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生物质炭中多环芳烃的潜在环境风险研究进展*

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摘要 作为土壤改良剂和环境污染修复材料, 生物质炭在近年来得以广泛应用。生物质炭制备过程中会产生一定量的多环芳烃(PAHs), 对其潜在环境负面效应和风险尚缺乏应有的认识。本文总结了生物质炭中PAHs的形成机理、影响因素(包括原材料、裂解温度、裂解升温速率和保留时间等)、总量和生物有效含量及其分析方法, 旨在为生物质炭在环境中的安全应用提供理论依据和技术参考。

关键词 生物质炭; 多环芳烃; 提取方法; 总量; 生物有效性

中图分类号 X131.3; X592 **文献标识码** A

生物质炭(biochar)是生物质在缺氧条件下经过高温处理产生的一种具有高度芳香化结构的炭状物质^[1]。其制备原料十分广泛, 常见的如农业秸秆、木屑、活性污泥、厨余垃圾和畜禽粪便等均可用来制备生物质炭^[2]。生物质炭具有高度浓缩的炭化结构、较强的疏水性、发达的孔隙结构及巨大的比表面, 因而在减缓全球温室效应、去除水体或土壤中的污染物以及改善土壤生态功能等方面有着巨大的应用潜力^[3-5]。

多环芳烃(PAHs)是一类具有两个或以上芳香环的有机污染物, 形成于有机物在高温下的不完全燃烧。由于这类物质具有亲脂性、高毒性和持久性, 因此会对生态环境和人体健康造成严重危害^[6]。生物质炭的制备过程会不可避免地产生一定量的PAHs、二噁英或呋喃, 并附着于生物质炭表面或孔隙中^[7-9]。随着生物质炭的广泛施用, 其中有害物质会随之进入环境, 继而威胁环境健康。目前, 学界的研究热点多倾向于探讨生物质炭

对土壤生态功能的正面效应, 而忽视了其潜在的负面影响。明确生物质炭中PAHs的含量及生物有效性, 对于评估生物质炭潜在的环境风险及推荐最大施用剂量, 具有重要意义^[8]。近年来, 一些学者已经展开了对生物质炭中PAHs总量的测定研究, 但较少涉及其生物有效含量的测定。在PAHs总量测定方面, 现有报道所采用的提取方法较多, 但缺乏标准化方法, 且一些方法的可靠性存在争议。本文将从生物质炭中PAHs产生机理、测定分析方法、含量影响因素和生物有效性等几个方面对现有的研究结果进行总结和评述, 以为生物质炭在环境中的安全应用提供借鉴。

1 生物质炭中PAHs的产生机理

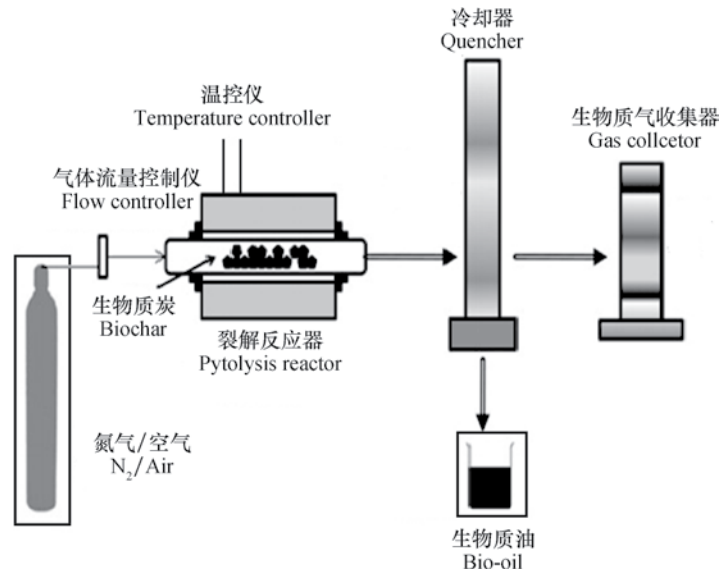
生物质(biomass)在厌氧环境下的高温裂解会得到三种产物: 生物质炭(biochar)、生物质油(bio-oil)和生物质气(bio-gas)(图1)。

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注：图片来源于Zheng等^[15] Note: the figure was cited from Zheng et al.^[15]

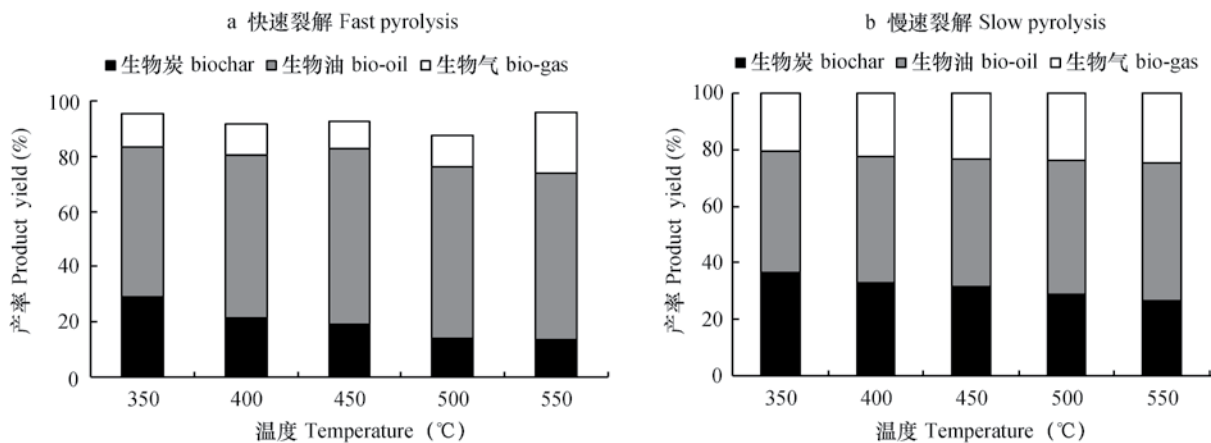
图1 生物质炭的制备过程及产物

Fig. 1 Biochar preparation process and products during the process

这三种产物的形成比重及性质受控于生物质原料的种类和裂解条件（升温速率、最高加热温度、最高温度保持时间、氧气浓度等）。有资料表明^[10-11]，快速（0.5~2 s）升温至较高目标温度（约500℃），可以生成大量的生物质油（约60%）、少量的生物质炭（约20%）和生物质气（约20%）；而慢速（几小时或者几天）升温至相对较低温度（约300℃）可以得到高比重的生物质炭（35%~50%）^[12]。图2展示了快速裂解和慢

