

## Bone Biochar as a Renewable and Efficient P Fertilizer: A Comparative Study

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### ABSTRACT

A laboratory study was conducted to investigate phosphate solubility from bone biochar (BB) produced by pyrolysis at 650°C in comparison with its solubility from phosphate rock (PR). The PR and BB were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and total elemental analysis. Phosphorous was detected in distilled water and dilute sulfuric acid leachates resulted from columns filled by BB or PR for 30 days. Fractions of water soluble-P (WSP), Olsen formic acid-P (FAP) and citric acid-P (CAP) extracted from BB and PR were determined before and after leaching. Results showed that all P fractions extracted from raw BB were higher than those from PR and the concentrations had the order: FAP > CAP > OP > WSP from both sources. Leaching experiments showed that dissolution by water or sulfuric acid from BB was greater than from PR. The released amounts of P from BB by water and water represented 50.0% and 0.85% of total P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, respectively, while those released from PR represented 2.0% and 0.017% of total P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, respectively. These Results reflected the majority of pH influence on dissolution process. The amounts of P extracted by CA and FA from BB were higher than those extracted from PR after acid leaching. Olsen-P fraction increased after acid leaching of PR which reflects improvement bioavailability of P after PR acidification. The obtained results may give BB advance over PR as a fast to medium release sustainable source for P fertilizers.

**Key words:** Bone biochar, phosphate rock, phosphorus solubility, P availability, P-fertilizers.

### INTRODUCTION

Phosphorus is considered as one of the major essential nutrients for higher plants and must be applied to soils frequently. Inorganic phosphate is considered as one of the intensive energy consumption industry and depends on the availability of phosphate rock (PR) which currently becomes scarce and depleted in some regions in the world (IFDC, 2010 and USGS, 2010). Besides, intensive application rates of P fertilizers lead to accumulate some heavy metals such as cadmium (Cd) and chromium (Cr) in agricultural soils and may cause some risks in food chain and ground water. For its moderate solubility under acidic conditions, earlier studies showed that PR used as a direct P fertilizer in acid soil but it cannot maintain a sufficiently high phosphorus concentration in the soil solution for high yields of crops with a high initial P demand (Khasawneh and Doll, 1978; Chien and Hammond, 1978a and b). In calcareous soils, PR usually inert and cannot supply adequate rates of P. Several attempts were used to enhance the PR-P solubilization efficiency including using the acidifier microbes (Bianco and Defez, 2010; Vassilev et al., 2013; Sharma et al., 2013; Mendes

et al., 2014), organic acids such as oxalic and citric acids, organic manure, elemental sulfur (S) (Cordell, 2011) or plants (Flach et al., 1987; Hinsinger and Hinsinger et al., 2003; Rengel and Ma, 2005), but it still less efficient than conventional inorganic chemical P fertilizers.

Looking for unusual alternatives of P, farmers are looking for P as fertilizer to various kinds of soils, but it is not always necessary. The recovery of P from wastewater is considered one of the recent technologies that can compensate the depleted P resources. P recovery from wastewater has received much attention (Qiu and Teng, 2014). Phosphorus-containing waste streams can range from municipal wastewater, to separate organic waste from wastewater, including human urine and faeces, grey water, animal manure, animal carcasses, detritus, industrial and food wastes and crop residues. Animal manure (and other animal parts such as bones and blood) is widely used as a soil phosphorus fertilizer in many regions of the world (Cordell et al., 2011).

In last decade, bone biochar had some applications as a soil amendment for immobilizing heavy metals (Siebers and Leinweber, 2013; Siebers et al., 2014) and as efficient sort

removing contaminants from wastewater (Passman et al., 2014). Bone biochar contains considerable percentage of P and Ca to qualify it as a renewable source of P and can fill the phosphorus fertilizer gap in developing countries (Simons et al., 2014). There are few studies, which covered its solubility and the conditions required to enhance its efficiency as P fertilizer (Warren et al., 2009; Ma and Matsunaka, 2013; Weber et al., 2014). Therefore, the objective of this work was focused on the comparison of P release from BB and PR when these materials are subjected to dissolution by water or acidified water. The comparison between the different fractions representing available P in BB and PR was also studied.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cattle bone was collected from local market at Alexandria city, rinsed several times by tap and distilled water and oven dried at 105°C for 24 hours. The well dried bone was crushed into pieces of 3.0 - 5.0 cm and prepared for pyrolysis. Known weight of oven-dried bone was sealed by aluminum foil and inserted into muffle furnace (modified to facilitate nitrogen gas to fill the heating room during the pyrolysis). The bone samples were heated at temperature increments of 25 °C/min till reaching to 650 °C. The residence time at this degree was 2 hours. The resulted fumes and gases were ventilated from the upper hole of the muffle furnace. After cooling, the weights of bone biochar (BB) samples were measured and the loss in weight was recorded. The BB was crushed in porcelain mill, passed through 0.5-mm polypropylene sieve and stored in plastic bottles.

Sample of phosphate rock (PR) was purchased from El-Nasr Mining Company, Aswan, Egypt. PR was crushed by hand in porcelain mill, passed through 0.5-mm polypropylene sieve and stored in plastic bottles.

