

# EFFECTS OF DIFFERENT SOURCES AND PROPORTIONS OF BIOCHAR ON SOIL CARBON SEQUESTRATION RATES AND YIELD OF MAIZE (Zea mays L.)

BY

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# OBAFEMI AWOLOWO UNIVERSITY ILE-IFE, NIGERIA

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## **CERTIFICATION**

This is to certify that this research study was carried out by ABIOLA OMOLEWA ILESANMI as part of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) degree in Ecology and Environmental Science of the Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile–Ife, Nigeria.

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## **DEDICATION**

To God Almighty who brought me thus far



#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page	i
Authorization to Copy	ii
Certification	iii
Dedication	iv
Acknowledgements	v
Table of Contents	vii
List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiii
List of Plates	xiv
List of Appendices	XV
List of Abbreviations	xvi
Abstract	xvii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Justification of the Study	5
1.3 Aims and Objectives of the Study	5
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 Climate Change: Causes and Effects	8
2.1.1 Causes	8
2.1.2 Effects	9
2.2 Climate Change Mitigation Strategies	12
2.3 The Global Carbon Cycle	13
2.4 Importance of Soil Organic Carbon	15
2.4.1 Factors Affecting Soil Organic Carbon Level	16



	2.4.2	Relationship between SOC and Nitrogen	17
2.5	Carbo	n Sequestration	19
	2.5.1	Various Forms of Carbon Sequestration	20
		2.5.1.1 Abiotic Sequestration	20
		2.5.1.1.1 Oceanic Injection	20
		2.5.1.1.2 Geological Injection	20
		2.5.1.1.3 Scrubbing and Mineral Carbonation	21
		2.5.1.2 Biotic Sequestration	22
		2.5.1.2.1 Oceanic Sequestration	22
		2.5.1.2.2 Terrestial Sequestration	23
2.6	Soil (	Organic Carbon Sequestration	25
2.7	Defin	nition of Biochar	28
	2.7.1	History of Biochar	29
2.8	Produ	action of Biochar through Pyrolysis	30
	2.8.1	Types of Pyrolysis Technologies	32
	2.8.2	Feedstock for Producing Biochar	34
2.9	Prope	erties of Biochar	35
2.10	Biocl	nar as a Soil Amendment	37
2.11	Bioch	nar and Soil Physico-chemical Properties	40
	2.11.1	Biochar and Soil pH	41
	2.11.2	Biochar and Cation Exchange Capacity	42
	2.11.3	Biochar and Soil Nutrient Availability	42
2.12	Bioch	ar and Nutrient Leaching	43
2.13	Bioch	ar and Microbial Activity	43
2.14	Bioch	ar for Adsorption of Contaminants	45



2.15	Bioch	ar as a Component of Compost	46
2.16	Bioch	ar's Climate-mitigation Potential	47
	2.16.1	Biochar for Soil Carbon Sequestration	47
	2.16.2	Biochar and Other Greenhouse Gases	48
2.17	Maize	e Plant	49
	2.17.1	Production of Maize	50
	2.17.2	Economic Importance of Maize	51
		2.17.2.1 Preparation and Use as Food	52
		2.17.2.2 Medicinal Uses of Maize and Its Components	53
		2.17.2.3 Industrial Uses of Maize	55
	2.17.3	Development of High Quality Protein Maize	55
СНА	PTER T	THREE: MATERIALS AND METHODS	
3.1	Produc	ction of Biochar	57
3.2	Screen	house Experiment	59
3.3	Field I	Experiment	60
	3.3.1	Experimental Layout at the Study Site	60
	3.3.2	Data Collection	62
		3.3.2.1 Agro-meteorological Data of the Study Area	62
	3.3.3	Calculation of Carbon Sequestration	63
3.4	Soil Sa	ampling and Processing	65
3.5	Labora	atory Analyses	65
	3.5.1	Soil Analysis	65
		3. 5.1.1 Determination of pH	65
		3. 5.1.2 Determination of Particle Size Distribution	65
		3. 5.1.3 Determination of Organic Carbon Content	67