速裂解对产物含量的影响。一般情况下，为了提高生物质炭的生产效率，慢速裂解工艺多受青睐，且慢速裂解过程产生的PAHs较少^[13]。自20世纪50年代以来，学界就开始研究热裂解过程中PAHs的产生机理。概括起来，无取代基的PAHs主要由以下两个产生途径^[14]：

（1）当裂解温度<500℃时，PAHs是通过生物质中的木质素或纤维素以及树脂、类固醇等生物大分子在降解过程中的单分子环合反应形成



注：图a快速裂解，数据来源于Garcia-Perez等^[30]，制备原料为桉木；图b慢速裂解，数据来源于Zheng等^[15]，制备原料为玉米芯、核桃壳、木片和酒糟等；裂解升温速率为7℃ min⁻¹ Note: Fig. 2a is of fast pyrolysis with data cited from Garcia-Perez et al.^[30]. Mallee wood was used for biochar preparation. Fig. 2b is of slow pyrolysis with data cited from Zheng et al.^[15]. Corn cobs, walnut shells, wood chips and defatted dried distiller grain were used as feedstock in pyrolysis with a heating rate of 7 °C min⁻¹

图2 温度和升温速率对裂解产物含量的影响

Fig. 2 Effects of pyrolysis temperature and heating rate on yields of pyrolytic products

的。这些反应包括脱烷基化、脱氢、成环和芳香化^[16-17]。该过程使生物质中的一些成分转变为H₂O、CO₂、CH₄和H₂S等挥发，留下了具有芳香化结构的化合物。例如，软木中常见的松香酸和树脂酸经过脱氢作用生成1-甲基-7-异丙基菲和1,7-二甲菲^[18-20]；带有烷基的芳香化合物直接通过核缩合反应或烷基的进一步环化形成PAHs^[11]。此温度生成的PAHs以低分子量居多^[21]。但是，也有少量的高分子PAHs如苯并(a)芘形成^[22-24]。

(2) 当温度 > 500℃ 时，生物分子通过自由基反应在高温下合成较大的芳香化结构^[17, 25]。这个过程大概分为三步：起初，通过热解反应，生物质大分子被裂解成活泼的小分子自由基（例如C≡C·和H₂C≡CH-CH≡C·H）；随后，自由基在高温下稠和成不含取代基、且热稳定性较高的低分子量PAHs（如萘）^[26]；最后，随着高温及其保留时间的增加，低分子量的PAHs通过zig-zag加成反应形成高分子量的PAHs（如苯并[a]芘和苯并[g, h, i]芘）^[27]，在此过程中，依次由4个C原子和2个C原子加成在苯环上π-电子云密度较高的位置，形成高环化合物。通常认为这三个过程是在 > 650℃ 的条件下发生的^[28-29]。

由此可见，在生物质炭的制备过程中伴随的PAHs的产生是一个非常复杂的过程。高温和低温均能产生PAHs，只是产生的机理不同。而温度对于生物质炭中PAHs含量的影响，本文将在第3部分详细阐述。

2 生物质炭中PAHs的分析测定方法

现已发现的PAHs有200多种，但人们常关注的是美国EPA所规定的16种优先控制的PAHs [包括萘(naphthalene)、苊烯(acenaphthylene)、苊(acenaphthene)、芴(fluorene)、菲(phenanthrene)、蒽(anthracene)、荧蒽(fluoranthene)、芘(pyrene)、屈(chrysene)、苯并[b]荧蒽(benzo[b]fluoranthene)、苯并[k]荧蒽(benzo[k]fluoranthene)、苯并[a]芘(benzo[a]pyrene)、苯并[g, h, i]芘(benzo[g, h, i]perylene)、二苯并[a, h]蒽(dibenz[a, h]anthracene)、茚苯[1, 2, 3-c, d]芘(indeno[1, 2, 3-c, d]pyrene)]。因此，在本文的论述中，除非特别说明，一般指的是这16种PAHs。如图3所示，对生物质炭中的PAHs进行分析测定时，通常包括两部分：1) 样品的提取及前处理；2) 仪器测定。对于第二部分，常用的仪器测定技术包括高效液相色谱法(HPLC)或气相色谱-质谱联用技术(GC-MS)。不同研究的主要差异在于第一部分，具体而言，是提取方法及提取试剂的差异。大部分研究对于PAHs总量的提取，沿用了土壤/沉积物中有机污染物的提取方法，如表1所示，有索氏提取法、加速溶剂萃取法(accelerated solvent extraction, ASE)、超声提取法、热提取法、回流萃取法和微波萃取法等。索氏提取法和加

