

1 **Dynamic Molecular Structure of Plant Biomass-derived Black Carbon**

2 **(Biochar)**

3 **- Supporting Information -**

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9 **Journal: Environmental Science & Technology**

10 **Submitted: 12-23-2009**

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37 **Experimental Section (SI)**

38 **(i) Char Production**

39 Commercially available Ponderosa pine shavings (*Pinus ponderosa*) were purchased
40 through GEM shavings LLC in Auburn, WA. Tall Fescue straw (*Festuca arundinacea*) was
41 collected at the Oregon State University Hyslop Field Research Laboratory in Corvallis, OR. An
42 automated plant-material grinder was used to obtain particle sizes of less than 1.5 mm for all
43 materials. The ground plant materials were then air-dried at 40°C for 48 hours to establish similar
44 moisture contents. Leaving a head-space of about 100 mL, 280 g of ground plant material were
45 placed in a heat-resistant Inconel 601 crucible (1500 mL; Metal Technology Inc., Albany, OR)
46 and covered with a tight fitting Inconel lid to create oxygen-limiting conditions during the
47 charring process. The plant biomass in the crucibles occupied 90% of the available space,
48 leaving 150 mL headspace filled with air. Given that the O₂ content of air is approximately 20%,
49 the charring process occurred in the presence of 30 mL O₂. With an average density of 1.309 g/L
50 at 25°C and a total biomass of 280 g, the O₂ availability amounts to $\sim 8 \times 10^{-5}$ g O₂ per g biomass.

51 The filled crucibles were placed in a 550 Series Fisher Scientific Isotemp muffle
52 furnace (Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA) preheated to 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600 or 700°C
53 and charred at ambient pressure and atmosphere. The reported temperatures represent oven
54 temperatures during preparation. The actual reaction temperature may differ from these values
55 due to endothermic reactions during dehydration and exothermic reactions during pyrolysis.
56 After charring for 1 hour, the closed crucible was immediately moved to a desiccator and
57 allowed to cool. After weighing, the charred residue was transferred to airtight containers and
58 stored in the dark. Char samples were milled to pass a <0.25 μm sieve (60 mesh) prior to further
59 analyses. The char samples are hereafter referred to as WX00 (wood) and GX00 (grass) with “X”

60 indicating the final charring temperature (100-700°C). For comparison, fresh plant material
61 (W000 and G000) receiving the same treatment was included in some analyses.

62 **(ii) Char Characterization**

63 All chars were subjected to proximate analysis according to the American Society for
64 Testing and Materials (ASTM) D1762-84 method (1). Essentially, in this analysis the char is
65 heated in a covered crucible to 950 °C and held at this temperature for 6 min. The measured
66 weight loss is defined as volatile matter (VM), and the residual solid is fixed C. Subsequently,
67 the carbonized char is heated in an open crucible to 750 °C and held at this temperature for 6 h.
68 The material that remains in the crucible is defined to be ash. The reported char yield is the dry
69 mass of char produced divided by the dry mass of the precursor (grass or wood) loaded into the
70 crucible. The interested reader finds more information on proximate analyses and typical values
71 for volatile matter and fixed carbon yields in Antal and Gronli (2).

72 **(iii) BET-N₂ surface area**

73 Specific surface areas of all char samples were obtained with N₂-adsorption
74 measurements at liquid nitrogen temperature (77 K) using an NOVA 2200e surface area analyzer
75 (Quantachrome Instrument Corp., Boynton Beach, FL) and ultra high purity (99.999%) gaseous
76 nitrogen (Polar Cryogenics, Portland, OR). Degassing of the samples was performed in sample
77 tubes at 60°C under continuous N₂ gas flow for ~12h. The adequacy of degassing times was
78 validated using the method described in the ASTM D4820-97 for black carbon N₂ adsorption
79 measurements (3). Nitrogen adsorption was measured for a relative pressure range of 0.01-0.03
80 and specific surface areas were obtained from the most linear portion of the isotherm using a
81 minimum of 10 data points. SAs were calculated based on the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET)

82 equation after Brunauer et al. (4) with a molecular surface area for N₂ of 0.162 nm². All N₂
83 measurements were performed in triplicate (N = 3).

