

1 **Iron-modified biochar and water management regime-induced changes in plant growth, enzyme**
2 **activities, and phytoavailability of arsenic, cadmium and lead in a paddy soil**

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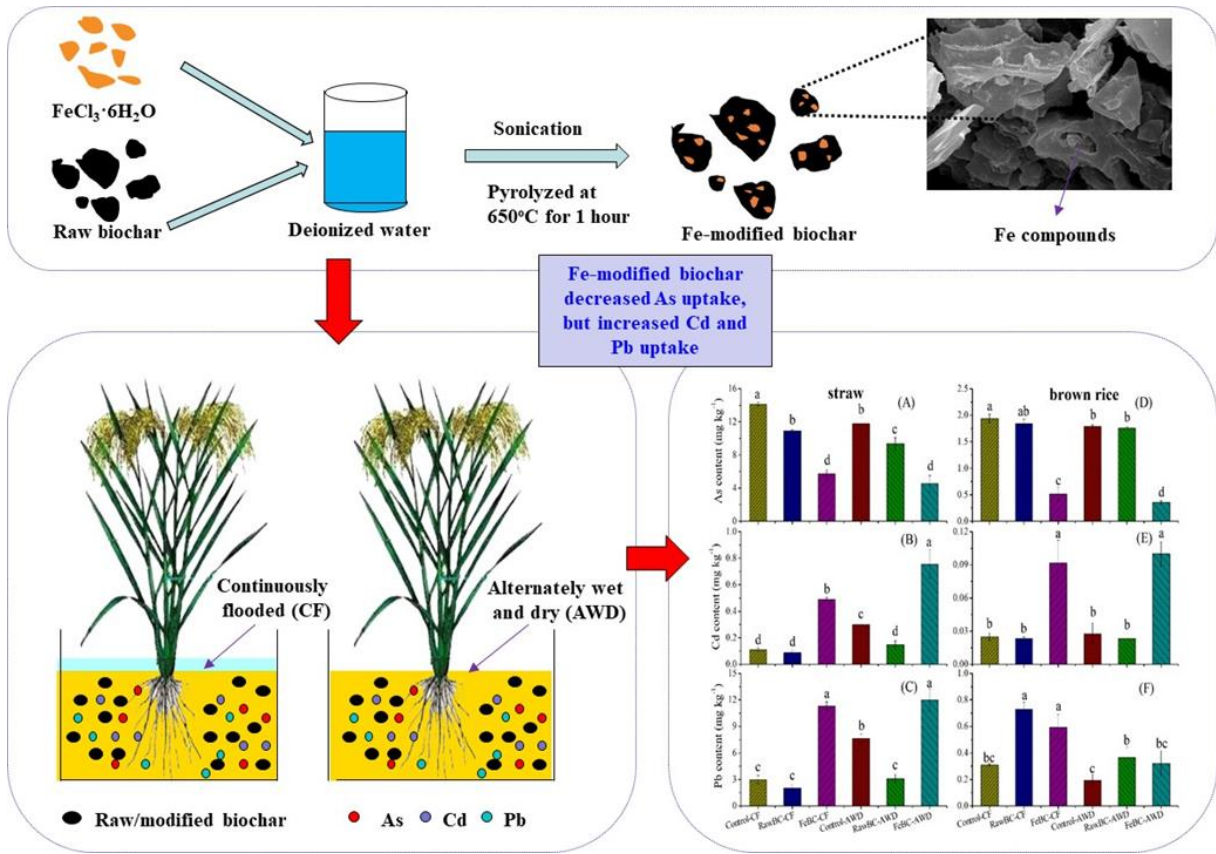
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39 **Highlights**

- 40 ● Fe altered the functions of biochar for PTE transformation in soil-plant system
- 41 ● Soil water conditions affected the interactions between Fe, biochar and PTEs
- 42 ● Fe-modified biochar mitigated the phytotoxicity of As more than raw biochar
- 43 ● Raw biochar enhanced, but Fe-modified biochar inhibited the soil enzyme activities

44

45 **Graphical abstract**



46

47 **Abstract**

48 The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of raw (RawBC) and iron (Fe)-modified biochar (FeBC)
49 derived from *Platanus orientalis* Linn branches on the plant growth, enzyme activity, and bioavailability
50 and uptake of As, Cd, and Pb by rice in a paddy soil with continuously flooded (CF) or alternately wet
51 and dry (AWD) irrigation in a pot experiment. Application of RawBC (3%, w/w) significantly increased
52 soil pH, while FeBC decreased it. The FeBC was more effective in reducing As and Pb bioavailability,
53 particularly under the AWD water regime, while RawBC was more conducive in reducing Cd
54 bioavailability under the CF water regime. The FeBC decreased As concentration, but increased
55 concentrations of Cd and Pb in the straw and brown rice, as compared to the untreated soil. Soil catalase
56 and urease activities were enhanced by RawBC, but decreased by FeBC treatment. The FeBC increased
57 the grain yield by 60 and 32% in CF and AWD treatments, respectively. The FeBC can be recommended
58 for immobilization of As in paddy soils, but a potential human health risk from Cd and Pb in FeBC-
59 treated soils should be considered due to increased uptake and translocation of the metals to brown rice.

60

61 **Keywords:** Heavy metal; Bioavailability; Soil enzyme; Engineered biochar; Irrigation.

62

63 **1. Introduction**

64 Paddy soils have been contaminated with potentially toxic elements (PTEs) in large areas worldwide,
65 which is mainly attributed to anthropogenic activities (Chen et al., 2019; Palansooriya et al. 2020).
66 According to a National Survey, among others, arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), and lead (Pb) are widely
67 distributed pollutants in agricultural soils in China (Chinese Ministry of Environmental Protection and
68 Ministry of Land and Resources, 2014). The PTEs in soils have increasingly gained attentions because of
69 their ubiquitous distribution, bioavailability, and toxicity (Yang et al., 2019; Bandara et al., 2020). The
70 PTEs can be taken up by crops, and subsequently accumulate in human bodies by going up in the food
71 chain (Yang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019; Antoniadis et al., 2019). Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is one of the
72 most widely grown field crops and a staple food for millions of people in Asia (Sohn, 2014). Previous
73 studies showed that rice was more effective than other crops in accumulating PTEs such as As, which
74 could enter into human bodies through daily diet (Antoniadis et al., 2019). Appropriate management of
75 risks posed by PTEs has become imperative to food safety and public health (Rizwan et al., 2016a;
76 Rizwan et al., 2016b; O'Connor et al., 2020).
77 Recent studies found that soil amendments including biochar could be used to decrease the
78 bioavailability and bioaccumulation of PTEs through adsorption, precipitation, complexation and other
79 physicochemical mechanisms (e.g., Wei et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2020; Rinklebe et al., 2020), while
80 maintaining or even increasing crop yields due to reduced phytotoxicity and improved soil
81 physicochemical properties (Ye et al., 2020). Owing to high porosity and specific surface area, highly
82 aromatic structure, and various functional groups (Wu et al., 2019), biochar has drawn particular
83 attention as a potential remediation agent for PTE-contaminated soils (Qin et al., 2018; Bandara et al.,
84 2020).