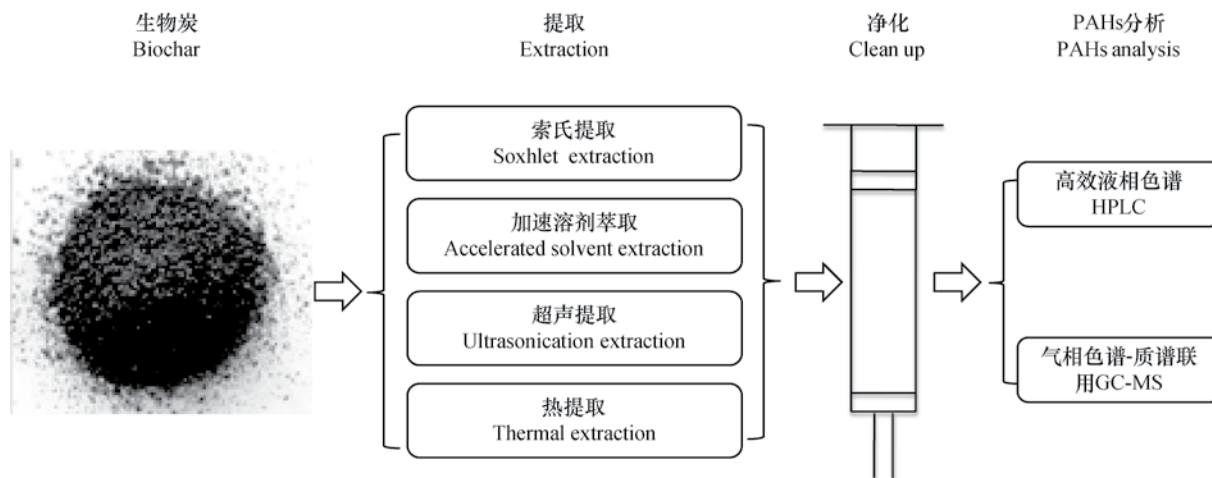


图3 生物质炭中PAHs的分析测定流程示意图

Fig 3 Flowchart of the determination of PAHs in biochars

速溶剂萃取法是两种最常用的方法。这两种方法应用于土壤/沉积物中污染物提取时,提取率高,重复性好,结果可信度高。但是,对于生物质炭,其提取效果受提取剂种类的影响较大。

以索氏提取法为例,Jonker和Koelmans^[31]比较了多种烟尘、类似烟尘的煤炭及木炭中13种PAHs的加标回收率(表1)。结果表明,以甲苯/甲醇(1:6)为提取剂,PAHs的平均回收率可以达到61%~100%。而丙酮、正己烷、二氯甲烷等溶剂单独使用或按不同比例(体积比)混合之后提取效果较差,尤以二氯甲烷的提取效果最差(38%~93%),尽管它常被用于提取烟尘或沉积物中的有机污染物。Hilber等^[8]对4种不同原料生物炭进行提取后,认为甲苯(100%)是较好的提取剂:16种PAHs的相对回收率可达71%~105%(表1)。其效果优于甲苯/甲醇(1:6)、甲苯/乙醇(2:1)、甲苯/丙醇(2:1)、甲苯/正己烷(2:1)、甲苯/庚烷(2:1)、甲苯/二氯甲烷(2:1)和二氯甲烷/丙酮(1:1)等溶剂。而Kloss等^[32]用乙腈(100%)提取了3种原料在3个温度制备的共9种炭,16种PAHs的回收率为88%~105%(表1)。在Fabbri等^[33]的研究中,丙酮/环己烷(1:1)是相对较好的选择(表1),特别是对低环易挥发的萘,其提取率要高于甲苯或二氯甲烷。由此可见,在应用索氏提取法时,不同研究者得到的最佳提取剂并不相同。此外,提取时间也是影响提取效果的一个重要因素。一般而言,随着提取时间的延长,提取率会有所增加^[8, 33],然而,Fabbri等^[33]指出,提取时间过长,提取率反而会下降。因此,36 h被认为是比较合适的提取时间^[8, 33]。

相较于索氏提取法,加速溶剂萃取法易操作,耗时短,特别适合大量样品的分析。但当该方法应用于生物质炭中PAHs的提取时,不同提取剂的提取效果差异很大,且同一提取剂在不同的研究中,其提取效果也不尽相同。Fredde等^[34]利用加速溶剂萃取法比较了二氯甲烷(100%)、二氯甲烷/丙酮(1:1)和正己烷/丙酮(1:1)对生物质炭中PAHs的提取效果,证实二氯甲烷(100%)的提取效果明显优于其他两种溶剂。而Machesky和Holm^[35]以正己烷/丙酮(1:1)作为提取剂发现,除了萘的回收率较低(26.2%)外,其他15种PAHs的回收率都比较高(72%~102%)。而

Hilber等^[8]的研究中,分别以甲苯(100%)、二氯甲烷/丙酮(1:1)和甲苯/甲醇(1:6)作为提取剂,均使分子量高于屈(分子量228 g mol⁻¹)的PAHs无法提取。

超声提取法由于设备易得,操作简单,也是实验室比较常用的提取方法。Fernandes和Brooks^[36]用正己烷作为提取剂,对生物质炭中菲和芘的提取率均超过70%。Barbosa等^[37]以二氯甲烷/甲醇(4:1)为提取剂,16种PAHs的提取率为45%~106%。而在Fabbri等^[33]的研究中,使用环己烷/丙酮(1:1)时,向生物质炭中加入苊-*d*₁₀(acenaphthene-*d*₁₀)、菲-*d*₁₀(phenanthrene-*d*₁₀)和屈-*d*₁₂(chrysene-*d*₁₂)时的加标回收率只有0.4%~9.0%。因此,对提取效果影响较大的依然是提取剂的选择。值得注意的是,在以上研究中,因测定回收率所用的目标物不同,也会对提取试剂的优劣比较产生影响。