	3. 5.1.4 Determination of Total Nitrogen	6/
	3. 5.1.5 Determination of Available Phosphorus	68
	3. 5.1.6 Determination of Exchangeable Cations	69
	3. 5.1.7 Determination of Exchangeable Acidity	69
	3.5.1.8 Determination of Bulk Density	70
3.5.2	Biochar Analysis	70
3.5.3	Proximate Analysis	70
	3. 5.3.1 Determination of Moisture Content and Dry Matter	71
	3.5.3.2 Determination of Ash	71
	3. 5.3.3 Determination of Crude Protein Content	71
	3.5.3.4 Determination of Ether Extract Content	72
	3.5.3.5 Determination of Crude Fibre Content	72
	3.5.3.6 Determination of Total Carbohydrate Content	73
	3.5.3.7 Determination of Vitamin C	74
	3.5.3.8 Determination of Reducing Sugar	<b>7</b> 4
Statist	cical Analysis	74
PTER I	FOUR: RESULTS	
Physic	cal and Chemical Properties of the Soil Used in the Study	75
Produ	ction and Yield of Biochar	75
Physic	cal and Chemical Properties of the Biochars Used in the Study	80
Growt	th Performance of Zea mays L. as Affected by Different Sources	
and Pi	roportions of Biochar under Screenhouse Conditions	82
4.4.1	Plant Height	82
4.4.2	Stem Girth	82
4.4.3	Number of Leaves	83
	Statist PTER I Physic Produ Physic Growt and Pr 4.4.1 4.4.2	3. 5.1.5 Determination of Available Phosphorus 3. 5.1.6 Determination of Exchangeable Cations 3. 5.1.7 Determination of Exchangeable Acidity 3.5.1.8 Determination of Bulk Density 3.5.2 Biochar Analysis 3. 5.3.1 Determination of Moisture Content and Dry Matter 3.5.3.2 Determination of Moisture Content and Dry Matter 3.5.3.4 Determination of Crude Protein Content 3.5.3.5 Determination of Crude Fibre Content 3.5.3.6 Determination of Crude Fibre Content 3.5.3.7 Determination of Total Carbohydrate Content 3.5.3.8 Determination of Vitamin C 3.5.3.8 Determination of Reducing Sugar Statistical Analysis  PTER FOUR: RESULTS  Physical and Chemical Properties of the Soil Used in the Study Production and Yield of Biochar  Physical and Chemical Properties of the Biochars Used in the Study Growth Performance of Zea mays L. as Affected by Different Sources and Proportions of Biochar under Screenhouse Conditions 4.4.1 Plant Height 4.4.2 Stem Girth



4.5	Effect of Biochar on Tasseling and Silking of Maize under Screenhouse Conditions	83
4.6	Effect of Biochar on Grain Yield of Z. mays under Screenhouse Conditions	90
4.7	Nutritional Quality of Grains of Z. mays Harvested in the Screenhouse	90
4.8	Physical and Chemical Propererties of Soil after Harvest in the Screenhouse	93
4.9	Growth Performance of <i>Z. mays</i> as Affected by Different Sources and Proportions of Biochar in the field	97
	4.9.1 Plant Height	97
	4.9.2 Stem Girth	97
	4.9.3 Number of Leaves	102
4.10	Grain Yield of Z. mays in the Dry and Wet Seasons	102
4.11	Nutritional Quality of Grains of Z. mays in the Dry and Wet Seasons	102
4.12	Soil Physical and Chemical Properties after Harvest at the End of the Dry and Wet Seasons	105
4.13	Effect of Biochar on Soil Carbon and Nitrogen Levels at Different Depths in the Field	109
4.14	Effect of Biochar on Soil Organic Carbon Sequestration Rate	109
CHA	PTER FIVE: DISCUSSION	113
CHA	PTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
6.1	Conclusions	134
6.2	Recommendations	135
REFE	ERENCES	136
APPF	ENDICES	192