85 Biochar can be used to alleviate stress posed by PTEs, and improve the overall soil health, including soil
86 fertility (Li et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2020; Matin et al., 2020) and microbial diversity (Lu et al., 2019;
87 Chen et al., 2020), and facilitate plant growth (Nie et al., 2018; Chu et al., 2020). Furthermore,
88 researchers suggested that iron (Fe) oxides could reduce the mobility of PTEs (especially As) in the soil,
89 and thus mitigate PTE bioavailability and leaching potential (Qiao et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2020; Wang et
90 al., 2020). Studies also suggested the feasibility of using biochar loaded Fe materials to remove As and
91 other toxic elements from aqueous solutions (e.g., Niazi et al., 2018; Xia et al., 2019; Yin et al., 2020).
92 Nevertheless, little information is available on the effect of Fe oxide-designed biochar on the
93 bioavailability and transportation of PTEs in the soil-rice system.

94 Water management is another important factor that controls PTE bioavailability in paddy soils (Arao et
95 al., 2009; Li et al., 2020). The growth of paddy rice responded differently to an anaerobic condition
96 caused by continuous flooding, and an aerobic condition facilitated by alternative wetting and drying
97 (Wu et al., 2018). Arsenic is more available as arsenite under anaerobic condition, whereas it can be
98 readily transformed to arsenate under aerobic condition (Talukder et al., 2014). Divalent metal cations in
99 soil, such as Cd^{2+} and Pb^{2+} , could also be stabilized with sulfur under anaerobic condition caused by
100 continuous flooding, thereby reducing the accumulation of these PTEs in rice grains (Arao et al., 2009;
101 Bandara et al., 2020).

102 A co-benefit of using biochar as a soil amendment is that it could facilitate sustainable disposal of
103 excessive green wastes such as leaves, branches, and residual flowers (Chen et al., 2019; Zhao et al.,
104 2018). Producing biochar via pyrolysis is a green and eco-friendly strategy to potentially achieve the
105 maximum value-added benefits of green wastes (Zhao et al., 2018). In this study, biochar derived from
106 *Platanus orientalis* branches (RawBC), and its Fe-modified biochar (FeBC) were used as soil

107 amendments to investigate their effects on the bioavailability and transportation of As, Cd, and Pb in a
108 soil-rice system, under continuously flooded (CF), and alternately wet and dry (AWD) water
109 management conditions. Previous studies (e.g., Yin et al., 2017; Qiao et al., 2019) showed that Fe-loaded
110 biochar could increase the immobilization of PTEs through surface (co)precipitation. Due to the water
111 regime-induced changes of redox potential, factors such as pH and chemical speciation of S and Fe also
112 change, which might affect the behavior of PTEs being stabilized by biochar (Rinklebe et al., 2020). We
113 hypothesize that RawBC and FeBC would change the mobility of PTEs, thus affect their bioavailability
114 and bioaccumulation in rice plants. The specific objectives of this study are to: (1) determine the effect of
115 RawBC and FeBC application on the rice plant growth, soil enzyme activities, and bioavailability and
116 uptake of As, Cd, and Pb in the soil-rice system; and (2) investigate the impact of different water
117 management regimes on the biochar-induced changes of rice plant growth, soil enzyme activities, and
118 (im)mobilization of As, Cd, and Pb in the paddy soil.

119

120 **2. Materials and methods**

121 2.1 Biochar preparation and characterization

122 RawBC was prepared by pyrolyzing *Platanus orientalis* Linn (Oriental plane) branches at a temperature
123 of 650°C under an oxygen-limited condition for 2 h. The obtained biochar was passed through a 2-mm
124 stainless steel sieve prior to the experiment. To prepare the FeBC, the RawBC was added into a FeCl₃·
125 6H₂O solution at a ratio of 20:1 (biochar:Fe, w/w), and stirred vigorously, followed by 1 h of sonication
126 at 25°C for homogeneous mixing. The FeBC was oven-dried at 60°C until attaining a constant weight,
127 and subsequently pyrolyzed again at 650°C for 1 h for better loading of Fe to obtain the FeBC (Dong et
128 al., 2016).

129 The physicochemical characterization of the biochar samples including the measurement of Brunauer–
130 Emmett–Teller (BET) specific surface area (SSA), collecting scanning electron microscope (SEM)
131 images, energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectrometry, and Fourier transform infrared (FTIR)
132 spectroscopy were conducted using methods described previously (Yang et al., 2016).

133

134 2.2 Soil sampling and characterization

135 A soil contaminated with As, Cd, and Pb was collected from the 20-cm surface layer of a paddy field in
136 Shangyu County, China, which was polluted by surface runoff from nearby mine tailings. The studied
137 soil is classified as a silty clay loam soil according to the Chinese soil classification system (Gong,
138 1999). A 3-mm stainless steel sieve was used to pass the air-dried soil. The soil physicochemical
139 properties were analyzed according to standard methods (Lu, 2000). The total concentration of As, Cd,
140 and Pb in the soil was analyzed by digesting the soil (0.15 g) in HF–HClO₄–HNO₃ (7-5-1 mL) (Carignan
141 and Tessier, 1988). The soil was weakly acidic (pH = 5.8), and contained 20.6, 45.8, and 33.5% clay, silt,
142 and sand. The total concentration of As, Cd, and Pb was 141.3, 0.5, and 736.2 mg kg⁻¹, respectively.

143

144 2.3 Pot experiment

145 The pot experiment was conducted at Zhejiang A&F University in Hangzhou City, Zhejiang Province,
146 China. Briefly, 3% (w/w) of RawBC and FeBC were added into the sieved paddy soil, and
147 homogenously mixed before being placed into plastic pots (24 cm × 22 cm). Every treatment had four
148 replicates, with 8 kg of co-contaminated soil in each pot. Pots (including the control with no amendment)
149 were complemented with a compound fertilizer which contained a N:P:K ratio of 15:12:18. The fertilizer
150 was supplemented at a rate of 0.085 g kg⁻¹ (dry weight), which was according to the local rice production

151 practice. The rice cultivar selected in this experiment was Xiushui-519. Five healthy rice seedlings pre-
152 cultivated for 38 days in the selected soil were transplanted into each pot. Ten days after transplanting,
153 0.085 g kg⁻¹ of the compound fertilizer and 0.0425 g kg⁻¹ of urea were applied to each pot. The
154 experiment was carried out in a randomized block design. For the continuously flooded (CF) treatment,
155 the pots were irrigated daily until the soil moisture reached nearly saturation, and then were continuously
156 flooded until 10 days before the harvest. For the alternately wet and dry (AWD) treatment, the pots were
157 re-flooded when small cracks were present on the surface soil. After 132 days of cultivation, the above-
158 ground parts of rice plant were harvested (4 July to 12 November 2018). The plant samples were
159 separated into rice straw and grain. All plant samples were oven-dried at 65°C until attaining a constant
160 weight, and then ground to pass a 0.25-mm sieve.