#### X-ray diffraction of PR and BB

The technique of x-ray diffraction (XRD) has been used to characterize the crystalline structure of mined rock phosphate (Bilali et al., 2005; Lefires et al. 2014) and mineralized bone tissues (Germine and Parsons, 1988; Bigi et al., 1997; Meneghini et al. 2003). The PR and BB used for XRD analysis were thoroughly ground and passed through 90-micron sieve. X-ray diffraction data were measured using Philips Diffractometer using the CuK $\alpha$  radiation produced at 32 kV and 20 mA by a Philips PW 1830/40 X-ray tube.

#### Elemental Analysis of BB and PR

Total elemental analysis of BB and PR was carried out by fusion method (Pansu and Gautheyrou, 2003), where 1.0 g sample was transferred into platinum crucibles and mixed thoroughly with 5.0 g sodium carbonate. The samples were heated gradually on a direct flame of

Bunsen Burner with gently mixing of the contents. The heating was continued until the formation of a homogeneous cake. After cooling, the contents were dissolved with about 30.0 mL HNO<sub>3</sub> and transferred to 250 mL Pyrex beaker and boiled until complete dissolution. The clear solution was transferred to 250 mL Pyrex volumetric flask and volume completed with distilled water. The phosphorus in the solutions of BB and PR was determined spectrometry using vanadomolybdate yellow method (Chapmann and Pratt, 1964). Concentrations of Ca and heavy metals (Cd, Cu, Fe, Mn and Cr) were measured by Inductively Coupled Plasma ICP-OES Spectrometer (ICAP 6000 Series, UK).

#### Phosphate Fractions in BB and PR

**Water soluble P (WS-P):** One gram of BB or PR was transferred into 250-mL conical flask and 200 mL distilled water was added and the flask shaken on a horizontal shaker (G24 Environmental Incubator Shaker, New Brunswick Scientific USA) for one hour. The suspension was filtered using filter paper Whatman No. 42. The concentration of P was determined in the supernatant. Phosphorus was determined by the ascorbic acid-molybdate blue method (Murphy and Riely at wavelength 882 nm using UV/VIS double beam JENWAY spectrophotometer model 6850).

**Olsen P fraction:** According to Murphy, J. J.P., 1962, 2.0g sample of BB or PR was extracted for 30 minutes with 40.0 mL 0.5 mol L<sup>-1</sup> bicarbonate (NaHCO<sub>3</sub>) solution adjusted to pH 8.5 with 0.01 mol L<sup>-1</sup> NaOH or 0.01 mol L<sup>-1</sup> HCl solutions using pH-meter (WTW inLab pH/100 Germany). Suspensions were filtered through Whatmann No. 42 filter paper and measured colorimetrically (Watanabe and 1965) in supernatants.

**Formic acid-P fraction (FA-P):** A 0.4g sample of BB or PR was extracted with 40 mL 2% formic acid at 23 °C for 1 hour (Hoffman and Mager 1955). Samples were then centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 5 min, filtered (0.45µm Millipore filter), and the concentration of P in the solution was determined by the vanado-molybdate yellow method at wavelength 445 nm (Chapmann and Pratt (1959)).

**Citric acid-P fraction (CA-P):** A 0.4g sample of BB or PR was extracted with 40 mL 2% citric acid at 23 °C for 1 hour. The samples were centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 5 min, filtered (0.45µm Millipore filter), and the residue extracted again with 40 mL of 2% fresh citric acid. The concentration of P in the solution was determined in individual filtrates, followed by dilution, by the vanado-molybdate yellow method at wavelength 445 nm (Chapmann and Pratt (1959)).

#### Column Leaching Experiment

One hundred grams of BB or PR was packed in a Pyrex glass column (2.0-cm in diameter and

cm in height). Glass wool was used to fill the bottom and end of the 2 cm distance columns to maintain and facilitate a continuous flow of leaching solutions. The column was initially flushed with distilled water for 2 h and the volume of flushed water was added to the first-day sample. The column was splitted into two divisions; one was leached by distilled water and the other was leached by 0.01M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. A peristaltic pump (ISMATEC ISM 931, Switzerland) was used at the influent (bottom) of the column to maintain a constant upward flow rate in the column (0.25 mL min<sup>-1</sup>). Leachates were collected and analyzed daily for pH and P for 30 days. The pH was measured using pH meter WTW inLab pH/Ion 735, Germany. After leaching experiment, the column was evacuated and its contents from BB or PR were oven-dried at 105 °C for 24 hours. Then, the oven-dried BB and PR were crushed and sieved using 0.5-cm polypropylene sieve. The various fractions WSP, OP, FAP and CAP, were determined in BB and PR similarly as mentioned above. Concentration of phosphorus was measured colorimetric using blue method (Murphy and Riley, 1962) or yellow method (Chapmann and Pratt, 1961) depending on the concentration ranges of P as mentioned above.

The data obtained were statistically analyzed by the program of Costat software (Costat, 1985).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.

### X-ray diffraction of PR and BB

Figure 1 displays the XRD patterns of the PR and BB samples. The Two diffraction patterns display evident similarities and point out the analogy between the structures of PR-apatite and BB-apatite mineral. On the other hand, the obtained diffractograms of PR and BB were similar to those

found for Gafsa (Lefires et al., 2014) and M (Bilali et al., 2005) phosphate rocks.