# LIST OF TABLES

Table	Description	Page
4.1	Physico-chemical Properties of Soil Used in the Screenhouse Study	76
4.2	Physico-chemical Properties of Experimental Site before Planting	77
4.3	Yield of Biochar Produced from Different Sources	78
4.4	Physico-chemical Properties of the Biochars Used in the Study	81
4.5	Grain Yield of Maize at First Harvest under Screenhouse Conditions	91
4.6	Grain Yield of Maize at Second Harvest under Screenhouse Conditions	92
4.7a	The Effects of Biochar Application on Nutritional Quality of Maize Grains under Screenhouse Conditions	94
4.7b	The Effects of Biochar Applications on Nutritional Quality of Maize Grains under Screenhouse Conditions	95
4.8a	Physical and Chemical Properties of Soil after Harvest of Maize in the Screenhouse	98
4.8b	Physical and Chemical Properties of Soil after Harvest of Maize in the Screenhouse	99
4.9	Yields of Maize Grains at the End of the Dry and Wet Seasons	104
4.10	Nutritional Quality of <i>Z. mays</i> Grains Harvested at the End of the Dry and Wet Seasons	106
4.11	Physical and Chemical Properties of Soil after Harvest of Maize at the End of the Dry and Wet Seasons	108
4.12	Correlations between Some Soil Properties and Depth	110
4.13	Effect of Biochar on Soil Carbon Sequestration Rate	112



# LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Description	Page
2.1	Global Anthropogenic GHG Emissions	10
3.1	Map of the Study Area	61
3.2	Monthly Weather Parameters of the Study Area in 2014 and 2015	64
4.1	Mean Plant Heights of <i>Z. mays</i> During First Planting under Screenhouse Conditions	84
4.2	Mean Stem Girths of <i>Z. mays</i> During First Planting under Screenhouse Conditions	85
4.3	Mean Number of Leaves of <i>Z. mays</i> During First Planting under Screenhouse Conditions.	86
4.4	Mean Plant Heights of <i>Z. mays</i> During Second Planting under Screenhouse Conditions.	87
4.5	Mean Stem Girths of <i>Z. mays</i> During Second Planting under Screenhouse Conditions.	88
4.6	Mean Number of Leaves of <i>Z. mays</i> During Second Planting under Screenhouse Conditions.	89
4.7	Mean Plant Heights of Z. mays During the Dry and Wet Seasons	100
4.8	Mean Stem Girths of Z. mays During the Dry and Wet Seasons	101
4.9	Mean Number of Leaves of Z. mays During the Dry and Wet Seasons	103
4.10	Soil Carbon and Nitrogen Levels at Different Depths under Biochar Applications in the Field	111



## LIST OF PLATES

Plate	Description	Page
3.1	Charcoal-fired Reactor for Producing Biochar	58
4.1	Biochar Produced from Cocoa Pod Husks, Maize Cobs and Maize Stovers	79



## LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix	Description	Page
1	Quantity of Biochar Applied (g) in the Screenhouse and in the Field	192
2	Experimental Layout at the Screenhouse	193
3	Field Experimental Layout	194
4	ANOVA Table for Yield for First Planting under Screenhouse Conditions	195
5	ANOVA Table for Yield for Second Planting under Screenhouse Conditions	196
6	ANOVA Table for Yield for Dry and Wet Seasons Maize Cropping	197



## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

°C Degree centigrade

cm centimeter

et al. et alia

ppmv parts per million by volume

Ha<sup>-1</sup> per hectare

Km Kilometer

% Percentage

Pg Petagrams of Carbon (10<sup>15</sup> g

Tg Teragram (10<sup>12</sup> g)

m<sup>2</sup> Meter square

mm Millimeter

> Greater than

< Less than



#### **ABSTRACT**

This study investigated the chemical properties of the biochars produced from different plant wastes and assessed the effects of their applications as soil amendments on the growth performance, yield as well as the nutritional quality of maize. It also assessed their effects on the soil carbon and nitrogen dynamics and the rate of soil carbon sequestration. This was with a view to determining the residual effects of the treatments and identifying optimal strategy for enhancing carbon sequestration in soils.

The study was carried out in two phases; at the screenhouse of the Faculty of Agriculture and on the Teaching and Research Farm of the Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria. Biochars produced from cocoa pod husk (CPH), maize stovers (MAS) and maize cobs (MAC) were characterized using standard methods. Surface soil samples were collected from an exhaustively cropped land; air-dried and sieved through a 2 mm mesh. Ten kilograms of the sieved soil was filled into each plastic pot perforated at the bottom to enhance soil aeration. The screenhouse experiment consisted of six different treatments [CPH, MAS and MAC applied singly and in equal combination (CPH<sub>50</sub>MAS<sub>50</sub>, CPH<sub>50</sub>MAC<sub>50</sub> and MAS<sub>50</sub>MAC<sub>50</sub>)]. All the treatments were applied at different rates (0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25 tonnes/ha) and each replicated thrice in a completely randomized design to give a total of 108 pots. The biochars were thoroughly incorporated in the soil, watered and incubated for seven days. Maize seeds (ART/98/SW6) earlier purchased from Institute of Agricultural Research and Training, Ibadan, were sown at four seeds per pot and thinned to two stands at two weeks after sowing. Screenhouse experiments were conducted twice, but treatments were applied once. The field experiment was laid out in a randomized complete block design with twelve plots, each measuring 3.0 m x 2.5 m with an alley of 1.0 m between and within plots. The treatments