161

162 2.4 Analyses of soil and plant samples

163 Soil pH and total organic carbon (TOC) content of the untreated and biochar-treated soil samples were
164 analyzed according to Chen et al. (2020). The potentially available concentrations of Cd, Pb, and Fe were
165 extracted from a portion of 5 g air-dried soil with 25 mL diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (DTPA)
166 solution (Lindsay and Norvell, 1978). The potentially available concentration of As was extracted with
167 75 mL NaH₂PO₄ solution from 5 g air-dried soil (Wenzel et al., 2001). Soil urease and catalase enzyme
168 activities were determined by the methods described by Dick et al. (1996). A portion of 0.3 g plant
169 samples (straw and brown rice) were digested with nitric acid using a microwave digester (DigiBlock
170 ED54, LabTech CO, China) for As, Cd, and Pb measurements in the straw and brown rice (Lu, 2000).
171 All the extracted elements were measured using inductively coupled plasma optical emission
172 spectrometry (ICP-OES Optima 2000, PerkinElmer Co., USA).

173

174 2.5 Data analysis

175 Statistical analysis of the data was performed by SPSS 17.0 software program. Analysis of variance
176 (ANOVA) and Duncan's multiple range test were used to determine the significant differences between
177 treatments, with the significance level set at $P=0.05$.

178 The quality control for total As, Cd, and Pb determination in the soil and plant were checked by
179 analyzing reagent blanks, and certified reference materials GBW-07405 (soil) and GBW-07603 (plant)
180 obtained from the China Standard Materials Research Center. The recoveries of As, Cd, and Pb in soil
181 and plant samples ranged from 87.5% to 99.5%.

182

183 3. Results

184 3.1 Characteristics of the raw and modified biochars

185 The physicochemical properties of the two biochar samples are shown in Table 1. The pH of FeBC
186 (pH=4.41) was lower than that of RawBC (pH=9.25). The carbon content, Olsen-P concentration, and
187 SSA of RawBC were higher than FeBC, whereas the ash content and electrical conductivity of FeBC
188 were higher than those of RawBC (Table 1).

189 From the SEM images (Fig. 1A,B), it was observed that both biochars had evenly arranged tube bundle
190 structures, which could be attributed to the original shape of the biomass. However, after Fe loading, the
191 pore structure on the biochar surface seemed to be blocked, and thus the cross section of FeBC was
192 honeycomb-shaped. The FTIR spectra showed that RawBC had more abundant functional groups on its
193 surface than FeBC (Fig. 1C), including olefin ($650-1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and aromatic C=C ($1448-1576\text{ cm}^{-1}$)
194 functional groups. According to the EDX spectra, 6.9% chlorine (Cl), and 3.9% Fe were detected in

195 FeBC, while they were not detected in RawBC (Fig. 1D).

196

197 Table 1 Selected physicochemical properties of the raw biochar (RawBC) and Fe-modified biochar

198 (FeBC)

Biochar	RawBC	FeBC
pH	9.25±0.14	4.41±0.03
C (%)	69.34±1.05	59.91±1.21
H (%)	2.74±0.23	2.24±0.35
N (%)	1.11±0.01	0.94±0.01
Ash content (%)	9.66±0.33	15.34±0.20
CEC ^a (cmol kg ⁻¹)	21.59±0.56	16.7±0.37
EC ^b (dS m ⁻¹)	0.37±0.02	4.49±0.04
SA ^c (cmol kg ⁻¹)	215.9±0.37	183.6±0.38
SSA ^d (m ² g ⁻¹)	110.7±2.35	74.5±1.43
Olsen P (mg kg ⁻¹)	24.47±0.59	1.35±0.16
Total P (g kg ⁻¹)	1.93±0.06	3.03±0.11
Total Fe (g kg ⁻¹)	7.59±0.60	54.61±3.16
Total Pb ^e (mg kg ⁻¹)	6.97±0.56	11.92±0.54

199 ^a CEC: cation exchange capacity

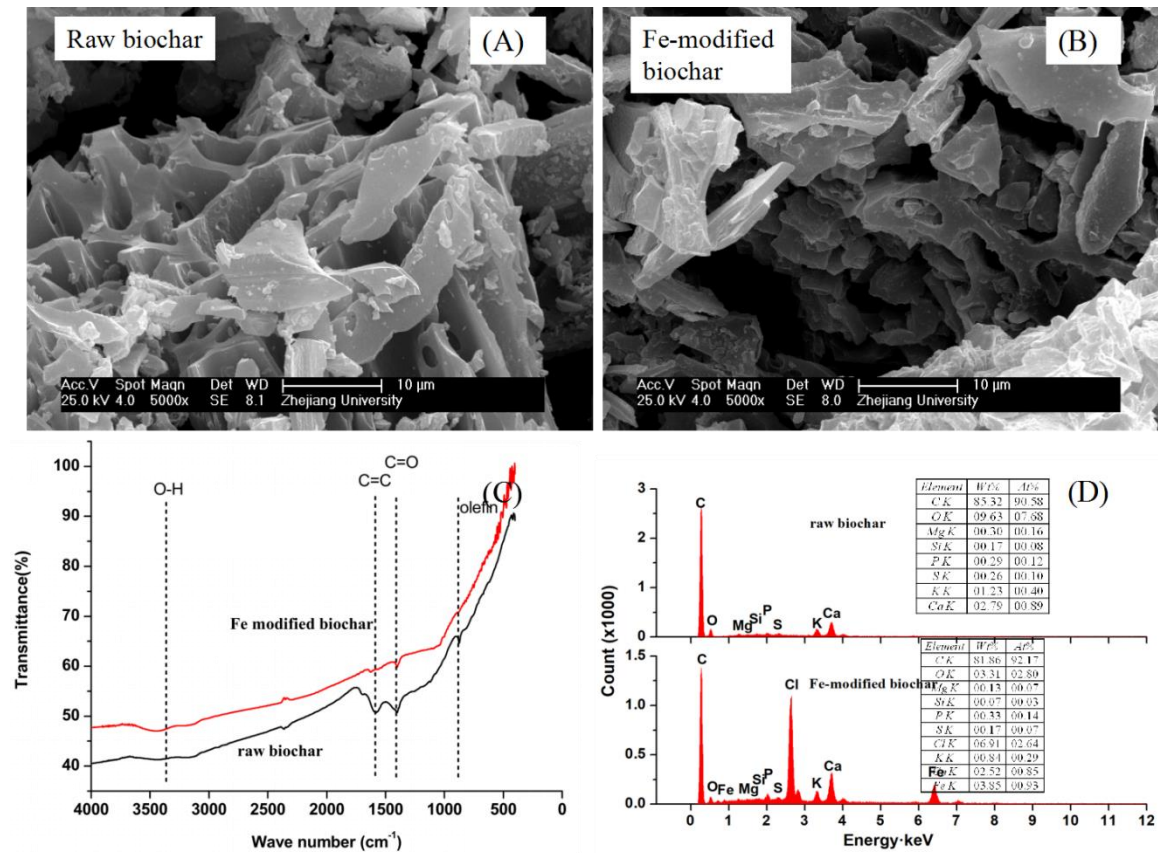
200 ^b EC: electrical conductivity.

201 ^c SA: surface alkalinity.

202 ^d SSA: specific surface area.

203 ° Concentration of As and Cd was below the detection limit.