除了以上提取方法之外,热提取-气相色谱/质谱联用技术(TE-GC/MS)也是分析各类固体基质中PAHs的有力工具。该方法的优点在于能够快速得到固体中的挥发性和半挥发性的有机化合物,而无需对样品进行复杂的化学前处理。由于省略了以上各类方法中复杂繁琐的提取过程,TE-GC/MS节约了时间和试剂成本。在以往的研究中,该技术主要用于土壤或污泥等介质中PAHs或PCBs(多氯联苯)等挥发性/半挥发性化合物的分析测定^[38-39]。一些研究者也将该技术用于飞灰(fly ash)中PAHs的研究^[40-42]。鉴于该技术在提取和测定过程中的优越性,作为研究固体介质中PAHs的经典方法,该技术必将在生物质炭的研究中发挥重要的作用。此外,还有回流萃取法和微波萃取法,但是应用这两种方法的研究并不多^[13, 33]。

对于不同方法优劣性的比较,目前的研究不多。由于不同研究者选择的最佳提取试剂不同,似乎很难确定最佳的提取方法。例如,在Hilber等^[8]的索氏提取法中,经过多种筛选,甲苯(100%)成为最佳的提取剂,但是,当该试剂应用于加速溶剂萃取法时,对分子量高于屈(分子量228)的物质均无法提取。相同提取剂在不同提取方法中,提取效果出现结论相左^[34-35]的原因,可能在于不同研究中使用的生物质炭的理化性质差异较大。Keiluweit等^[14]的研究也证实了提取率因生物质炭的制备原料和制备温度而出现较大差异。降低

表1 生物质炭中PAHs总量提取方法

Table 1 Methods for extracting total PAHs in biochars

提取方法 Extraction methods	提取剂 ⁶⁾ Extractant	提取细节 Details for extraction	回收率 Recovery	文献 Reference
超声提取法 ¹⁾ Ultrasonic extraction	正己烷 Hexane	0.02 ~ 4.0 g 样品, 70 ml提取剂, 提取1 h 70 ml extractant, 0.02 ~ 4.0 g biochar, extracted for 1 h	> 70%	[36]
超声提取法 ²⁾ Ultrasonic extraction	二氯甲烷/甲醇 (4 : 1) Dichloromethane/ methanol (4 : 1)	5 ml提取剂, 重复提取3次, 每次0.5 h 5 ml extractant, extracted three times, each for 0.5 h period	45% ~ 106%	[37]
超声提取法 ³⁾ Ultrasonic extraction	丙酮/环己烷 (1 : 1) Acetone/cyclohexane (1 : 1)	1.0 g 样品, 20 ml提取剂, 提取 30 min 20 ml extractant, 1.0 g biochar, extracted for 30 min	0.4% ~ 9%	[33]
索氏提取法 ²⁾ Soxhlet extraction	甲苯 Toluene	0.1 ~ 1.0 g 样品, 提取36 h 0.1 ~ 1.0 g biochar, extracted for 36 h	71% ~ 105%	[8]
索氏提取法 ²⁾ Soxhlet extraction	正己烷 Hexane	提取8 h Extracted for 8 h	未提及 Not mentioned	[9]
索氏提取法 ³⁾ Soxhlet extraction	丙酮/环己烷 (1 : 1) Acetone/ cyclohexane (1 : 1)	1.0 g 样品, 160 ml提取剂, 提取36 h 1.0 g biochar, 160 ml extractant, extracted for 36 h	67% ~ 88%	[33]
	丙酮 Acetone	1.0 g 样品, 160 ml提取剂, 提取18 h 1.0 g biochar, 160 ml extractant, extracted for 18 h	39% ~ 84%	
	丙酮/环己烷 (5 : 1) Acetone/cyclohexane (5 : 1)		10% ~ 76%	
	丙酮/环己烷 (1 : 1) Acetone/cyclohexane (1 : 1)		29% ~ 75%	
索氏提取法 Soxhlet extraction	甲苯/乙醇 (3 : 7) Toluene/ethanol (3 : 7)	提取16 h Extracted for 16 h	未提及 Not mentioned	[45]
索氏提取法 Soxhlet extraction	二氯甲烷 Dichloromethane	提取16 h Extracted for 16 h	未提及 Not mentioned	[46]
索氏提取法 ⁴⁾ Soxhlet extraction	甲苯/甲醇 (1 : 6) Toluene/methanol (1 : 6)	10 ~ 40 mg 样品, 70 ml提取剂, 提取16 h 10 ~ 40 mg soot, 70 ml extractant, extracted for 16 h	61% ~ 100%	[31]
	甲苯/乙醇 (1 : 4) Toluene/ethanol (1 : 4)		65% ~ 97%	
	苯/丙醇 (3 : 1) Benzene/1-propanol (3 : 1)		45% ~ 94%	
	苯/乙醇 (3 : 2) Benzene/ethanol (3 : 2)		61% ~ 91%	
	正己烷/丙酮 (3 : 1) Hexane/acetone (3 : 1)		61% ~ 81%	
	甲苯 Toluene		16% ~ 100%	
	二氯甲烷 Dichloromethane		38% ~ 93%	