### Elemental analysis and Fractions of P in BB and PR

The elemental analysis of BB and PR, that total content of P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (36.068 and 33.2 respectively) and CaO (38.08 and 33.2 respectively) for both materials virtually (Table 1). Gafsa rock phosphate contains 28.6% P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (Warren et al., 2009) while M contains 31.51% P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and 50.19% CaO (Bilali et al., 2005).

Concentration of heavy metals occurred in BB and PR revealed that chromium (Cr) in PR (9.5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) exceeds about 14 times more than that in BB (6.5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>). Knox et al. (2006) reported close results for total Cr content in mined (11.5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and processed (101.4 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) PR : collected from various regions of USA which found only 4.6 mg Cr kg<sup>-1</sup> in ground fish. Copper was not detected in BB while occurred in PR (7.75 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>). The current concentration of heavy metals (Cd, Cr, Pb, Cu, Fe, Mn and Ni) in BB and PR are relatively close to those mentioned for East-PR and published by Mortvedt and Mortvedt (1995).

Total carbonate contents in PR and BB are 10.45 and 6.21%, respectively. These values support the idea that calcium phosphate in both is possibly occurred in the form of carbonate apatite as a main component. Calcination of P at temperatures higher than 600 °C helps in reducing its carbonate content by decomposition of carbonate and formation of CaO (Bilali et al., 2005). These results may speculate the low content of carbonate and high content of CaO in BB and PR those recorded in PR.

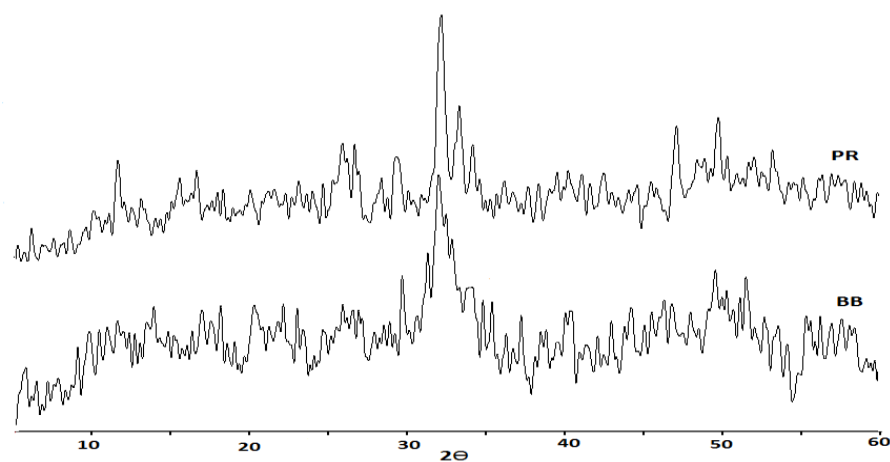


Figure1: XRD patterns of phosphate rock (PR) compared to bone biochar (BB).

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**Table 1: Elemental analysis and P fractions of bone biochar (BB) and phosphate rock (PR).**

Measured parameters	BB	PR
<b>Total content</b>		
P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> (%)	36.068	33.205
CaO (%)	38.080	35.240
Ca/P ratio	1.727	1.736
C (%)	5.860	0.280
N (%)	1.950	0.180
Total carbonate, %	6.210	10.450
<b>Heavy metals (mg kg<sup>-1</sup>)</b>		
Cd	2.500	7.200
Cr	6.500	91.000
Pb	nd*	nd
Cu	nd	7.750
Fe	17.000	12.500
Mn	8.000	13.000
Ni	nd	nd
<b>P fractions (mg g<sup>-1</sup>)</b>		
WS- P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.435	0.050
Olsen- P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	3.435	0.122
FA- P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	312.951	170.376
CA- P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	139.301	105.340
<b>P fractions as % of total P</b>		
WS- P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.120	0.015
Olsen- P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.952	0.037
FA- P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	86.767	51.310
CA- P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	38.622	31.724

\* nd: not detected

**Fractions of P in BB and PR**

The concentrations of the tested P fractions in BB and PR indicate that released P from BB was higher than that from PR (Table 1) for all extractable forms. For example; 435.0 and 3435 mg P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup> of WS- and Olsen-P were released from BB compared with 50.0 and 122.0 mg P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup> from PR, respectively (Table 1). Olsen-P fraction released from BB represented 28.16 times of that obtained from PR (Table 1) and this reflects higher availability of P for plants from BB compared with PR. It is obvious that Olsen-P fraction represent the immediately available soil-P to plants grown in a wide spectrum of soil types particularly basic and calcareous soils, therefore, the high amount of Olsen-P in BB promotes its usage as P fertilizer as a sustainable manner. Warren et al. (2009) found close results of water extractable and Olsen-P in a comparative study on P dissolution from animal bone biochar and Gafsa (Tunisia) phosphate rock. On the other hand, Formic acid-extractable P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (FA-P) represented 86.8 and 51.3% of the total P content in BB and PR, respectively, whereas the corresponded values resulted from the extracts of 2% citric acid (CA-P) were 38.6 and 31.7% (Table 1). In a study carried out by Rajan et al. (1992) on the dissolution of P from 11 samples of PR collected from different regions of the world, showed that

fractions of 2% FA-P and 2% CA-P ranged 1 to 71% and from 21 to 46% of total P, respectively. Since the formic acid and citric acid extract mainly used for estimation of available fertilizer products (Syers et al. 1986; Braith et al., 1989), the current results of extracted mentioned acids from BB and PR confirm the availability from BB from PR.

