmidt HP, Kammann CI, Harter J, Borch T, Young RB, Varga K, Taherymoosavi S, Elliott KW, et al. Organic coating on biochar explains its nutrient retention and stimulation of soil fertility. *Nat Commun*. 2017;8(1):1089. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-01123-0>
113. Bertrand M, Schoefs B. Photosynthetic pigment metabolism in plant during stress. In: *Handbook of plant and crop stress*. Edited by Pessarakli M. New York, USA: Marcel Dekker, Inc.; 1999.
114. Bhat MA, Mishra AK, Shah SN, Bhat MA, Jan S, Rahman S, Baek K-H, Jan AT. Soil and mineral nutrients in plant health: a prospective study of iron and phosphorus in the growth and development of plants. *Curr Issues Mol Biol*. 2024;46(6):5194–222.
115. Hochmal AK, Schulze S, Trompelt K, Hippler M. Calcium-dependent regulation of photosynthesis. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2015;1847(9):993–1003. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbabi.2015.02.010>
116. Thor K. Calcium-nutrient and messenger. *Front Plant Sci*. 2019;10:440. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2019.00440>
117. Reich PB, Oleksyn J, Wright IJ. Leaf phosphorus influences the photosynthesis-nitrogen relation: a cross-biome analysis of 314 species. *Oecologia*. 2009;160(2):207–12. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00442-009-1291-3>
118. Atkinson D. Some general effects of phosphorus deficiency on growth and development. *New Phytol*. 1973;72(1):101–11. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.1973.tb02014.x>
119. Broadley MR, Escobar-Gutiérrez AJ, Burns A, Burns IG. What are the effects of nitrogen deficiency on growth components of lettuce? *New Phytol*. 2000;147(3):519–26. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1469-8137.2000.00715.x>
120. Zhao D, Reddy KR, Kakani VG, Reddy VR. Nitrogen deficiency effects on plant growth, leaf photosynthesis, and hyperspectral reflectance properties of sorghum. *Eur J Agron*. 2005;22(4):391–403. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eja.2004.06.005>
121. Kalaji HM, Baba W, Gediga K, Goltsev V, Samborska IA, Cetner MD, Dimitrova S, Piszcz U, Bielecki K, Karmowska K, et al. Chlorophyll fluorescence as a tool for nutrient status identification in rapeseed plants. *Photosynth Res*. 2018;136(3):329–43. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s1120-017-0467-7>
122. Paunov M, Koleva L, Vassilev A, Vangronsveld J, Goltsev V. Effects of different metals on photosynthesis: cadmium and zinc affect chlorophyll fluorescence in durum wheat. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2018;19(3). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms19030787>
123. Chagas JKM, Figueiredo CC, Silva JD, Shah K, Paz-Ferreiro J. Long-term effects of sewage sludge-derived biochar on the accumulation and availability of trace elements in a tropical soil. *J Environ Qual*. 2021;50(1):264–77. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jeq2.20183>
124. Smith J, Paul E. 7 The significance of soil microbial biomass estimations. In: 2017: 357–86. <https://doi.org/10.1201/9780203739389-8>

## Publisher's note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.