续表

提取方法 Extraction methods	提取剂 ⁶⁾ Extractant	提取细节 Details for extraction	回收率 Recovery	文献 Reference
索氏提取法 ⁵⁾ Soxhlet extraction	甲苯 Toluene	0.5 g 样品, 90 ml 提取剂, 160 °C, 提取6 h 0.5 g biochar, 90 ml extractant, 160 °C, extracted for 6 h	56% ~ 79%	[43]
索氏提取法 ²⁾ Soxhlet extraction	乙腈 Acetonitrile	5.0 g 样品, 150 ml 提取剂, 195 °C, 提取1.5 h 5.0 g biochar, 150 ml extractant, at 195 °C, extracted for 1.5 h	85% ~ 105%	[32]
回流萃取法 ³⁾ Reflux extraction	丙酮/环己烷 (1 : 1) Acetone/cyclohexane (1 : 1)	2.0 g 样品, 80 ml 提取剂, 提取4 h 2.0 g biochar, 80 ml extractant, extracted for 4 h	7% ~ 80%	[33]
	丙酮/环己烷 (1 : 5) Acetone/cyclohexane (1 : 5)		7% ~ 56%	
	二氯甲烷 Dichloromethane		11% ~ 83%	
	甲苯 Toluene		58% ~ 68%	
加速溶剂萃取法 Accelerated solvent extraction	甲苯/甲醇 (1 : 1) Toluene/methanol	0.1g 样品, 100 °C, 压强6.9 MPa, 提取3 次, 每次10 ml 0.1g biochar, at 100 °C, 6.9 MPa, extracted 3 times and 10 ml extractant each time	5% ~ 94%, 回收率因制备 原料和制备温度的影响而差 异较大 5% ~ 94%, highly varied due to difference in feedstock resource and pyrolysis temperature	[14]
加速溶剂萃取法 ²⁾ Accelerated solvent extraction	二氯甲烷 Dichloromethane	5.0 g 样品, 100 °C, 压强10.3 MPa。 60 ml 提取剂。5 min 静态提取, 提取1次 5.0 g biochar, 100 °C, 10.3 MPa. 60 ml extractant, 5 min static extraction, 1 static cycle	56% 目标物低于检测限 56% of the tested PAHs were lower than the limit of detection	[34]
	二氯甲烷/丙酮 (1 : 1) Dichloromethane/acetone (1 : 1)		88% 目标物低于检测限 88% of the tested PAHs were lower than the limit of detection	
	正己烷/丙酮 (1 : 1) Hexane/acetone (1 : 1)		81% 目标物低于检测限 81% of the tested PAHs were lower than the limit of detection	
加速溶剂萃取法 ²⁾ Accelerated solvent extraction	二氯甲烷/丙酮 (1 : 1) Dichloromethane/ acetone (1 : 1)	1.0 g 样品, 100 °C, 压强13.8 MPa。静 态提取5 min, 提取2次 1.0 g biochar, 100 °C and 13.8 MPa. 5 min static extraction for twice	ASE 的提取效果要弱于索氏 提取, 且对分子量高于屈 (分子量228) 的PAHs 无法 提取The performance of ASE was consistently inferior to soxhlet extraction, ASE was not capable of extracting any of the PAHs heavier than chrysene in molecular weight	[8]
	甲苯 Toluene	1.0 g 样品, 100 °C, 压强10.3 MPa。静态 提取5 min, 提取2次		
	甲苯/甲醇 (1 : 6) Toluene/ methanol (1 : 6)	1.0 g biochar, 100 °C and 10.3 MPa. 5 min static extraction for twice		

续表

提取方法 Extraction methods	提取剂 ⁶⁾ Extractant	提取细节 Details for extraction	回收率 Recovery	文献 Reference
加速溶剂萃取 ²⁾ Accelerated solvent extraction	丙酮/正己烷 (1:1) Acetone/hexane (1:1)	5.0 g 样品, 100℃, 压强10.3 MPa。静态 提取5 min, 提取3次 5.0 g biochar, 100℃and 10.3 MPa. 5 min static extraction, 3 static cycles	26.2% ~ 102%	[35]
微波萃取 Microwave accelerated reaction	正己烷/丙酮/三乙胺 (10:9:1) Hexane/acetone/triethylamine (10:9:1)	5 g 样品, 20 ml 提取剂 5 g biochar, 20 ml extractant	未提及 Not mentioned	[13]

注：1) 用于加标回收率的化合物为全氘代的菲和芘；2) 用于加标回收率的化合物为16种EPA PAHs；3) 用于加标回收率的化合物为芘-*d*₁₀、菲-*d*₁₀和屈-*d*₁₂；4) 用于加标回收率的化合物为除了萘、芘烯和芘以外的13种EPA PAHs。供试样品包括尾气烟尘、燃油烟尘、木材燃烧烟尘、煤烟尘、煤炭和木炭；5) 用于加标回收率的化合物为菲-*d*₁₀，芘-*d*₁₀，苯并 [a] 蒽-*d*₁₂，苯并 [a] 芘-*d*₁₂，苯并 [g, h, i] 芘-*d*₁₂；6) 涉及的混合溶剂均为体积比 Note: 1) The compounds used for determination of recovery rate were perdeuteratedphenanthrene and perdeuteratedpyrene; 2) The compounds used for determination of recovery rate were 16 EPA PAHs; 3) The compounds used for determination of recovery rate were acenaphthene-*d*₁₀, phenanthrene-*d*₁₀, chrysene-*d*₁₂; 4) The compounds used for determination of recovery rate were 13 EPA PAHs with naphthalene, acenaphthylene and acenaphthene excluded. The tested carbonaceous samples included traffic soot, oil soot, wood soot, coal soot, coal and charcoal; 5) The compounds used for determination of recovery rate were phenanthrene-*d*₁₀, pyrene-*d*₁₀, benz [a] anthracene-*d*₁₂, benzo [a] pyrene-*d*₁₂ and benzo [g, h, i] perylene-*d*₁₂; 6) solvents were mixed in volume ratio

生物质炭的粒径和增加提取次数可能有助于提高提取的回收率^[8, 35, 43]。总体而言，索氏提取法应用较多，数据较全面，提取效果优于加速溶剂法^[8]和超声提取法^[8, 33]。目前，欧洲生物质炭标准（European Biochar Certificate）和国际生物质炭协会（International Biochar Initiative, IBI）均推荐用索氏提取法来提取生物质炭中PAHs，所采用的溶剂为100%的甲苯^[44]。但是，要得到可靠的标准或规范化方法，依然需要更多深入的研究，特别是使用不同方法和不同提取剂对性质各异的生物质炭样品进行加标分析。分析时，要有足够的生物质炭样本量，同时要考虑制备原料、制备条件和粒径大小等因素的影响。

