การใช้เศษอิฐมอญและถ่านแกลบเป็นวัสดุปลูกที่มีอิทธิพลต่อการเจริญเติบโตและผลผลิต ของผักกวางตุ้งฮ่องเต้

Application of Waste Clay Brick and Rice Husk Charcoal as Potting Mixes Influences Pak choi Growth and Yield

ภัทราภรณ์ ประวันนา¹ และสมชาย บุตรนันท์^{1*}

Putrapron Prawanna¹ and Somchai Butnan^{1*}

Received: Augus 30, 2021 Revised: November 15, 2021 Accepted: November 16, 2021

Abstract: The effects of crushed waste brick as the basal material (BM) and proportions of rice husk charcoal (RHC) as a supplement material (SM) of potting mixes for pak choi (*Brassica chinensis*) production were evaluated. The factors included (i) types of BM, i.e., sand and crushed brick, and (ii) proportions of RHC supplementation at the proportion of BM:SM of 1:0, 1:0.5, and 1:1 v/v. Generally, crushed brick decreased pak choi's shoot biomass compared to sand. Supplementing the potting mix with RHC at BM:SM ratio of 1:0.5 v/v rendered an increase in yield compared to 1:0 v/v. Nevertheless, increasing RHC to 1:1 v/v brought about decreases in shoot biomass compared to its lower RHC proportion (1:0.5 v/v).

Keywords: Fired clay brick; Growing media; Nutrient antagonism; Rice husk biochar; Soil conditioner

บทคัดย่อ: ทำการประเมินอิทธิพลของเศษอิฐมอญบดเพื่อเป็นวัสดุปลูกหลัก (basal material, BM) และสัดส่วน ของถ่านแกลบ (rice husk charcoal, RHC) เพื่อเป็นวัสดุเสริม (supplement material, SM) สำหรับเป็นวัสดุปลูก ในการผลิตผักกวางตุ้งฮ่องเต้ (*Brassica chinensis*) ปัจจัยที่ใช้ในการศึกษาประกอบด้วย (i) ชนิดของ BM คือ ทรายและอิฐมอญบด และ (ii) สัดส่วนของ RHC ซึ่งเป็นวัสดุเสริมโดยมีสัดส่วน BM:SM เป็น 1:0, 1:0.5 และ 1:1 v/v โดยทั่วไปแล้ว อิฐมอญบดลดมวลชีวภาพของส่วนเหนือดินของผักกวางตุ้งเมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับทราย การเสริม RHC ในวัสดุปลูกที่มีสัดส่วน BM:SM เป็น 1:0.5 v/v ทำให้ผลผลิตของผักกวางตุ้งเพิ่มขึ้นเมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับ 1:0 v/v อย่างไรก็ตาม การเพิ่มสัดส่วนของ RHC เป็น 1:1 v/v ทำให้มวลชีวภาพล่วนเหนือดินของผักกวางตุ้งย่องเต้ ลดลงเมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับวัสดุปลูกที่มีสัดส่วนของ RHC ต่ำกว่า (1:0.5 v/v)

คำสำคัญ: อิฐูดินเหนียวเผา, วัสดุปลูกพืช, ภาวะการเป็นปฏิบักษ์ของธาตุอาหาร, ถ่านชีวภาพจากแกลบ, สารปรับปรุงดิน

¹ สาขาวิชาพืชศาสตร์ คณะเทคโนโลยีการเกษตร มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสกลนคร จังหวัดสกลนคร 47000

¹ Plant Science Section, Faculty of Agricultural Technology, Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University, Sakon Nakhon 47000