204



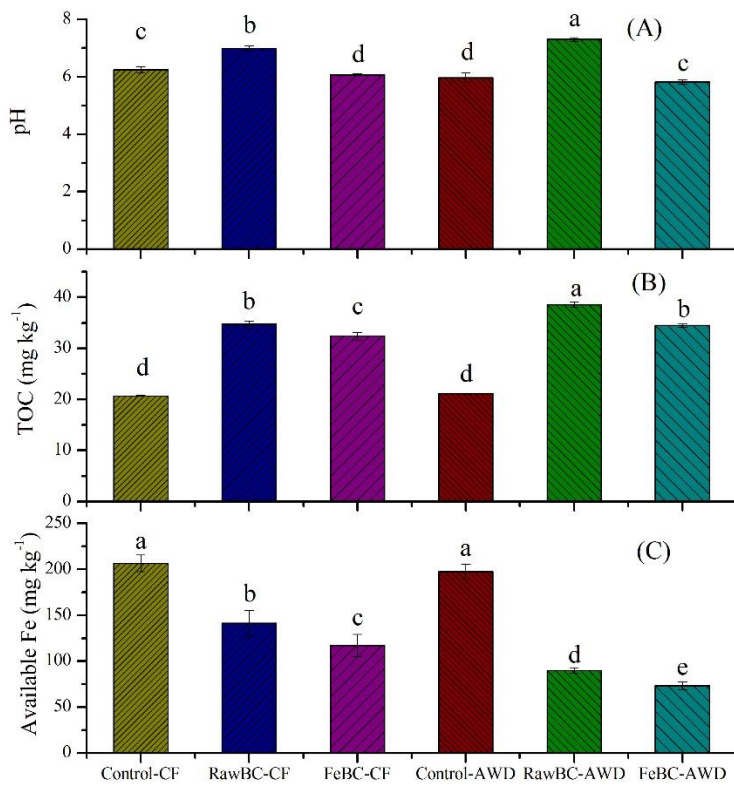
205
206 **Fig. 1.** Scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of RawBC (A), and FeBC (B); Fourier transform
207 infrared (FTIR) spectra (C), and energy dispersive X-ray spectra (EDS) and elemental contents (D) of
208 RawBC and FeBC.

209

210 3.2 Biochar and water regime-induced changes in the soil pH, TOC, and Fe availability

211 Compared to the untreated control, application of RawBC significantly ($P<0.05$) increased the soil pH
212 respectively by 0.74 and 1.33 units under AWD and CF treatments, while the addition of FeBC decreased
213 the soil pH by 0.17 and 0.13 units under AWD and CF treatments (Fig. 2A). The CF treatment had higher
214 pH than AWD irrespective of the type of biochar applied. Application of both biochars significantly
215 ($P<0.05$) increased the soil TOC content, and the effect under AWD treatment was more effective than

216 CF treatment (Fig. 2B). RawBC was more effective than FeBC in increasing the soil TOC content. For
 217 instance, in the CF treatment, the TOC content increased from 20.7 mg kg⁻¹ in the control to 34.7 mg kg⁻¹
 218 in the RawBC-treated soil, while it increased from 20.7 mg kg⁻¹ in the control to 32.4 mg kg⁻¹ in the
 219 FeBC-treated soil. Both RawBC and FeBC significantly decreased ($P<0.05$) the DTPA-extractable Fe
 220 concentrations as compared to the control. Interestingly, application of FeBC caused a more pronounced
 221 decrease in DTPA-extractable Fe (43-63%) than RawBC (32-56%) (Fig. 2C). Compared to the AWD
 222 treatment, the average concentration of DTPA-extractable Fe was higher in the CF treatment.

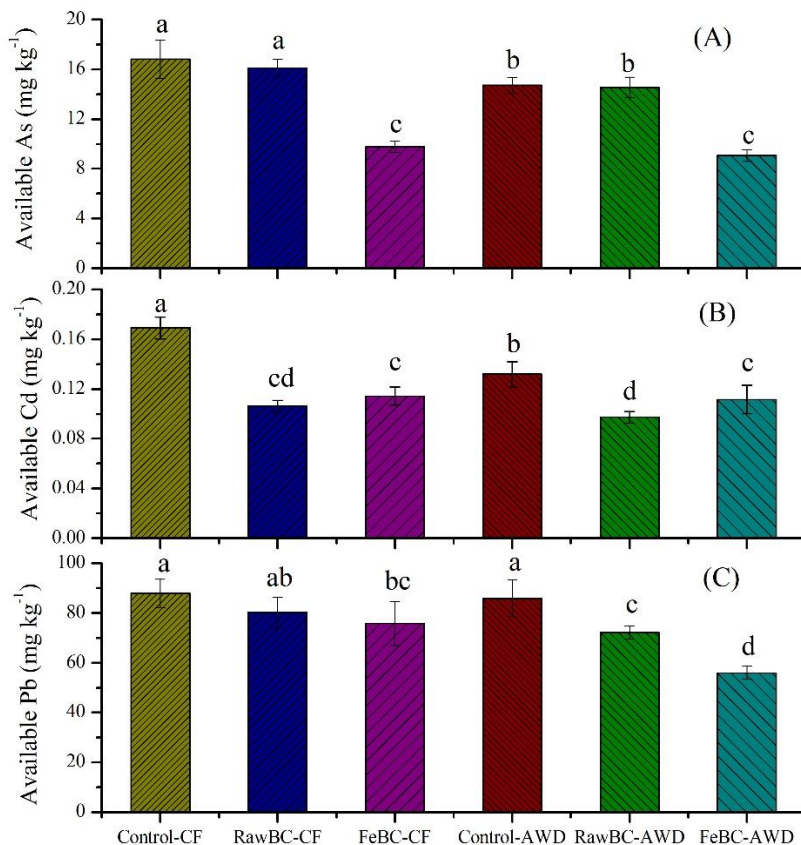


223
 224 **Fig. 2.** Effect of biochar applications on soil pH (A), total organic carbon (TOC) (B), and available Fe
 225 (C). Treatments: RawBC: raw biochar; FeBC: Fe-modified biochar. CF: continuously flooded; AWD:
 226 alternately wet and dry. Error bars indicate standard error of the means (n=4). Different letters indicate
 227 significant differences between treatments ($P<0.05$).

228

229 3.3 Biochar and water regime-induced changes on the potential availability of As, Cd, and Pb

230 Application of FeBC significantly ($P<0.05$) decreased the potentially available concentration of As in the
 231 soil under both CF and AWD water regimes by 41.7 and 38.8%, respectively, as compared to the control
 232 (Fig. 3A). The average concentration of available As was lower in the CF than AWD treatment.
 233 Both biochars significantly ($P<0.05$) decreased the potentially available Cd concentration in the soil as
 234 compared to the control. However, RawBC was more effective than FeBC and decreased the available
 235 Cd concentration up to 37.3% under the CF water regime treatment. Concentrations of DTPA-extractable
 236 Cd in the FeBC- and RawBC-treated soils were 5% and 23.4% lower in AWD treatment than in CF
 237 treatment (Fig. 3B).
 238 Addition of FeBC caused a significant decrease in the concentrations of DTPA-extractable Pb in both the
 239 CF (13.6%) and AWD (34.9%) water regime treatment. Under AWD treatment, RawBC significantly
 240 ($P<0.05$) decreased the DTPA-extractable Pb concentration by 16.2%. The DTPA-extractable Pb
 241 concentration in the soil under AWD condition was lower than that of CF treatment.