**Leaching Experiment**

Since pH is the most important soil factor for dissolution (Peaslee et al., 1962; Khasawneh et al., 1978) and sulfuric acid is the most effective in orthophosphoric acid and superphosphate industry (Schrödter et al., 2011), we simulated the solubilization through the leaching by sulfuric acid (0.01 mol L<sup>-1</sup>) in comparison with distilled water at a constant flow rate to evaluate and compare the release of soluble P from BB and PR. The results of cumulative P dissolution from BB and PR showed great releasing of P from BB than from PR (Fig. 2) throughout the leaching. Within the first 5 days of cumulative dissolution by water, there was a sharp increase in P released from BB (from 0.856 to 2.418 mg l<sup>-1</sup> BB). Then the dissolution rate declined (2.3053 mg P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> BB) whereas the corresponding dissolution from PR was not significant after 30 days of leaching (from 0.005 to 0.055 mg

<sup>1</sup> PR). The ratio of BB: PR of water soluble P was very high (from 55 to 187). Thus, it reflected a great efficiency of BB as a source of easier available P. It was found that the ratio of water-soluble Bone char:Gafsa PR was 5.8 (Warren et al., 2009). These differences may be related to pyrolysis conditions (temperature and residence time). Leaching of BB and PR by dilute acid showed high dissolution rates than those observed by water (Fig. 2). However, the

behavior of P dissolution by acid differed between BB and PR. In BB, a slight augmentation of dissolution was observed within the first five days then increased and became nearly linear until the end of experiment (Fig. 2). For PR, the dissolution rate extended to the first 12 days then increased where the linear P dissolution appeared. The amounts of acid-extracted BB-P exceeded those of PR-P by about two folds.

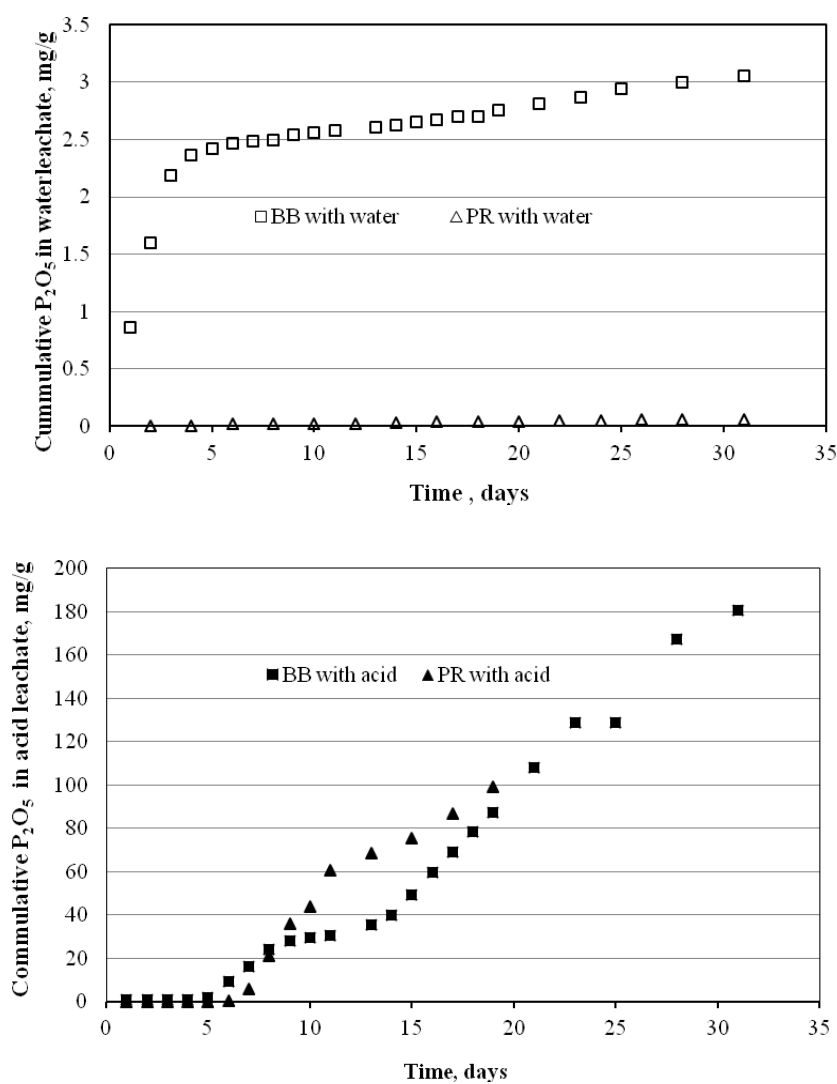


Figure 2: Concentrations of cumulative P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> in column leachates as a function of dissolution by or by dilute acid (0.01M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) from bone biochar (BB) and phosphate rock (PR).

The amounts of P released from BB by dilute acid and water represented 50.0% and 0.85% of total  $P_2O_5$ , respectively, while those released from PR represented 29.79 and 0.017% of total  $P_2O_5$ . These results revealed the importance of acidification or acidified amendments combination with applied BB or PR to assure continuous release of P. Figure (2) pointed out that the ratio of cumulative P by dilute acid to cumulative P by water was to 94 for BB and 1730 for PR.