included MAS and MAC applied at 10 t/ha and no biochar serving as control, each with four replications. Maize was sown at three seeds per hole using 75 cm x 50 cm planting distance and thinned to two stands per hole two weeks after sowing. Field experiments were conducted in the dry and wet seasons. Data on growth parameters, grain yield and proximate compositions of the grains were determined. Pre-and post-cropping soil tests of the screenhouse and field were carried out using standard methods. Data obtained were subjected to two-way ANOVA and descriptive statistics.

The pre-cropping soil pH in 1:1 soil-water suspension was 7.94 and 5.89 for the screenhouse and field experiments respectively. The soil texture was sandy loam. Biochars' pH ranged from 10.77 to 11.98. The C/N ratios of the biochars were: 58.93, 44.35 and 42.23 for CPH, MAC and MAS respectively. At the screenhouse, the highest mean plant height of  $160.2 \pm$ 12.97 cm was obtained when soils were amended with MAS biochar at 25 t ha<sup>-1</sup>. Similar results were obtained with the stem girth and number of leaves. Significantly  $(F_{70, 107} = 1.88; p > 0.05)$ highest grain yield of 4.27 t ha<sup>-1</sup> for MAS at 15 t ha<sup>-1</sup> was obtained in the first cultivation. The repeat experiment at the screenhouse gave comparable but lower values. In the field, MAS biochar at 10 t ha<sup>-1</sup> had superior positive effect on the growth components of maize when the three treatments were compared. The highest mean yield of 1.50 t ha<sup>-1</sup> (dry season) and 1.51 t ha<sup>-1</sup> wet season) obtained with MAS biochar was not significantly ( $F_{4, 8} = 0.994$ ; p > 0.05) higher than 1.45 t ha<sup>-1</sup> for dry season, but significantly ( $F_{4,8} = 32.87$ ; p < 0.05) higher than 1.11 t ha<sup>-1</sup> for wet season. Maize grains from the control plots had the highest crude protein (9.72%) and ash contents (3.84%) in the dry season. Comparable, but lower values were obtained in the wet season. The MAS biochar had higher potential for carbon sequestration with 12.45 t C ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> as about 79% of the initial organic carbon remained in the soil after the two consecutive maize cropping.



This study concluded that biochar application enhanced the yield, but not the quality of maize. The high residual organic carbon content indicated that biochars could be potential feedstocks for carbon sequestration.



### **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

## 1.1 Background to the Study

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) reported that rising temperatures, drought, floods, desertification and weather extremes will severely affect agricultural production, especially in developing countries (IPCC, 2007a). According to the Panel, the carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) concentration near the ground level has risen from 280 mmol mol<sup>-1</sup> in the pre-industrial times to the present 390 mmol mol<sup>-1</sup>. At the present rate of emission, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is projected to be in the range of 500–1000 mmol mol<sup>-1</sup> by the end of this century, which will potentially increase global temperature by 1.8–5.8°C (IPCC, 2007a). Every year, the world-wide CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from energy needs increases, and by the year 2020, the world will produce 33.8 billion metric tons up from 29.7 billion metric tons in 2007 (US Department of Energy, USDE, 2010). With a large emission of CO<sub>2</sub>, there is an increase in the threat to the natural environment and its inhabitants. Scientists and scholars have predicted impacts on health, agriculture and food supply, ecosystems, coastal zones, water resources, energy production and usage, land usage, deforestation, in addition to extreme or rapid changes in the climate (Environmental Protection Agency, EPA, 2010). Increased levels of greenhouse gases, particularly CO2 have been associated with the burning of fossil fuels, deforestation, cultivation of grasslands and land use changes. According to Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, OECD (2000), agricultural activity contributes 1% of the excess CO<sub>2</sub> to global emissions. The emission of greenhouse gases (GHGs), especially methane (CH<sub>4</sub>)



and CO<sub>2</sub> results in loss of stored carbon (C) in soil and thus affects the process of soil C sequestration.