3 生物质炭中PAHs含量及其影响因素

在对生物质炭中PAHs的环境风险进行评估时，首先要了解PAHs的总量。目前对于生物质炭中PAHs的含量高低，各研究差别较大。一些学者认为生物质炭中的PAHs含量较低，不足以引起环境风险。例如，Hale等^[43]测定了250~900℃的12种温度下，由畜禽粪便、木屑、秸秆、椰壳和树木等

多种材料制备的50种生物质炭中的PAHs含量，结果表明，这些炭中16种PAHs的总量（ $\Sigma 16\text{PAHs}$ ）仅为0.07~3.27 mg kg⁻¹，低于土壤环境质量标准。Singh等^[46]以木屑、纸浆、树叶、畜禽粪便等材料在450℃和550℃两种温度下制备了11种生物质炭，其中的 $\Sigma 16\text{PAHs}$ 含量低于本国的国家健康标准（ $< 0.5\text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ）^[47]。Fernandes和Brooks^[36]研究了豌豆秸秆和赤桉制备的生物质炭，其 $\Sigma 16\text{PAHs}$ 含量也低于0.2 mg kg⁻¹。而另外一些研究中，PAHs的含量比较高。例如，Fabbri等^[33]以锯末、木片和玉米芯等材料制备了20种生物质炭，其 $\Sigma 16\text{PAHs}$ 含量为1.2~19 mg kg⁻¹。Quilliam等^[13]在450℃制备的稻壳生物质炭，其 $\Sigma 16\text{PAHs}$ 含量是64.65 mg kg⁻¹。Zhurinsh等^[48]以慢裂解工艺制备的松树枝炭，其中的 $\Sigma 16\text{PAHs}$ 含量高达145 mg kg⁻¹。而在Schimmelpfennig和Glaser^[9]的研究中，木材气化（wood gasifier）的炭中 $\Sigma 16\text{PAHs}$ 含量更高，达到2 945 mg kg⁻¹。为了生物质炭在土壤中的安全使用，国际生物质炭协会和欧洲生物质炭标准规定，生物质炭中的 $\Sigma 16\text{PAHs}$ 阈值分别为6~20 mg kg⁻¹^[49]和12 mg kg⁻¹^[50]。

不仅如此，生物质炭中不同PAHs所占的比例

也不同。在一些研究^[8-9, 32-34, 43, 51]中, 萘通常是生物质炭中丰度最高的PAH。如Fabbri等^[33]的研究中, 萘的含量最高, 其次是菲。而Nakajima等^[45]的研究中, 含量最高的是芴, 其次是菲和蒽。基于环境安全的角度, 人们更关注强致癌物苯并[a]芘的浓度, 但是总体而言, 苯并[a]芘的浓度并不算高。例如, Fabbri等^[33]的研究中, 苯并[a]芘的浓度为0.01~0.67 mg kg⁻¹, 与Brown等^[21]得到的数据接近。生物质炭中PAHs的含量主要受制备原料、裂解温度和裂解过程的影响^[35, 52]。下面将就这些因素做详细论述。

3.1 制备原料

制备原料对生物质炭中PAHs含量的影响可能与原料自身的性质(如植物种属^[48]、化学组成等^[13])相关。但Nakajima等^[45]比较了以柏树、栗树和竹子为原料制备的生物质炭, 其15种PAHs的总量却无显著差异。Quilliam等^[13]检测了稻壳生物质炭和木质(不同树木的枝条)生物质炭中PAHs的浓度, 结果显示, 前者的浓度(64.65mgkg⁻¹)是后者(9.56mgkg⁻¹)的7倍, 认为原材料的化学成分影响PAHs含量。有研究表明, 烟草细胞壁中的纤维素、半纤维素和木质素是形成PAHs的前体化合物^[24]。Keiluweit等^[14]在试图明确PAHs含量与原料中木质素含量的关系时, 选用了木质素含量较低的高羊茅和较高的黄松木在一系列温度(100~700℃)制备了生物质炭, 结果发现, 仅500℃制备炭中PAHs的含量差别较大(分别为22 mg kg⁻¹和5.9 mg kg⁻¹), 而其他温度下, PAHs的含量与木质素含量之间无明确的关系。McGrath等^[23]比较了纤维素、葡萄糖和蔗糖热裂解后产生PAHs的量, 结果显示, 2~5环的PAHs总量在三种原料之间无显著差异。最近, Lehmann^[53]在谈及木质素和纤维素对生物质炭性质的影响时也表示, 这方面可获知的信息很少。以上研究表明, 尽管PAHs的含量与原材料的关系较大, 但依然缺乏足够的研究以明确PAHs的含量受原材料中哪些关键成分的影响。

3.2 裂解温度

裂解温度是影响生物质炭中PAHs含量和种类的最重要因素^[14, 54-55]。研究者们在这方面进行了大量的研究, 但目前仍未得到一致的结论。一些研究^[14, 45]表明, 高温裂解更易产生较多的PAHs。如Nakajima等^[45]的研究显示, 随着裂解

温度从400℃增加到1 000℃, PAHs的含量持续增加。而另外一些研究^[14, 21, 43, 56-57]得到的结论则与此相反。而且, 值得注意的是, 这些研究更倾向于认为, “中间温度”制备的炭含有更多的PAHs, 这个“中间温度”一般在400~550℃之间。例如, Brown等^[21]比较了不同温度制备的木质生物质炭中40种PAHs的含量, 结果显示, 所有温度制备的生物质炭中都可以检测到PAHs, 其中450℃和525℃制备的炭中PAHs的总量分别为16和7 mg kg⁻¹, 而1000℃炭中的含量仅是3 mg kg⁻¹; Keiluweit等^[14]以及Devi和Saroja^[56]比较了100~700℃范围内的生物质炭中PAHs的含量, 结果也表明, 400~500℃制备的炭中PAHs的含量要高于同样原料在其他温度制备的生物质炭。对于高温时PAHs的含量降低这一现象, 可能与高温裂解条件下, 引起一部分PAHs挥发有关。但也有学者认为, 高温可能使产生的PAHs进一步核浓缩进入生物质炭的不可提取页层^[52], 或被高度缩合形成的生物质炭强烈吸附, 成为不可提取态^[58]。如此, 高温炭所对应的低含量的PAHs可能是一种“假象”。