242

243 **Fig. 3.** Effect of biochar applications on soil available As (A), available Cd (B), and available Pb (C).

244 Treatments: RawBC: raw biochar; FeBC: Fe-modified biochar. CF: continuously flooded; AWD:

245 alternately wet and dry. Error bars indicate standard error of the means (n=4). Different letters indicate

246 significant differences between treatments ($P<0.05$).

247

248 3.4 Biochar and water regime-induced changes on the concentration of As, Cd, and Pb in rice straw and

249 brown rice

250 Application of RawBC and FeBC, particularly the later, significantly ($P<0.05$) decreased the As

251 concentration in rice straw (Fig. 4A). The maximum reduction of As concentration in rice straw (61.5%)

252 by FeBC was in the AWD water regime treatment, as compared with the control. Application of FeBC

253 decreased the As concentration in brown rice by 73.2% in CF treatment, and by 80.1% in AWD

254 treatment, while the application of RawBC had no significant effect on As concentration in brown rice

255 (Fig. 4D). The concentration of As in the AWD treatment was 5-15% lower than that in CF treatment

256 with both biochar treatments.

257 Addition of FeBC caused a significant ($P<0.05$) increase in the concentration of Cd and Pb in rice straw

258 as compared to the control and RawBC treatments under both CF and AWD water regimes (Fig. 4B,C).

259 For example, as compared to the control, FeBC increased the Cd concentration of rice straw by 390.1%

260 and 169.0% in CF and AWD treatments (Fig. 4B), and Pb concentration by 281.1% and 57.4% in CF and

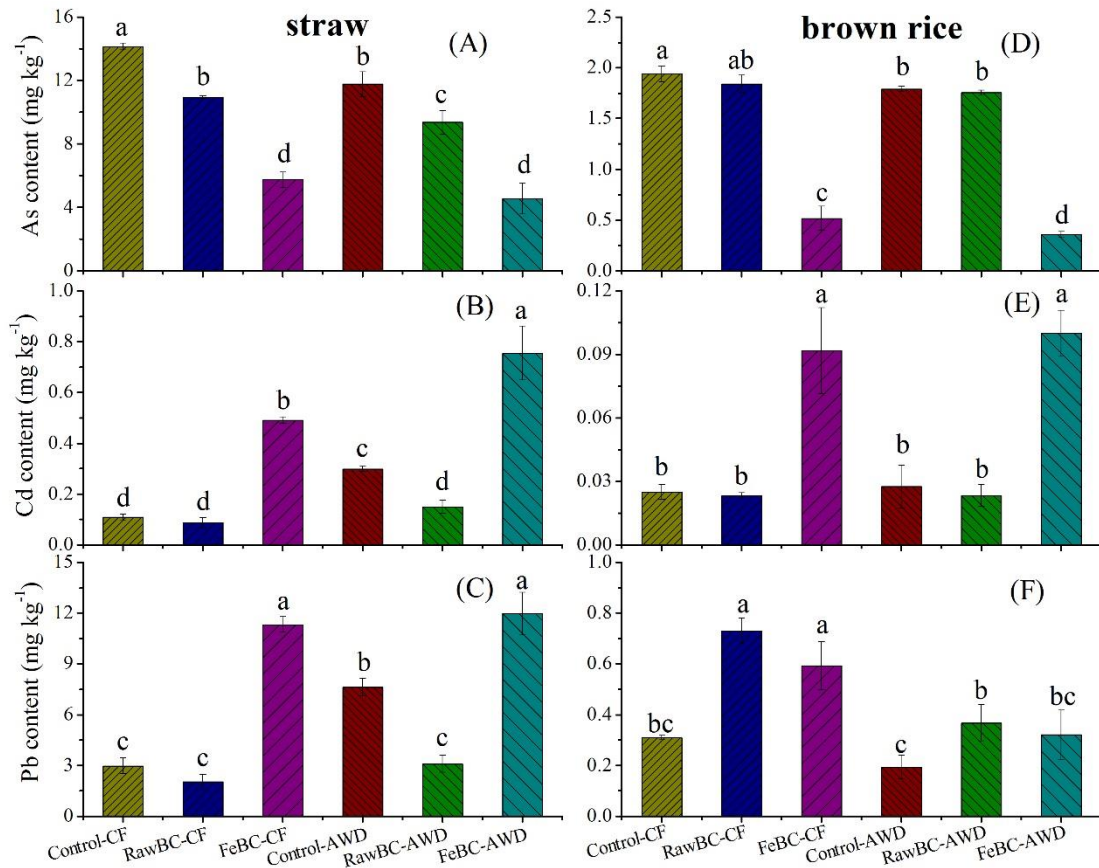
261 AWD treatments, respectively (Fig. 4C). The concentration of Cd and Pb in rice straw was lower under

262 CF treatment than AWD treatment in the biochar-treated and untreated soils (Fig. 4B,C).

263 The RawBC and FeBC showed different impacts on Cd and Pb concentrations in brown rice (Fig. 4E,F).

264 The application of FeBC significantly ($P<0.05$) increased the Cd concentration in brown rice by 268.8%

265 (CF treatment) and 263.6% (AWD treatment) as compared to the control (Fig. 4E). The application of
 266 both the biochars increased the concentration of Pb in brown rice as compared to the control (Fig. 4F).
 267 For example, the brown rice concentration of Pb in the RawBC treatment was about 138.7% (CF
 268 treatment) and 90.1% (AWD treatment) higher than that of the control. As compared to the control, FeBC
 269 addition increased the brown rice concentration of Pb by 96.7% (CF treatment) and 68.4% (AWD
 270 treatment). The concentration of Pb in brown rice grown under CF treatment was higher (98.6% with
 271 RawBC-85.2% with FeBC) than that grown under AWD treatment.



272
 273 **Fig. 4.** Effect of biochar applications on As, Cd and Pb accumulation in straw (A, B, C), and brown rice
 274 (D, E, F). Treatments: RawBC: raw biochar; FeBC: Fe-modified biochar. CF: continuously flooded;
 275 AWD: alternately wet and dry. Error bars indicate standard error of the means (n=4). Different letters
 276 indicate significant differences between treatments ($P < 0.05$).