The released amounts of P by water or acid are related to pH effects of leachates. Figure (3) demonstrates the pH changes of water and acid leachates of BB and PR-filled columns. The pH of water leachate of BB markedly decreased during the first 8 days of leaching (from 9.28 to 7.53) then there was no noticeably changed until the end of experiment. The pH values of corresponding water-PR slightly increased (about 0.6 unit) during the first 16 days (7.5 – 8.1) then did not markedly changed. The correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) values between dissolved P by water and pH were 0.95 ( $n=23$ ) and 0.28 ( $n=15$ ) for BB and PR, respectively. These relationships could reflect the

importance of water-soluble fraction of BB- than of PR-P when both applied as a direct source of P fertilizer. In other words, these results could be explained by the occurrence of phosphorus compounds that are more soluble than those consisting in PR. Bone and bone char are characterized by  $^{31}P$  solid state NMR spectra confirmed occurrence of phosphate compounds beside hydroxyl-apatite such as brushite structure ( $CaHPO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ ) and phosphorite (Wu et al., 2003). Subjecting bone material to pyrolysis decreasing protein phosphoryl content also a probably destruction of protein phosphorus compounds (Novotny et al., 2012). These factors cause an increase in concentration of water-soluble P released from BB.

Variation in BB- and PR-P dissolution by sulfuric acid (Fig. 3) might be partially due to the concentration of proton ( $H^+$ ) required by the material to start in P dissolution, and total carbonate content accompanied each material. The carbonate content was 10.45% in BB and 10.45% in PR respectively, which will play a significant consumer for pro-

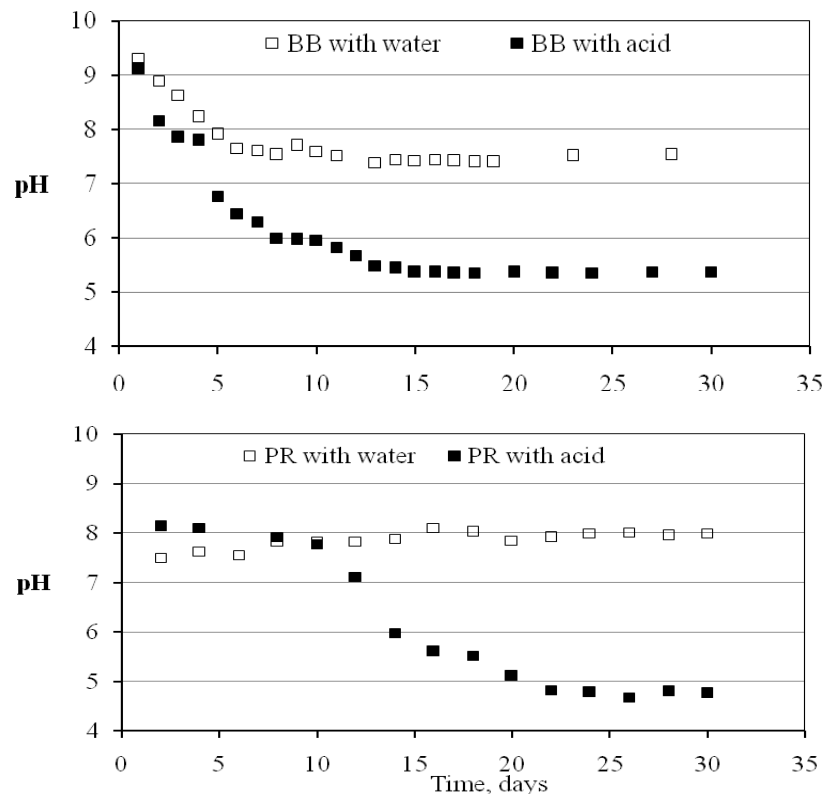


Figure 3: pH values accompanied of P dissolution from bone biochar (BB) and phosphate rock (PR) during a 30-day column leaching experiment.

In the bigening of dissolution reaction, carbonates will initially consume the  $H^+$  ions before the phosphates dissolution, consequently and therefore, PR delayed (12 days) than BB (5 days) in releasing of P. Mowo et al. (2014) explained the variation in P dissolution rate from PR samples collected from various regions according to factors such as calcium carbonate content and availability of enough protons. The kind and structure of phosphate compounds occurred with hydroxy apatite can also a cause of this variation between BB and PR. One of the important factors affecting P solubility of BB is the thermochemical conditions (temperature of pyrolysis and residence time) since Novotny et al. (2012) concluded that swine bones, pyrolyzed under different conditions, can show a great diversity of solubility properties, which is an important characteristic for phosphate fertilizers.