84 **(iv) Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy**

85 Attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform infrared (ATR FT-IR) spectroscopy was
86 performed using a Thermo Nicolet Nexus 470 FT-IR 6700 spectrophotometer equipped with a
87 smart endurance single-bounce diamond ATR accessory (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham,
88 MA). Complete temperature series of grass and wood chars were scanned in the mid-infrared
89 region from 4000 to 400 cm⁻¹. For each sample, 128 co-added spectra were recorded at a
90 resolution of 2 cm⁻¹ and processed using the OMNIC 2.1 software. A detailed account of the
91 peak assignments can be found in the Supporting Information (SI) (Table S-1).

92 **(v) X-ray diffraction**

93 Approximately 1.5 g of ground sample was back loaded into a 2.5 cm diameter circular
94 cavity holder and run on a PANalytical X'Pert Pro Instrument using Co-K α radiation at 40 kV
95 and 40 mA. Diffraction patterns were recorded by step scanning from 10-60° 2 θ , with the sample
96 spinning at 2 revolutions per second. For easier display, scans were subjected to a standardized
97 background correction and noise reduction procedure using the X'pert High Score plus software
98 and PlotIT 3.1.

99 **(vi) Near-edge X-ray absorption fine structure (NEXAFS) spectroscopy**

100 Detailed operation principles of STXM/NEXAFS are published elsewhere (5-7) and
101 will be described here only briefly.

102 Ground char particles were distributed on silicon nitride membranes with a thickness of
103 50 nm. Stacks of STXM images were acquired at the carbon K-edge (280-320 eV) for particles
104 which allowed transmission of the X-ray beam. NEXAFS spectra were extracted from each stack

105 for specific regions of the image. The fine structure in the C 1s NEXAFS region spans the energy
106 range of 283 to 290 eV; above 290 eV transitions tend to be very broad and overlap with the
107 absorption edge(s). Potential radiation damage of the char samples (8) was minimized by
108 consistently avoiding dwell times of less than 1.5 ms.

109 A minimum of three distinct particles with mean diameter of less than 20 μm were
110 selected for each type of char. To avoid spectral distortion, spectra were extracted from particles
111 or areas of the particles with an optical density of less than 1.5. The extracted spectra were
112 averaged over multiple regions and, if possible, the entire particle. The spectra for each particle
113 were normalized to unity at the 310 eV position. Within temperature treatments, spectra were
114 nearly congruent, allowing us to obtain a representative spectrum for each char sample by
115 averaging over the spectra of the three particles. Peak assignment was based upon the references
116 listed in Table S-2.

117

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118

119 **Results and Discussion (SI)**

120 **(i) $1s-\pi^*$ exciton phenomenon (NEXAFS)**

121 If electronic excitation of an ion in a crystal is considered, the excitation corresponds to
122 the removal of an electron from one orbital of a molecule and its elevation to an orbital of higher
123 energy, the excited state of the molecule can be envisaged as the coexistence of an electron and a
124 hole. Extensive highly conjugated sp^2 -bonded carbon domains such as graphene permit the
125 electron and the hole to migrate. This mobile excitation is referred to as an exciton (9, 10).

126 $1s-\sigma^*$ exciton signals were found in NEXAFS spectra of graphite (11-14), carbon
127 nanotubes (15-17) and carbonaceous particulate matter (5, 18, 19).

128 **(ii) Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy**

129 The evolution of FT-IR spectra of wood and grass chars as a function of charring
130 temperature is shown in Fig. 1. No FT-IR detectable chemical changes occur as plant material is
131 heated to 100 and 200°C. More noteworthy changes occur at 300°C, particularly for grass char.
132 After heating to 300°C, there were stronger C=O and C=C stretching vibrations at 1700 and 1600
133 cm^{-1} indicating the formation of ketones, anhydrides, esters, and carboxylic C as well as aromatic
134 components (20, 21). At the same time the absorbance of the dominant C-O stretch at 1030 cm^{-1}
135 associated with cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin slightly decreased.