277

278 3.5 Biochar and water regime-induced changes on soil enzyme activities

279 Application of RawBC enhanced the urease and catalase activities in the soil, while these enzymes

280 activities decreased in FeBC-treated soil as compared to the control (Fig. 5A,B). Urease activity in the

281 RawBC-treated soil increased by 18.6% and 20.4%, respectively, under CF and AWD treatments. The

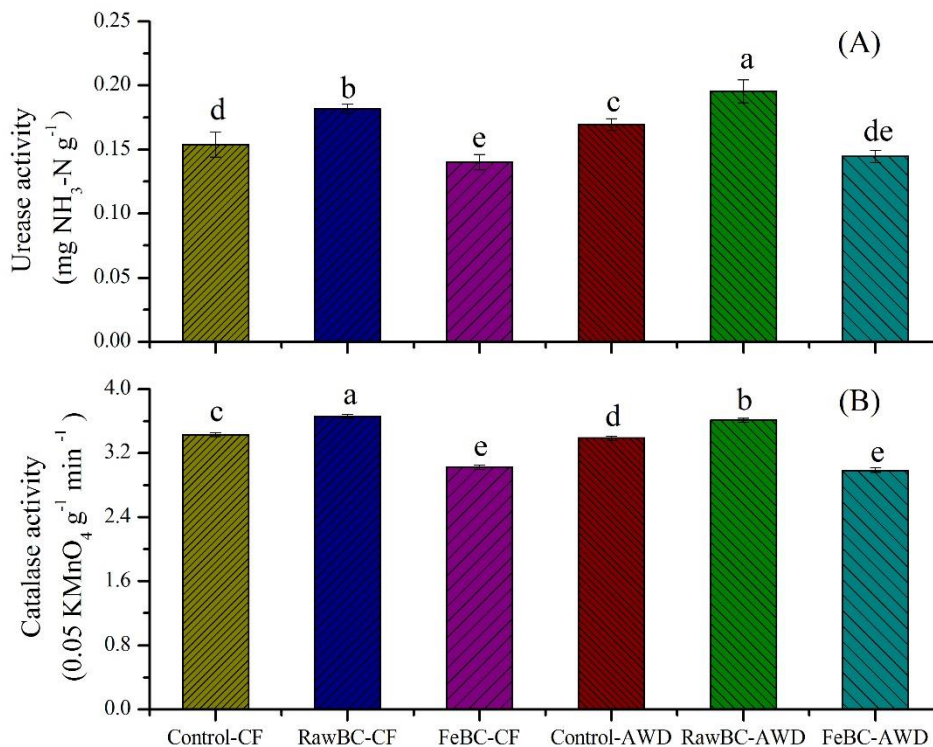
282 RawBC-induced increase of catalase activity was 6.4% (CF treatment) and 6.7% (AWD treatment). The

283 FeBC addition caused a significant decrease of urease activity by 10% and 15% in CF and AWD

284 treatments, respectively, as compared to the control (Fig. 5A). Application of FeBC resulted in a

285 significant decrease in the catalase activity by 12.0% and 12.8% under CF and AWD treatments,

286 respectively, as compared to the control (Fig. 5B).



287

288 **Fig. 5.** Effect of biochar applications on soil urease activity (A) and catalase activity (B). Treatments:

289 RawBC: raw biochar; FeBC: Fe-modified biochar. CF: continuously flooded; AWD: alternately wet and

290 dry. Error bars indicate standard error of the means (n=4). Different letters indicate significant

291 differences between treatments ($P<0.05$).

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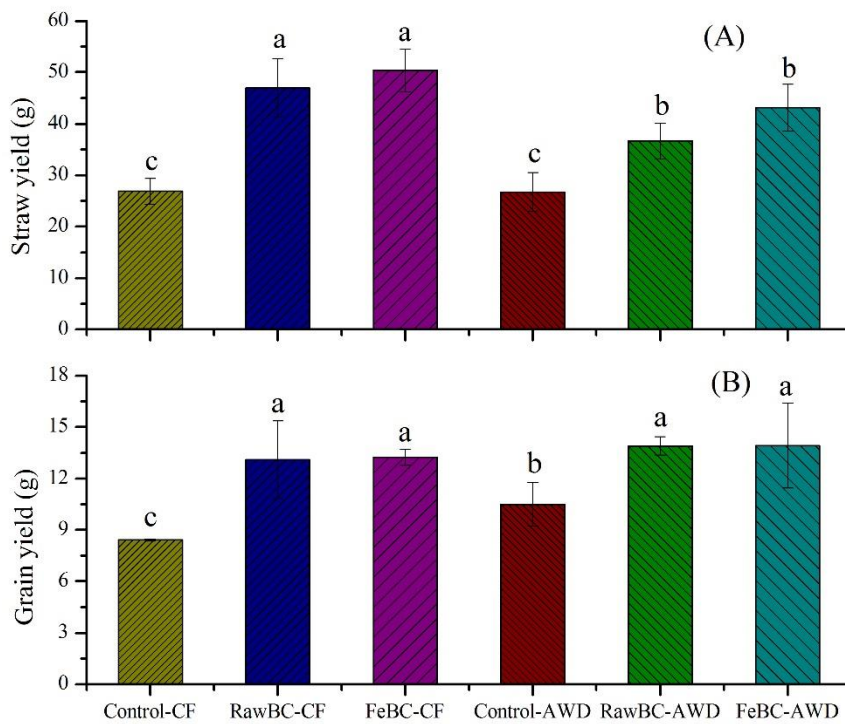
293 3.6 Biochar and water regime-induced changes on rice growth and yield

294 The addition of RawBC and FeBC increased the rice straw yield by 74.3% and 89.2%, respectively, in

295 the CF treatment, and by 37.5% and 63.7%, respectively, in the AWD treatment, as compared to the

296 control (Fig. 6A). Both biochars increased the grain yield by 60.3% in the CF treatment, and by 32.4% in

297 the AWD treatment, as compared to the control (Fig. 6B).



298

299 **Fig. 6.** Effects of biochar applications on the (A) straw yield and (B) grain yield of rice. Treatments:

300 RawBC: raw biochar; FeBC: Fe-modified biochar. CF: continuously flooded; AWD: alternately wet and

301 dry. Error bars indicate standard error of the means (n=4). Different letters indicate significant

302 differences between treatments ($P<0.05$).

303

304 4. Discussion

305 4.1 Modification-induced changes on biochar properties

306 The ash content of FeBC was higher than RawBC, which might be due to the abundant surface mineral
307 elements on FeBC (Fig. 1D). The pH of FeBC was lower than RawBC, which can be explained by the
308 release of a high amount of H^+ due to the hydrolysis of Fe (Yin et al. 2017). Additionally, reduction of
309 basic functional groups (Fig. 1C) also contributed to the decrease of pH. Due to the modification, Fe-
310 compounds were loaded on FeBC, thus increasing the total-Fe content, and the existence of Cl^- led to the
311 increase of EC.

312

313 4.2 Soil pH, TOC and available Fe

314 The RawBC-induced increase of soil pH might be owing to the high pH of the biochar (pH=9.25; Table
315 1). The hydrolysis of soluble alkaline minerals (K, Ca, Na) might also have contributed to the increase of
316 soil pH (Lu et al., 2014). By contrast, the decrease of pH in the FeBC-treated soil could be due to the
317 biochar's acidic pH (pH=4.4; Table 1), and a higher amount of H^+ released during the hydrolysis of
318 exogenous Fe from FeBC (Yin et al. 2017).

319 Different water regimes also contributed to the variation of soil pH, and the lowest pH value was
320 reported under the CF treatment. Under CF treatment, we assume that flooding the soil might decrease
321 the soil redox potential (Eh). The production of CO_2 and organic acids originated from microbial
322 activities and decomposing organic matter might explain the lower pH in the continually flooded soils
323 than the AWD water regime (Shaheen et al., 2014). Furthermore, these results can be explained by the
324 increased TOC and dissolved organic carbon in the biochar-treated soil under the CF treatment (Rinklebe
325 et al., 2020).