#### Residual P Fractions after leaching

The amounts of residual P fractions after leaching of BB and PR with water or diluted acid were detected in the forms of OP, FAP and CAP (Table 2). It is obvious that the variation in the used extraction solutions (FA, CA and Olsen) is dependent on extraction of certain forms of P associated with available P in phosphate-bearing materials (such as PR and BB). This reflects the agronomic effectiveness of these materials and which is related to some criteria such as soil types (regions) and its physic-chemical properties (Rajan et al., 1992; Wang et al., 2012). The residual amounts of P extracted by FA and CA from PR leached by acid were less than the leached by water and vice versa with respect to BB. The residual amounts of P extracted by CA was significantly higher than those extracted by FA from BB and PR columns that leached by water while it was lower than those extracted by FA only from BB. Residual amounts of Olsen-P extracted from BB were higher than those extracted from PR in both leaching processes (Table 2). A comparison between the amounts of various P fractions (WSP, OP, FAP and CAP) before and after leaching by water or dilute acid, expressed as percent of total  $P_2O_5$  content, are illustrated in Fig. (4). The amounts of WSP and OP fractions represented the mild part in the two tested P materials but it is worthy to consider its residual

amounts extracted from BB during and a leaching processes as significant parts of. Before leaching, P extracted by formic acid represented about 86 and 51% of total P in PR, respectively. After leaching, FAP decreased 8.9 and 18.9% of total P from BB after leaching with water and acid, respectively, while it decreased 11.9 and 8.9% of total P from PR (Fig. 4). Since formic acid extractable P represents the chemical reactive fraction of PR-P it shows values of agronomic effectiveness of PR (Mowo et al., 1984; Rajan et al., 1996). Thus, in the study, it reflects an advantage of BB over PR in slow release P resource. One of the interesting observations is the high values of OP-P extracted from BB (Fig. 4) comparing with those from PR. Before leaching, OP represented 0.95% of total P and declined to 0.52 and after 30 days of leaching by water and acid, respectively. Non-noteworthy amounts of CAP resulted from PR before or after leaching. It was observed that leaching of PR by dilute acid increased the concentration of OP (0.07% of total P) than its concentration before leaching (0.03%). This result revealed that acidification of FAP by acid increased the bioavailability of PR-P.

#### CONCLUSION

The results of XRD for PR and BB showed a good matching between the structures of PR-apatite and BB-apatite minerals. The used bone biochar as a renewable source of P, was characterized by low concentrations in heavy metals such as Cr, Cu than PR and showed a high and fast release of water soluble P along with the 30 days of leaching by water or by diluted acid. The ratio of BB-P released by water reached to 50 whereas it was 1.68 for P released by acid. The acid: water ratio of cumulative released BB-P and PR-P represented 1750, respectively, which indicated the importance of pH as a major factor for P dissolution from its resources. The higher values of various P fractions extracted from BB than those from PR characterize its high reactivity and availability as well as this gives more prospect for using bone biochar (BB) as efficient and sustainable P fertilizer.

**Table 2: Concentration of P fractions from bone biochar (BB) and phosphate rock (PR) after leaching by water or diluted acid.**

P fraction	BB		PR	
	mg $P_2O_5$ g <sup>-1</sup> Raw material			
	Leached by water		Leached by acid	
Water-soluble P (WSP)	0.124	0.007	0.048	0.308
Olsen-P (OP)	1.870	0.089	1.230	0.232
Formic acid-P (FAP)	32.188	39.500	68.500	29.625
Citric acid-P (CAP)	37.500	44.350	47.350	31.125

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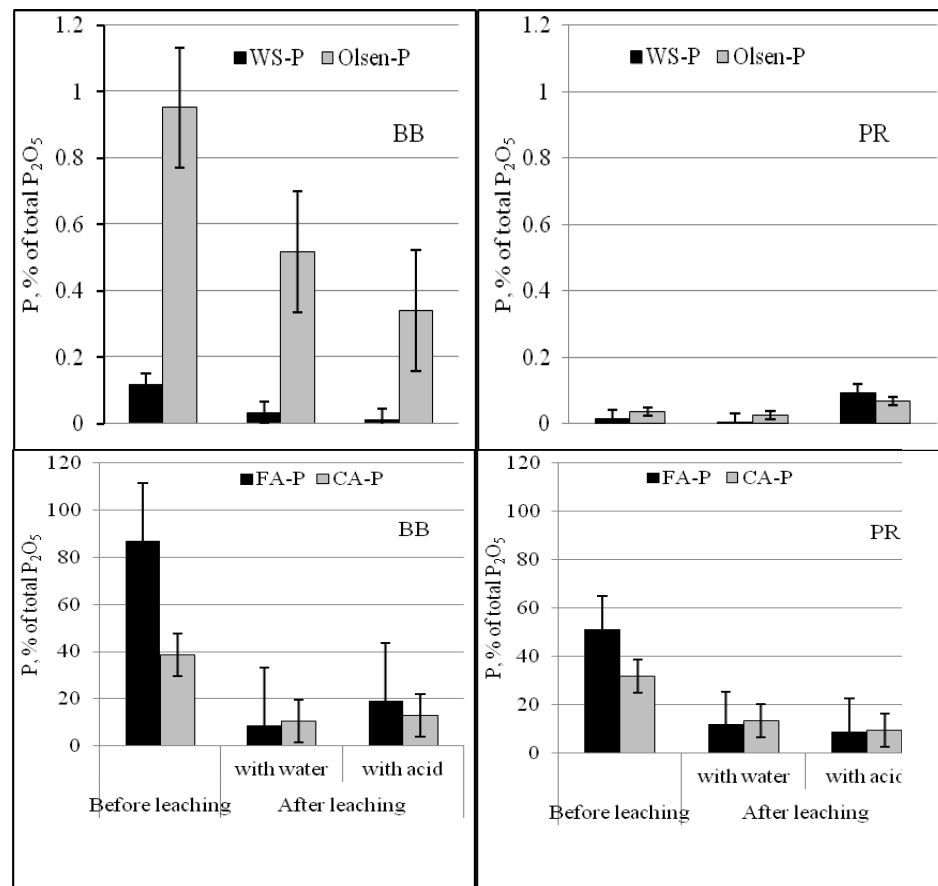


Figure 4: Phosphorus fractions in bone biochar (BB) and phosphate rock (PR) before and after 3 of leaching by water or diluted acid.