温度不仅影响到PAHs的含量, 而且也影响着PAHs的组成。现有的研究倾向于认为低温产生简单的低分子PAHs, 而高温更易产生芳香度高的稠环化合物。例如, Brown等^[21]发现, 低温(450~525℃)制备的炭含有更多低分子量/高蒸汽压的PAHs, 而高温(1 000℃)制备的炭则含有更多高分子量/低蒸汽压的PAHs。Garcia-Perez^[7]也认为, 350~600℃热解时产生的PAHs量较少, 且多为支链PAHs, 毒性较小。McGrath等^[23]在木质素的热裂解研究中发现, ≥400℃会形成2~4环的PAHs, 而≥500℃时, 会产生4环以上的PAHs, 如苯并[a]蒽和苯并[a]芘。

从以上结果来看, 似乎低温(<400℃)制备的生物质炭施用起来更安全(PAHs含量低, 且以低环居多)。但是, 高温制备的生物质炭如果能将自身的PAHs强烈吸附, 其环境风险也会相应地降低。本课题组在前期的研究中, 利用热裂解-气相色谱/质谱联用技术(Pyrolysis-GC/MS)对高温制备的炭所吸附的PAHs进行分析, 结果发现, 即使在高温处理的条件下, 生物质炭上的PAHs几乎不能被解吸下来。因而, 似乎很难确定哪种温度的炭使用起来更安全。

3.3 裂解过程

裂解过程中的升温速率和裂解保留时间是影响生物质炭中PAHs含量的第三个重要因素。通常依据升温速率将裂解过程分为慢速裂解和快速裂解。Quilliam等^[13]认为,慢速裂解过程使更多的PAHs进入气相,而快速裂解过程使PAHs更倾向于吸附在生物质炭上,从而提高其PAHs含量。究其原因,可能在慢裂解过程中,较多的PAHs能够从生物质炭中解吸而进入气相,相反,在快速裂解过程中,PAHs不能完全解吸。目前,对于慢速裂解和快速裂解过程还没有严格的区分标准。Brown等^[59]在其研究中指出,两者的区别在于升温速率和最大裂解温度,慢速裂解的升温速率 $< 100 \text{ K min}^{-1}$,裂解温度为 300°C ,而快速裂解的生物速率 $> 1\ 000 \text{ K min}^{-1}$,裂解温度为 500°C 。但是,值得注意的是,不同的研究者在他们的研究中,所采用的最高裂解温度并不相同,因此,比较相关数据时,有必要考虑裂解速率和裂解温度对测定结果的影响。保留时间对PAHs含量的影响,体现在保留时间越长,PAHs的总含量越低^[7],这也是因为较长的保留时间能够使PAHs从生物质炭中解吸而进入气相。

3.4 其他因素

Garcia-Perez^[7]认为,在某些生物质炭的制备过程中,原料的灰分含量^[60]、含水量^[61]、裂解或裂解后的冷却过程中的氧气含量也会影响PAHs的含量。大致规律是,高灰分的原料^[60]或降低裂解—冷却过程中的氧含量^[23]会导致生成较多的PAHs。而原料含水量对PAHs的形成存在或正或负两个作用^[62]。McGrath等^[24]还指出,无机盐的存在会使产生PAHs含量峰值的温度向低温偏移。还有一些研究表明^[63-65],裂解过程中 CO_2 的存在能够阻断PAHs合成途径。这些结果为制备低PAHs含量的生物质炭提供了重要启示。但是,这些研究均不够深入,需要用一系列的生物质炭进行验证,有些因素的作用甚至还存在矛盾的说法(如原料含水量的影响)。相对于裂解温度和裂解过程,上述因素对生物质炭中PAHs含量的影响相对较小。

4 生物质炭中PAHs的生物有效性

在污染物的环境风险评价中,仅关注化合物的总浓度或者毒性强的化合物的浓度是不够的。而探

讨其生物有效性(bioavailability)较探讨用耗竭性提取方法得到的“总量”具有更重要的科学意义。然而,目前仅见Hale等^[43]的研究中,利用聚甲醛膜(polyoxymethylene membrane, POM)提取的方法测定了生物质炭中PAHs的生物有效性含量,该方法的回收率在70%~130%,证实了PAHs的有效性含量在 $0.17 \sim 162 \text{ ng L}^{-1}$ 。而最近,Zielińska和Oleszczuk^[66]也用聚甲醛膜提取了在 $500 \sim 700^\circ\text{C}$ 制备的污泥生物质炭中的PAHs,显示其有效性含量在 $86 \sim 216 \text{ ng L}^{-1}$ 。该研究同时证实,PAHs的有效性含量和生物质炭的芳香度(H/C摩尔比)显著相关。其他一些化学方法,如Tenax(2,6-二苯咪唑多孔聚合物树脂)、环式糊精(HPCD)和固相微萃取(SPME)等,是常用于测定土壤、沉积物等固体基质中有机污染物生物有效的方法,但目前生物质炭中PAHs的生物有效性研究中尚未见应用。以后应该尝试加强这方面的研究,证实方法的可靠性。