326 Application of RawBC and FeBC significantly increased TOC content, likely because of their own high

327 carbon contents (Table 1). Application of RawBC had more apparent effect than FeBC in increasing
328 TOC content, which was attributed to the higher carbon content of RawBC than FeBC (Table 1). It was
329 found that the soil under AWD treatment had a higher content of TOC than under CF treatment, due to
330 the fact that AWD treatment provided a more suitable condition for soil aggregate formation, which
331 inhibited or slowed down the degradation of soil TOC (Liang et al., 2009).

332 The DTPA-extractable Fe concentrations were higher under the CF treatment than AWD treatment (Fig.
333 3C), which might be explained by the potential decrease of soil Eh, and associated decrease of soil pH
334 under CF conditions as compared to AWD. The higher solubility of Fe under reducing acidic conditions
335 agrees with Shaheen et al. (2014). Application of biochars, particularly FeBC decreased the DTPA-
336 extractable Fe concentration as compared to the control (Fig. 3C). The lower Fe availability in the
337 RawBC-treated soil as compared to the control might be due to the increase of soil pH. According to Hu
338 et al. (2018), application of FeBC might inhibit the activity of Fe-reducing bacteria, which might explain
339 the lower concentration of available Fe in FeBC than RawBC treatment.

340

341 4.3 Bioavailability and uptake of As, Cd, and Pb

342 4.3.1 Arsenic

343 FeBC was more effective than RawBC in reducing the phytoavailability (Fig. 3) and uptake of As by rice
344 straw (Fig. 4A) and grains (Fig. 4D). This might be explained by the potential immobilization of As by
345 Fe compounds, likely through forming amorphous Fe (III)-arsenate compounds (Mensah et al., 2020).

346 The decrease of As uptake in the FeBC treatment could largely be attributed to the sequestration of As in
347 Fe-plaque on rice root surfaces, which agrees with Yin et al. (2017). The biochar-induced decrease of
348 bioavailability and uptake of As under flooding conditions might be explained by redox mediated

349 interactions between the surface functional groups of biochar and As species (Amen et al., 2020). The
350 functional groups (e.g., semiquinone-type free radicals, phenolic-OH, C=O) could act as electron
351 acceptors, and play an important role in oxidizing As(III) to less mobile and less toxic As(V) (Yuan et al.,
352 2017; Niazi et al., 2018; Amen et al., 2020). The redox reactivity in the case of Fe-modified biochar
353 could also affect the depletion of As availability. Arsenic species, including As(III) and As(V), could
354 undergo redox reactions in the presence of strong oxidizing and reducing agents on the biochar surface
355 resulting in strong innersphere complexation of As on the biochar surface (Yuan et al., 2017; Shaheen et
356 al., 2019; Amen et al., 2020).

357 The lower soil pH in the FeBC treatments than the control and RawBC treatments could have played a
358 key role in the extent and rate of redox reactions of As on FeBC surfaces (Shaheen et al., 2019; Zhong et
359 al., 2019; Amen et al., 2020). Functional groups on the surface of biochar, such as -NH, -OH and -
360 COOH, could be protonated under low pH. The bioavailability and mobility of As therefore could
361 decrease through the formation of ion-pair interaction mechanism between the negatively charged As
362 species and positively charged biochar functional groups (Shaheen et al., 2019). In addition, the
363 oxidation of As(III) to As(V) in the presence of redox-active species was pH-controlled, which could be
364 ascribed to the unique activities of the redox moieties on biochar (Yuan et al., 2017; Bandara et al.,
365 2020). Under acidic and neutral conditions, the transformation from As(III) to As(V) occurred by
366 hydroxyl free radicals (\bullet OH) and H_2O_2 produced from the activation of O_2 by phenolic -OH and
367 semiquinone-type persistent free radicals (Zhong et al., 2019).

368 Higher bioavailability (Fig. 3A) and uptake of As in the RawBC treatment than FeBC treatment (Fig.
369 4A,D) might be due to the higher pH and P concentrations of RawBC than FeBC (Table 1), which
370 increased the soil pH and P concentration in RawBC treatment as compared to the control and FeBC

371 treatments (Fig. 2A), and this might have increased the release of As in the RawBC-treated soil (Beiyuan
372 et al., 2017).

373 The concentration of As in rice straw and brown rice was lower in AWD treatment than CF treatment
374 (Fig. 4A,D). This might be due to the decrease of redox potential of soils under the flooded treatment
375 which could inhibit As translocation from roots to shoots (Arao et al., 2009). Hu et al. (2013) suggested
376 that under aerobic condition, the concentration of As in rice grain decreased, while the Cd concentration
377 increased. Hua et al. (2011) found that aerobic conditions reduced the uptake of As by rice straw and
378 brown rice because Fe^{3+} in aerobic condition had better effect to stabilize As in solid phases than Fe^{2+} in
379 anaerobic condition, thus reducing As availability for rice uptake.

380 It is worth mentioning that according to the National Food Safety Standards of China: Contaminant
381 Limits in Food Products (Ministry of Health, 2012), the limit of As in brown rice is 0.2 mg kg^{-1} . The
382 concentration of As in rice grains in the case of FeBC application under AWD and CF treatment was
383 close to this limit and was 0.3 and 0.5 mg kg^{-1} , respectively (Fig. 4A,D). The FeBC treatment was able to
384 decrease the As concentration from 1.8 mg kg^{-1} in the control to 0.3 mg kg^{-1} , and thus reduced the risk of
385 transferring As into human bodies via consumption of rice.

386

387 *4.3.2 Cadmium*

388 RawBC and FeBC showed contradictory effects on the availability (Fig. 3B) and uptake of Cd (Fig.
389 4B,E). Although FeBC decreased the DTPA-extractable Cd, it increased the Cd concentration in straw
390 and brown rice as compared to the control (Fig. 3B; Fig. 4B,E). The higher efficiency of RawBC in
391 immobilizing Cd and decreasing its uptake could be explained by the biochar's higher pH, CEC, and
392 more abundant surface functional groups than FeBC (Table 1, Fig. 1). The decrease of Cd bioavailability

393 and uptake in the biochar-treated soil as a result of associated increase of soil pH agreed with other
394 studies (e.g., Lu et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2019). Biochar could also fix and inactivate Cd by complexing
395 on surface functional groups, and forming precipitates, and/or via cation exchange (Yin et al., 2017;
396 Bandara et al., 2020).

397 The impact of FeBC on increasing the uptake of Cd could be due to the low pH of FeBC (Table 1), and
398 the associated decrease of soil pH as compared to the control and RawBC treatments (Fig. 2A). The
399 decline in soil pH with FeBC application might have decreased Cd sorption on biochar surfaces, and thus
400 increased Cd desorption and solubility (Yin et al., 2017; Bandara et al., 2020), substantiating that Fe
401 amendments including Fe-modified biochar might increase Cd mobility through soil acidification.

402 The decrease of Cd solubility and uptake under flooding conditions could be due to the precipitation of
403 Cd with sulfides under reducing conditions, while the increase of Cd solubility under relatively aerobic
404 conditions in the AWD treatment might be due to the oxidation of sulfide to sulfate, and hence release of
405 associated Cd to the pore water, which is in agreement with other studies (e.g., Shaheen et al., 2016; Yin
406 et al., 2017).