136 Heating to 400°C results in more substantial chemical transformations. Bands due to
137 hydrogen bonded O-H stretching (3200-3500 cm^{-1}) of water molecules loose intensity.
138 Absorption of the aliphatic C-H stretching (2935 and 2885 cm^{-1}) decreases slightly but sustains a
139 strong presence indicative of heat-resistant aliphatic structures. Greater aromatic C=C stretching
140 vibrations (1600 cm^{-1}) become the dominant feature for both wood and grass chars. Further

141 evidence for aromatic C is provided by the appearance of three bands between 885 and 750 cm^{-1}
142 (out-of-plane deformations of aromatic C-H (21, 22)). The signals near 815 and 750 cm^{-1} may
143 indicate O-substitution of quinone and furan-like structures (23). Specifically, the presence of
144 ring C-H stretch bands at 3200 cm^{-1} suggests five-membered N/O-heterocycles such as furan and
145 pyrrole (22).

146 The intensity of bands reflecting undecomposed cellulosic and ligneous C decline (most
147 obvious at 1030 cm^{-1}) at 400°C. Conversely, both wood and char spectra show evidence for
148 lignin- and cellulose-derived transformation products. Ligneous products are reflected in more
149 prominent peaks at 1440 (C=O stretching of ketones) and 1375 cm^{-1} (O-H bending of phenols).
150 Cellulose-derived products in wood are suggested by bands at 1185 and 1270 cm^{-1} ,
151 corresponding to C-O stretching of pyranone rings and guaiacyl monomers, respectively. Signals
152 at 1180-1030 cm^{-1} in grass chars may arise from the C-H deformation of cellulose-derived
153 substituted aromatics (24).

154 Between 500 and 700°C, all features related to water, oxygenated substituents, aliphatic
155 C, and the aromatic C=C stretch progressively decline. Two exceptions from this trend involving
156 aromatic components are absorption by C-H stretching (3050 cm^{-1}) and C-H out-of-plane
157 vibrations (885-750 cm^{-1}). An increase of intensity at 885-752 relative to 1650-1500 cm^{-1}
158 indicates a larger degree of condensation (21). Heating from 400 to 700°C progressively
159 increases this ratio, confirming that smaller (substituted) aromatic units condense into larger
160 sheets. At 700°C, any residual C functionalities diminish and grass and wood char spectra
161 become very similar. Both resemble closely FT-IR spectra of pure graphite (as displayed, e.g., in
162 (25).

163 The fact that the baseline of both wood and char is progressively shifted upward with
164 increasing temperature is a common phenomenon in spectra of carbonized materials (26). As a
165 result of increasing diffuse absorption of the sample, the upward shift is assigned to low-energy
166 electron excitations of condensed aromatic structures (25).

167 To summarize, FT-IR spectra show (i) dehydration of cellulosic and ligneous
168 components starting at 300°C, (ii) a strong presence of (heterocyclic) aromatic C and
169 lignin/cellulose-derived transformation products at 400°C, and (iii) an increasing degree of
170 condensation at charring temperatures of 500°C and beyond.

171

171 **Environmental Implications (SI)**

172 **(i) Persistence in the Environment**

173 At the center of an ongoing debate over the extent to which chars and other forms of BC
174 are able to persist in soils and sediments is the so-called “paradox of refractory-labile BC” (27).
175 It refers to a lack of mechanistic knowledge to explain large observed differences in residence
176 time between seemingly refractory forms and such that appear to be more dynamic. Our
177 investigation has revealed structural and chemical discontinuities which make it plain that the
178 persistence of black in the environment does not only depend on environmental drivers, but also
179 and likely to a much greater extent on its particular chemistry and physical structure. We believe
180 that investigations based on the suggested categories and individual char phases may prove
181 particularly useful for studies that intend to rationalize observed variations in the chars’
182 resistance to abiotic and biotic degradation (or “aging”) (28-30).