一般认为,生物质炭中的PAHs成为生物有效态的前提是其能够进入水相,然而,与所有的炭基材料相同,生物质炭对PAHs的吸附能力非常强,存在于生物质炭中的PAHs很难被解吸下来。Hale等^[43]利用POM测定的结果表明,生物质炭中PAHs生物有效性含量仅占到其总量的1%~10%。但是,需要强调的是,生物质炭进入土壤环境后,其含有的PAHs的生物有效性受到多个因素的影响。一方面,土壤及生物质炭自身的可溶性有机碳会促进PAHs的释放^[55]。Quilliam等^[13]的研究也表明,添加生物质炭促进了PAHs在土壤中的淋溶。另一方面,土壤中的微生物或者植物根系能够促进吸附态的PAHs成为溶解态,增加其生物有效性。前者是通过分泌表面活性剂类的物质,而后者能够产生有机酸等根系分泌物。但是,微生物或者植物活性受土壤条件(土壤类型、养分、温度、湿度和pH等)的影响较大,因而对PAHs有效性的影响十分复杂,这些不是本文的讨论重点,不再赘述。

5 结论及展望

到目前为止,学界对生物质炭中PAHs的含量(包括总量及有效性含量)的研究,尚缺乏规范的分析方法,对PAHs形成机制与影响因子也缺乏足

够的认识。为降低其环境风险,选择无污染的原材料和慢裂解工艺(升温速率 $< 100 \text{ K min}^{-1}$,裂解温度 $< 400 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$)制备生物质炭,既节约能源,也能减少PAHs的总量和高环PAHs的生成。但是,高温炭($> 500 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$)对污染物具有更强的吸附—固定能力,其自身携带的有机污染物也不易释放出来,因而可能有着更多的环境需求(如污水处理)。未来的研究可以从以下几个方面开展:

(1) 完善生物质炭中PAHs含量的检测技术,以形成可作为行业推荐的标准化方法,且使该方法能应用于其他有机污染物如多氯联苯、呋喃等的分析。

(2) 加强生物质炭中PAHs和其他有机污染物含量的影响因子研究,明确制备原料中关键化学成分、裂解过程参数(特别是高温)对PAHs含量的影响规律。

(3) 结合实验室和场地研究结果,关注生物因子和非生物因子对生物质炭中PAHs等污染物的长期环境行为的影响,特别是对生物有效性的影响。

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Progress of the Research on Potential Environmental Risk of Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAHs) in Biochar

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Abstract Biochar is a kind of highly aromatic carbonized material produced through thermal decomposition of biomass under reductive conditions (i.e. in the absence of or with a limited supply of oxygen). Biochar is found to be able to play an important role in mitigating global climate change, removing pollutants from water and soil, as well as maintaining functions of ecosystems. During the pyrolytic processes of biological materials, a certain amount of organic pollutants, such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), would form and remain on the surface of the biochar. Consequently, increasing application of biochar may bring about a certain risk to the environment. Current researches pay much attention to the positive effects biochar may have, while ignoring its potential hazards to the ecosystem.

To assess environmental risk of the PAHs in biochar, it is necessary to determine the contents of total and bioavailable PAHs in biochar. At present, the following four methods, i.e. Soxhlet extraction, accelerated solvent extraction (ASE), ultrasonication extraction and thermal extraction, are available for determining total PAHs in biochar. However, the four methods were often used to determine semivolatile organic compounds in solid matrix (soil or sediment). Among the four methods, the Soxhlet extraction and ASE methods are the most commonly used ones, because of their higher recoveries of target compounds. However, when they are used to extract PAHs in biochar, PAHs recoveries depend highly on solvents and the biochar per se. In the case of determining bioavailable PAHs, limited information is available besides the polyoxymethylene (POM) passive sampling method.

Although PAHs in biochar are formed mainly through two pathways, i.e. low temperature pyrolysis (< 500°C) and high temperature pyrolysis (> 500°C), the formation process is still very complicated, because there are a lot of factors that affect yield and composition of PAHs in biochar, including feedstock resource, pyrolysis temperature, heating rate, holding time, etc. With the respect of feedstock, little information is available concerning relationship between content of lignin and/or cellulose and PAHs in biochar. As regards pyrolysis temperature, biochar out of low-temperature pyrolysis generally contains more low-molecule-weight/high-vapor-pressure PAHs, whereas biochar out of high-temperature pyrolysis contains more high-molecule-weight /lower-vapor-pressure PAHs. However, the relationship between temperature

and PAHs yield is still controversial. Heating rate and holding time of the pyrolysis are two important factors influencing PAHs yield in biochar. Generally speaking, during the process of slow pyrolysis with long holding time, PAHs are more likely to escape into the atmosphere as gas whereas during the process of fast pyrolysis, they are more likely to get condensed and adsorbed onto the surface of biochar. The other factors that influence PAHs content in biochar include ash content and moisture content of the feedstock, and presence of oxygen during the process of pyrolysis or the post-pyrolysis cooling process. Researches demonstrate that feedstock is high in ash and moisture content plus presence of a little oxygen facilitates formation of more PAHs in biochar.

To minimize environmental risk of the PAHs in biochar, it is recommended firstly that feedstock free of PAHs contamination should be used for biochar preparation, and secondly that the technology of slow pyrolysis (heating rate $< 100 \text{ K min}^{-1}$ and pyrolysis temperature $< 400 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) could reduce apparent total PAHs and bioavailable PAHs concentration in biochar. However, it should be noticed that high-temperature biochar is much higher than low-temperature biochar in specific surface area and adsorption capacity, and hence in applicability to pollutant removal, moreover, the PAHs in high-temperature biochar is lower in bioavailability and therefore in environmental risk, too. Obviously, high-temperature biochar ($> 600 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) is a better option.

In order to find a professional and standardized protocol for quantitative analysis of PAHs or other toxic organic compounds in biochar, it is essential to do more researches that should lay more emphasis on pollutant yield relative to property variability of the biochar per se. In addition, in-depth studies should also be done on long-term impacts of biochar on ecological environment. Both laboratory researches and field experiments should work jointly to deepen our understanding of how various biological and non-biological factors influence environmental behavior of PAHs in biochar.

Key words Biochar; PAHs; Extraction methods; Total concentration; Bioavailability

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