407

408 *4.3.3 Lead*

409 The decrease of Pb availability in the RawBC-treated soil can be likely due to the associated increase of
410 soil pH, which is in agreement with other studies (e.g., Lu et al., 2014; Li et al., 2020; Palansooriya et al.,
411 2020). The decrease of Pb availability in the RawBC treatment could be due to the biochar's high P
412 concentration; the available P in RawBC might be released into the soil, which might bind with Pb to
413 form a poorly soluble phosphate precipitate, thereby decreasing the mobility of Pb in soil. The
414 immobilization of Pb using phosphates is well documented and reported (e.g., Seshadri et al., 2017; Li et

415 al., 2019). For example, Li et al. (2019) found that phosphates on biochar provided sorption sites to
416 immobilize Pb via the formation of $Pb_3(PO_4)_2$.

417 The decrease of Pb availability in the FeBC-treated soil could be explained by the increase of Fe in the
418 treated soil, and the possible binding/occlusion of Pb on Fe oxides (Rinklebe et al., 2016). The hydrolysis
419 of Fe^{3+} on the surface of FeBC could form a colloid to adsorb Pb^{2+} in the soil, which might be the reason
420 that the concentration of Pb in the FeBC-treated soil was lower than the RawBC-treated soil (Li et al.,
421 2015). Besides, Fe^{3+} in the soil would be reduced to Fe^{2+} under anaerobic environment. The release of
422 Fe^{2+} into the soil solution consequently would compete with Pb^{2+} for the adsorption sites on soil surface,
423 which might lead to higher concentration of available soil Pb in CF treatment than AWD treatment
424 (Fulda, et al., 2013). The functional groups and phosphates on both biochars, particularly RawBC could
425 provide efficient sorption sites to chelate Pb and form stable compounds with C–O–Pb–O–C structures.
426 In this respect, Wu et al. (2017) and Li et al. (2019) found that the carboxylic functional groups and
427 phosphate on biochar had a high affinity to immobilize Pb through surface complexation and
428 precipitation, respectively.

429 Interestingly, although RawBC decreased DTPA-Pb and Pb concentration in straw, the treatment
430 increased Pb translocation to the grains, and thus increased the Pb concentration in brown rice as
431 compared to the control. The impact of RawBC on the translocation of Pb to grains was higher than
432 FeBC (Fig. 4C,F). This could be attributed to the different impacts of both RawBC and FeBC on the
433 formation of Fe/Mn plaques on rice roots. The FeBC might increase the Fe/Mn plaques on rice roots,
434 while RawBC might decrease it as compared to the control. Therefore, Pb was likely less immobilized by
435 Fe/Mn plaques on rice roots in the RawBC-treated soil than FeBC-treated soil, and consequently higher
436 Pb translocation rate was observed in rice plants grown in RawBC-amended soil than the untreated and

437 FeBC-treated soils. In this respect, Li et al. (2016) reported that the amount of Fe plaques on rice roots,
438 and the concentration of Pb in the Fe plaques were reduced in raw rice-straw biochar amended soils.
439 Furthermore, Li et al. (2020) found that the amount of Pb-ferrihydrite complexes on rice roots, as
440 examined using Pb L₃-edge XANES, was also decreased with 5% coconut fiber biochar, indicating that
441 Pb retention by Fe/Mn plaques was inhibited by the presence of coconut fiber biochar in the soil.

442

443 4.4 Soil enzyme activities

444 In this study, the application of RawBC increased the soil pH, which might be a possible cause for
445 promoting soil urease and catalase activities. Activities of these enzymes decreased in the FeBC-
446 amended soil, which might be attributed to the reduction of soil pH (Fig. 2A), and the high
447 concentrations of Cl⁻ (Fig. 1D) from FeBC increased the ionic concentration, which inhibited soil urease
448 and catalase activities. The porous structure of biochar might provide a better environment for the growth
449 of soil microorganisms, and therefore might increase soil enzyme activities (Yang et al., 2016; Nie et al.,
450 2018). The above theory also supported the increase of urease and catalase activities in the RawBC-
451 amended soil. The enhancement of urease and catalase activities in the RawBC-treated soil could also be
452 due to the associated decrease of PTE bioavailability and toxicity (Yang et al., 2016; Bandara et al.,
453 2020). Urease activity was higher in AWD treatment than CF treatment, which could be due to the
454 sensitivity of urease activity to soil moisture. Catalase activity was higher in CF treatment than AWD
455 treatment, which might be caused by the death of some microorganisms under drought conditions
456 (Sardans et al., 2005).

457

458 4.5 Rice growth and yield

459 Application of biochars increased rice straw and grain yields (Fig. 6A,B). This might be due to the
460 biochar-induced improvement of soil physicochemical properties, and nutrient supply (Dong et al.,
461 2015). In the current study, all treatments were applied with exogenous fertilizers, and the application of
462 biochar contributed to the utilization of fertilizer in the soil, and thus improving the rice yield. The
463 phytotoxicity of PTEs was another important factor in influencing the rice growth. High concentration of
464 As and Pb in the soil would make these elements to accumulate in rice plant parts, thereby inhibit the
465 absorption of essential nutrients and restrain plant growth (Sardar et al., 2013). Since biochar application
466 reduced the available concentration of As, Cd, and Pb in the soil, grain yield production was increased.
467 Nutrients absorbed by rice plants were used for improving the yield of rice grain after biochars were
468 applied.

469 Straw and grain yields under AWD treatment were higher than CF treatment, which might be attributed
470 to the transpiration rate of rice plants. An aerobic condition caused by the AWD treatment would reduce
471 the transpiration rate of rice plants, improve the oxidation activity of rice roots, and thus promote rice
472 growth (Yang et al., 2009). Hu et al. (2012) indicated that intermittent irrigation conditions would
473 promote plant growth, which had the same result with our study. Talukder et al. (2014) also pointed out
474 that aerobic condition was considered an effective way for controlling water scarcity and improving rice
475 yield.

476

477 **5. Conclusions**

478 Based on our findings, we can conclude that the modification using Fe decreased the ability of oriental
479 plane (*Platanus orientalis* Linn) branches biochar to improve rice plant growth and reduce the uptake of
480 As by rice plants and mitigate the potential risk more than the RawBC. However, the Fe-modified

481 biochar caused a decrease in the activity of soil urease and catalase, and an increase in the uptake and
482 concentration of Cd and Pb in rice straw and brown rice as compared to the control and RawBC
483 treatments.

484 Furthermore, water management regime affected the bioavailability of As, Cd, and Pb in the biochar-
485 treated soils, and the bioavailability of As and Pb was lower under the AWD treatment than the CF one,
486 whereas the opposite happened with Cd.

487 These results demonstrate that the Fe-modified biochar can be used for remediation of As contaminated
488 paddy soils under alternately wet and dry irrigation system, while the raw biochar might be more suitable
489 for remediation of Pb under alternately wet and dry irrigation system, and Cd under continuously flooded
490 system. However, these results should to be further verified under field conditions. Besides, future
491 research is warranted to provide new insights into the modification of biochar using different iron
492 materials, e.g., zero valent irons, and to explore the redox-mediated interactions between these PTEs and
493 both raw and Fe-modified biochars under systematic changes of soil redox potential.

494

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500

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