Soils worldwide contain around twice as much C (1500 Gt) as the atmosphere (760 Gt), and three times the amount found in vegetation (560 Gt), and hence constitute an enormous C reservoir (Batjes, 1996; Lal, 2004a). The recent attention to global warming has motivated the scientific community to search for efficient soil management and cropping systems to convert CO<sub>2</sub> from the air into soil organic carbon (SOC) (Lal, 2007a). Concerns about long-term shifts in climate patterns have also led scientists to measure SOC in agricultural landscapes and to develop methods to evaluate how changes in practices affect the sequestration of atmospheric C. Agricultural practices can render a soil either a sink or a source of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, with direct influence on the greenhouse effect (Lugo and Brown, 1993; Lal et al., 1995). Some authors have suggested that the most important factors to increase CO<sub>2</sub> mitigation and the SOC stock are the amount and quality of the crop residues added, whatever the climate effect on the decomposition rates and whatever the characteristics of soil mineralogy and soil type (Paustian et al., 1997; Sá et al., 2001; Six et al. 2002 b; Kong, et al., 2005; Bayer et al., 2006; Tristram and Six, 2007). While poor agricultural management can have serious consequences by dramatically speeding up the release of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from soil, other practices can increase the soil C stock considerably, and thereby mitigate climate change (Schils et al., 2008).

One interesting abatement strategy is to sequester C in soil by means of charred biomass (biochar) (Lehmann *et al.*, 2006; Laird, 2008). Biochar is material produced via pyrolysis of biomass feedstocks. It is a mixture of char and ash, but it is mainly (70 - 95%) C (Luostarinen *et al.*, 2010). Soils throughout the world contain biochar deposited through natural events, such as forest and grassland fires (Skjemstad *et al.*, 2002; Krull *et al.*, 2008). Historical use of biochar



dates back to at least 2000 years (O'Neill *et al.*, 2009) when certain dark earths in the Amazon basin ("*terra preta do indio*") were found to contain large amounts of biochar (Sombroek *et al.*, 2003, Lehman *et al.*, 2006). These soils were found to be exceptionally fertile, in comparison to soils in the region that do not contain biochar (Lehmann *et al.*, 2003a). According to Glaser (2007), copying the ancient technique of *terra preta de Indio* formation is a potential tool for both mitigating climate change and sustainably increasing agricultural productivity. Modern analogues of this Amazonian phenomenon, where aboriginal cultures boosted soil productivity of highly-weathered tropical soils mainly through the incorporation of biochar and nutrients into the soil, are referred to as biochar management systems (Lehmann *et al.*, 2003a; Özçimen and Karaosmanog "lu, 2004; Glaser, 2007; Novotny *et al.*, 2009).

Calculations have shown that putting biochar back into the soil can reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 12-84 percent of current values; a positive form of sequestration that offers the chance to turn bioenergy into a C negative industry (Lehmann, 2007a). Studies in both tropical and temperate climates have demonstrated biochar's ability to increase plant growth, reduce leaching of nutrients, increase water retention, and increase microbial activity. Various researchers have reported the positive effects of biochar on plant growth. Increases in yields with biochar application had been reported for crops such as cowpea (Yamato *et al.*, 2006), soybean (Tagoe *et al.*, 2008), maize (Yamato *et al.*, 2006; Rodríguez *et al.*, 2009), upland rice (Asai *et al.*, 2009), paddy rice (Shackley *et al.*, 2012; Sokchea *et al.*, 2012) and water spinach (Sisomphone *et al.*, 2012a; 2012b; 2012c). Lehmann (2007a) stressed that due to application of biochar, plant nutrients were retained in the soil and remained available to the plant thereby increased crop yields. Studies have also shown that the characteristics of biochar most important to plant growth can improve over time after its incorporation into soil (Cheng *et al.*, 2006, 2008b; Major *et al.*, 2010). The products produced from pyrolysis include bio-oil, a gaseous material referred to as syngas and a C-rich charcoal material known

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