183 We find our assessment supported by a study in which chars produced at different
184 temperature were subjected to an oxidative (“aging”) treatment. Trompowsky et al. (31) then
185 quantified acid and alkali extractable components. Alkali extraction yield was greatest for chars
186 produced at intermediate temperatures (450°C), consistent with the behavior of a amorphous char
187 as it points to components that are readily degraded and extracted from the char matrix. For chars
188 produced at temperatures 500 and 550°C, lower yields were attributed to the higher degree of
189 condensation. Accordingly, these materials fall into the composite char category. It is
190 conceivable that in such chars, single molecules of an otherwise readily extractable phase are
191 ‘trapped’ by a second increasingly condensed and/or crystalline phase – a suggestion to this end
192 has been published previously by Almendros et al. (32). At lower temperatures (300-400°C),
193 with chars most likely belonging to the transition char category, low extractability may result

194 from the microcrystalline structure of native cellulose which hinders the release of more heat-
195 altered, thus smaller molecules.

196 (ii) Chars as Environmental Sorbents

197 A clear distinction between the categories of chars and their various phases entering
198 soils and sediments will aid the more accurate description of the sorption behavior of organic
199 contaminants.

200 Different types of char have different BC-water distribution coefficients (K_{BC}) (33).
201 This variation among different chars is thought to be due to differences in SA and pore size
202 distributions, both of which are characteristic of specific char category.

203 The two-phase model proposed by Chun et al. (34) and Chen et al. (20) divides chars
204 into a non-condensed partition (absorption) medium and carbonized phases that are viewed as a
205 sorbent surface, but is indifferent toward the molecular properties of the non-condensed phase.
206 Our results show that mobile, non-condensed components may comprise both crystalline (i.e.,
207 native cellulose) and heat-altered amorphous components (i.e., lignin residues, paraffins, and
208 small (poly)aromatic units). It is to be expected that these phases show dissimilar sorptive
209 behavior, calling for a more detailed consideration of chemical composition and the physical
210 state of individual char components.

211 We anticipate that recognition of chemical and physical variation within char will also
212 facilitate the investigation of mechanisms controlling the sorption of organic compounds to chars
213 on a molecular level. Some experimental studies have utilized small graphene units as surrogates
214 of chars (35, 36). These authors proposed Van der Waals forces and π - π electron donor-acceptor
215 interactions with planar graphene sheets as the dominant retention mechanisms. Adsorption by
216 chars comparable to turbostratic chars may also proceed through a pore-filling mechanism (37).

217 Yet both mechanisms are intimately linked to the presence of condensed components. It is clear
218 that the presence of non-condensed phases or varying quantities of turbostratic crystallites in any
219 given char would affect the effectiveness of such mechanisms. Thus, these insights gained on the
220 sorptive mechanisms remain specific to single categories of char. Because chars derived from
221 materials other than wood (e.g., grass) show less distinguished crystalline character even at the
222 same charring conditions, it remains to be shown to which extent the results from existing
223 adsorption studies can be generalized

224 **(iii) Quantification in Environmental Systems**

225 The determination of the influence on sorption of char and its persistence in soil and
226 sediments, is complicated by difficulties in quantifying char in such environments. Despite
227 substantial progress, different techniques yield widely varying BC “contents” for soils and
228 sediments (38). The authors of this study conclude that all quantification methods are selective,
229 e.g., for amorphous wood char or more condensed wood chars. We suggest to consider that the
230 quantification protocols tested might be selective for one or more char categories as delineated in
231 this paper.

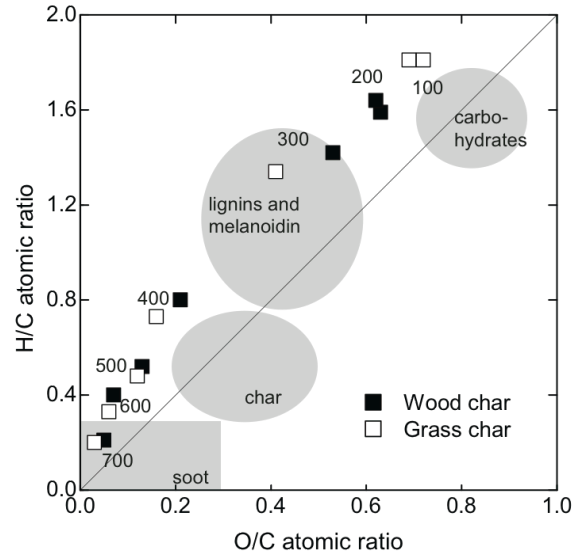
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TABLE S-1: Assignment of characteristic vibrations to individual peaks in wood and grass char ATR FT-IR spectra.