#### 1- Yield/ vine:

Data in Table (1) clearly show that spraying clusters of Early sweet grapevines with GA<sub>3</sub> at 10 to 40 ppm or Sitofex at 2.5 to 10 ppm was significantly effective in improving the yield relative to the check treatment. The promotion on the yield was accompanied with increasing concentrations of each plant growth regulator. Using GA<sub>3</sub> at 10 to 40 was significantly preferable than using Sitofex at 2.5 to 10 ppm in improving the yield. A slight and insignificant promotion on the yield was attributed to increasing concentrations of GA<sub>3</sub> from 20 to 40 ppm and Sitofex from 5 to 10 ppm. The maximum yield was produced on the vines that received one spray of GA<sub>3</sub> at 40 ppm but the best treatment from economical point of view was the application of GA<sub>3</sub> at 20 ppm (since no measurable promotion on the yield was recorded between 20 and 40 ppm of GA<sub>3</sub>). Under such promised treatment, yield/ vine reached 13.6 and 14.0 kg during both seasons, respectively. The control vines produced 9.1 and 9.6 kg during 2013 and 2014 seasons, respectively. The

percentage of increase on the yield application of GA<sub>3</sub> at 20 ppm over the treatment reached 49.5 and 45.8 % during seasons, respectively. The beneficial effects on the yield might be attributed to their action on increasing cluster weight. The positive effects of GA<sub>3</sub> on the yield was supported results of Dimovska *et al.*, (2011) and Abu and Salameh (2012) on different grapevine cultivars. The results regarding the beneficial effect of Sitofex on enhancing the yield are in harmony with those obtained by Juan *et al.* (2009); Abdel *et al.*, (2010) and Al-Obeid (2011).

#### 2- Harvesting date:

It is clear from the data in Table (1) that GA<sub>3</sub> and Sitofex treatments had significantly delayed the harvesting date of Early Sweet grapevine than the control treatment. The degree of delay on harvesting date was correlated to the increasing concentrations of both GA<sub>3</sub> and Sitofex. GA<sub>3</sub> significantly delayed harvesting date comparing with using Sitofex. In



concentrations of  $GA_3$  from 20 to 40 ppm and Sitofex from 5 to 10 ppm failed to show significant delay on harvesting date. A considerable advancement on harvesting date was observed on untreated vines the great delay on harvesting date was observed on the vines that received  $GA_3$  at 40 ppm during both seasons.  $GA_3$  and Sitofex were shown by many authors to retard the release of ethylene and the disappearance of pigments such as chlorophylls and carotenoids and onset of maturity start. Also they were responsible for prolonging pre-maturity stages Nickell (1985). These results regarding the delaying effect of  $GA_3$  and Sitofex on harvesting date were in harmony with those obtained by Wassel *et al.*, (2007), Kassem *et al.* (2011), Abu Zahra and Salameh (2012) and Refaat *et al.* (2012).

### **3- Cluster weight and dimensions:**

It is evident from the data in Table (1) that treating clusters with  $GA_3$  at 10 to 40 ppm or Sitofex at 2.5 to 10 ppm was significantly accompanied with enhancing weight, length and width of cluster relative to the control treatment.



The promotion was significantly associated with increasing concentrations of GA<sub>3</sub> and Sitofex. Using GA<sub>3</sub> was significantly favourable than using Sitofex in this respect. The maximum values were recorded on the vines that received one spray of GA<sub>3</sub> at 40 ppm. Meaningless promotion was detected with increasing concentrations of GA<sub>3</sub> from 20 to 40 ppm and Sitofex from 5 to 10 ppm. The untreated vines produced the minimum values during both seasons. The positive action of GA<sub>3</sub> on cluster weight and dimensions might be attributed to its essential role on stimulating cell division and enlargement of cells, the water absorption and the biosynthesis of proteins which will lead to increase berry weight. Dimovska *et al.*, (2011); Abu Zahra and Salameh, (2012) and Dimovska *et al.*, (2014).

The previous essential role of CPPU on cluster weight was attributed to its higher content of cytokinin when applied to plants (Nickell, 1985).