Wavenumber [cm ⁻¹]	Characteristic vibrations	Functionality
3665	'free' O-H stretching	alcoholic and phenolic -OH, not hydrogen bonded (39) (40)
3200-3500	O-H stretching	water, H-bonded hydroxyl (-OH) groups (39) (40)
3200	C-H stretching	5-membered N/O-heterocyclic C (e.g., furans and pyrroles) (22)
3050	C-H stretching	substituted aromatic C (22)
2935	asymmetric C-H stretching	aliphatic CH _x (41)
2885	symmetric C-H stretching	aliphatic CH _x (41)
1740-1700	C=O stretching	mainly carboxyl (20); traces of aldehydes, ketones and esters (42) (43)
1600	C=C stretching	aromatic components (20) (44, 45)
	C=O stretching	C=O of conjugated ketons and quinones (20) (44, 45)
1510	C=C stretching	aromatic skeletal vibrations, indicative of lignin (44, 45) (46)
1440	C=C stretching	aromatic C, indicative of lignin, appears when bound to unsaturated group (44, 45) (46)
	α-C-H ₂ bending	aliphatic -CH ₂ deformations (40), associated with lignin and carbohydrates (47)
1375	O-H bending	in plane bending of phenolic -OH (48), related to ligneous syringyl units (46)
	α-C-H ₃ bending	aliphatic -CH ₃ deformations (20) (44, 45)
1270-1250	C-O stretching	C-O-C groups and aryl ethers (40) (20); phenolic C-O indicative of guaiacyl units associated with lignin (46) (49)
1185-1160	(asymmetric) "	C-O-C ester groups in cellulose and hemicellulose (24) (47)
1110	(symmetric) "	C-O-C stretching vibrations in cellulose and hemicellulose ¹ ; aliphatic -OH (39)
1030	"	acid derivatives, aliphatic C-O-C, and -OH representative of oxygenated functional groups of cellulose and hemicellulose (43) (47); methoxy groups of lignins (49)
1200-1000	C-H deformation	vibrations typical for substituted aromatics (24)
885, 815, 750	C-H bending	aromatic CH out-of-plane deformation (44, 45); less substituted rings appear at lower wavenumbers (39)

TABLE S-2: Peak assignments for C forms obtained from C (1s) NEXAFS

Photon energy [eV]	Transition	C form	Functionality
284.3	1s- π^*	C=C	quinone (50)
285.3	1s- π^*	C=C	unsaturated/aromatic (51); graphitic (11, 12)
286.4	1s- π^*	C=O	ketone, carbonyl substituted aromatic (18, 52, 53)
287.1 - 287.3	1s-3p/ σ^*	C-H	aliphatic (52, 54, 55)
	1s- π^*	C-OH	phenol -OH (55); aliphatic -OH (56)
		C-OR	O-substituted aromatic C (50) (8)
288.6	1s- π^*	C=O	carboxyl (52); aldehyde (55)
289.2 - 289.3	1s-3p/ σ^*	C-O	alcohols (52) (54)
		C-O	secondary alcohols in polysaccharides, hemicellulose and cellulose, propyl side chains and methoxyl carbons of lignin (8)
291.2 - 291.6	1s- σ^* exciton	C-C	extensive conjugated aromatic sheets (13, 14, 57, 58)
292 - 295	1s- σ^*	C-C	aromatic (12, 55); long-range order (59)



234

235 **Figure S-1:** Van Krevelen plot of elemental ratios for wood and grass chars. Continuous
 236 line denotes the direction of dehydration reactions due the loss of H and O (2:1 ratio in
 237 H₂O) and grey shadings highlight approximate elemental ratios of unaltered
 238 biomacromolecules (lignin, melanoidin, and carbohydrates) and black carbon materials
 239 (char and soot) following Hammes et al. (60).

240

- 240
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