#### 4-Shot berries %:

Data in Table (2) obviously reveal that percentage of shot berries in the clusters of Early Sweet grapevines was significantly controlled with spraying GA<sub>3</sub> at 10 to 40 ppm or Sitofex at 2.5 to 10 ppm relative to the check treatment. Using GA<sub>3</sub> was preferable than using Sitofex in reducing the percentages of shot berries. There was a gradual reduction on the percentage of shot berries with increasing concentrations of GA<sub>3</sub> and Sitofex. There was a slight reduction on such unfavourable phenomenon with increasing concentrations of GA<sub>3</sub> from 20 to 40 ppm and Sitofex from 5 to 10 ppm. The minimum values of shot berries (7.3 and 6.9 % during both seasons, respectively) were recorded on the clusters harvested from vines treated with GA<sub>3</sub>

at 40 ppm. The maximum values of shot (12.0 & 12.5 %) during both seasons were recorded on the untreated vines during both seasons. The reducing effect of GA<sub>3</sub> on shot berries might be attributed to its important role on enhancing cell division and the biosynthesis of proteins (Nickell, 1985). These results were supported by the work of Wassel *et al.* (2007) and Abu Zahra and Salameh (2012).

#### 5-Fruit quality:

Data in Tables (2, 3 & 4) clearly show that spraying clusters with GA<sub>3</sub> at 10 to 40 ppm and Sitofex at 2.5 to 10 ppm significantly accompanied with enhancing weight, long and equatorial of berry, total acidity%, proanthocyanidins and percentages of P, K and Mg and TSS and reducing sugars %, T.S.S. / acid and carotenoids relative to the check treatment. The effect either increase or decrease was as expected with increasing concentrations of each auxin. GA<sub>3</sub> significantly changed these parameters using Sitofex. A slight effect was recorded on quality parameters with increasing concentrations of GA<sub>3</sub> from 20 to 40 ppm and Sitofex from 5 to 10 ppm. From economical point of view, the results with regard to fruit quality were good due to treating clusters with GA<sub>3</sub> at 20 ppm. Untreated vines produced unfavourable effect on fruit quality. These results were true during both seasons. The effect of GA<sub>3</sub> on increasing weight and dimensions might be attributed to its effect in promoting cell division and enlarge cells, water uptake and the biosynthesis of proteins (Nickell, 1985). These results were in agreement with those obtained by Williams and Ayars (1985) and Dimovska *et al.*, (2014).

The higher content of Sitofex from 5 to 10 ppm clearly reflected on enhancing cell division and elongation of berries (Nickell, 1985). These results were in agreement with those obtained by Abu Zahra (2013) and Retamales *et al.* (2015).

#### CONCLUSION

Treating Early Sweet grapevines once with GA<sub>3</sub> at 10 ppm and Sitofex at 2.5 ppm was responsible for promoting yield and quality.

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### الملخص العربي

#### الفحم الحيوي لعظم الحيوانات كمصدر متجدد وكفاء للسماد الفوسفاتي: دراسة مقارنة

~~رش حامض الجبريليك والسيتوفكس في تصيين المحصول وجودة حبات العنب الايرلي سويت في منطقة المنيا-مصر~~

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دراسة معملية لبحث ذائبية الفوسفات الموجود في الفحم الحيوى لعظم الحيوانات والمنتج بطريقة الترميد ، على درجة حرارة 650 درجة مئوية ومقارنة ذلك بذائبية الفوسفات من صخر الفوسفات. تم دراسة خواص كلا باستخدام الأشعة السينية والتحليل العنصرى الكلى. وتم تقدير الفوسفات الذائب بواسطة الماء المقطر والماء ، والمارين خلال عمود محتوى على فحم العظم أو صخر الفوسفات على مدار 30 يوم وذلك بمعدل احلال رة 0.25 مليلتر فى الدقيقة باستخدام مضخة ثمانية القنوات. كذلك تم تقدير صور الفوسفور المستخلص بالماء أو بيكربونات الصوديوم (OP) أو حامض الستريك (CAP) أو حامض الفورميك (FAP) قبل تجربة النوبان وقد أوضحت النتائج أن تركيز كل صور الفوسفور المستخلص من فحم العظام كان أعلى من المستخلص من فوسفات وكان ترتيب التركيزات المستخلصة من كلا المصدرين هو : FAP>CAP>OP>WSP. أوضحت تجارب فى الأعمدة أن الفوسفور الذائب بواسطة الماء أو الحامض المخفف من الأعمدة المحتوية على فحم العظام ن الأعمدة المحتوية على صخر الفوسفات وأن الكميات المستخلصة بالحامض المخفف تمثل 50% من الكلى (المقدر فى صورة خامس أو أكسيد الفوسفور) والكمية المستخلصة بالماء فقط تمثل 0.85% من الفوسفور نما تمثل الكمية المستخلصة من صخر الفوسفات بالحامض تمثل 29.79% وبالماء فقط 0.017% من الكلى وبالتالي نجد أن تلك النتائج تعكس تأثير ال pH على عملية الإذابة. من ناحية أخرى بينت النتائج أن المتبقية من الفوسفور والمستخلصة من فحم العظام بواسطة حامض الستريك وحامض الفورميك كانت أعلى من تخلصه من صخر الفوسفات والعكس صحيح بالنسبة للكميات المستخلصة من الأعمدة المغسولة بالماء فقط. زكيز الفوسفور المستخلص بمحلول بيكربونات الصوديوم من أعمدة صخر الفوسفات بعد الغسيل بالحامض مما حسن مستوى تيسر الفوسفور بعد تحميضه. وتبين النتائج المتحصل عليها أهمية استخدام الفحم الحيوى للعظام سريع التيسر للفوسفور على المدى القصير والمتوسط ومصدر للأسمدة الفوسفاتية.