^{*} Corresponding author: sbutnan@snru.ac.th

Introduction

Environmental degradation nowadays is contributed mainly to the fast economic growth in both manufacturing and agrarian sectors. Re-utilization of industrial wastes and agricultural residues is perceived as strategic ecological safety (Zaman, 2017). From a manufacturing standpoint, broken brick is commonly the construction waste in Thailand (Sujjavanich et al., 2014). This brick is originally fabricated from clayey soil combined with sand and a small amount of rice husk ash and heated under extreme temperatures of approximately 1200°C for 2-3 weeks (Chuchaisong and Wongthong, 2009). The brick contains a certain amount of plant nutrients, e.g., K, Ca, Mg, and Fe (Lourenço et al., 2010; Sujjavanich et al., 2014; Lawanwadeekul et al., 2020). Crushing and then employing the waste brick as a potting mix component may be the case for its recycling in crop production. From an agricultural standpoint, rice husk is easily accessible due to its huge availability in many Asian countries, including Thailand (Thambhitaks and Kitchaicharoen, 2021). Pyrolysis of rice husk to charcoal and its use as a potting mix promises to condition the growing media and promote crop growth (Farhan et al., 2018). Rice husk charcoal (RHC) has been reported to improve soil fertility and enhance plant growth and yield (Haefele et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2012). These benefits are due to the fact that RHC poses improving plant nutrient availability (Abrishamkesh et al., 2015), increasing and diversifying soil microbes (Singh et al., 2018), and neutralizing the pH (Abrishamkesh et al., 2015) of the growing media. Nevertheless, the optimum ratio of the mixture of the brick and RHC as a potting mix has not been observed.

Pak choi (*Brassica chinensis*) is a leafy vegetable flavor as a main or side dish

worldwide. Proper soil pH for its growth ranges from 6.0 – 6.8 (Ebesu, 2004). Adequate tissue N, P, K, Ca and Mg concentrations are 34, 4.9, 67.9, 19.8, and 4.0 g kg⁻¹, respectively (Huett *et al.*, 1997). Commercially, the production of greenhouse vegetables requires a large amount of growing media. Compensation of the expensive commercial media with the low price counterparts, viz waste brick, could cut the production costs. Therefore, the current study aimed at evaluating the effects of the potting mix ratios between crushed brick and RHC on the growth and yield of a vegetable crop.

Materials and Methods

A pot experiment was conducted under a greenhouse condition. The experiment was arranged in a 2x3 factorial in randomized complete block design replicated eight times. Two factors of the potting mix were evaluated, i.e., (i) basal materials including crushed brick in comparison with sand, and (ii) proportions of RHC which was the supplementary material. Mixture ratios of basal to supplementary materials were 1:0, 1:0.5, and 1:1 v/v. Pak choi was used as a test crop.

Waste brick and sand were received from a construction material supplier, while RHC was a commercially available material obtained from an agricultural product store in Sakon Nakhon province. The brick was broken and crushed. Crushed brick, sand, and RHC were sieved to pass to through a 2-mm sieve for further use in the experiment.

Pots (h = 14.0 cm, top d = 20.4 cm, bottom d = 12.8 cm, v = 3,083 cm³) were filled with the potting mixes in the ratios corresponding to their respective treatments. Each pot was lined with a serving tray. Pak choi was seeded and nursed in a nursery tray for 14 days. A 14-day old seedling chosen for its homogeneity and health was transplanted to a pot. Recommended chemical fertilizers were applied to all pots at the same rates of 110 mg N kg⁻¹, 85 mg P_2O_5 kg⁻¹, and 60 mg K₂O kg⁻¹ (Yu *et al.*, 2016). A pot was watered to maintain soil moisture at field capacity through the experimental period.

Height and leaf number of pak choi were determined at 20, 27, 34, 41, and 48 days after germination (DAG). At 48 DAG, leaf area was measured using the ImageJ technique (Image Processing and Analysis in Java, National Institutes of Health, Maryland, USA) and leaf area index was calculated from leaf area divided by pot area. At the harvest (48 DAG), the aboveground pak choi was cut and weighed to achieve fresh shoot biomass. The aboveground was subsequently oven-dried at 65°C to gain the constant weight for dry shoot biomass determination.

A two-way analysis of variance based on randomized complete block design in a factorial

arrangement was used to evaluate the effects of types of basal material, RHC proportions and their interactions on growth and yield parameters of pak choi. Mean comparisons were assessed using Tukey's honestly significant difference test. The statistically significant differences were appraised at $p \leq 0.05$. The statistical analyses were operated by the SAS version 9.1 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

Results

The interaction effects of basal materials (sand and crushed brick) and RHC proportions on height ($p \le 0.001$) and fresh shoot biomass ($p \le 0.05$) of pak choi were observed (Table 1). Similarly, the effects of basal material types on height ($p \le 0.01$) and fresh shoot biomass ($p \le 0.001$) were found. Meanwhile, the effects of RHC proportions were shown in height ($p \le 0.001$), leaf number ($p \le 0.001$), leaf area ($p \le 0.05$), leaf area index ($p \le 0.05$), fresh shoot biomass ($p \le 0.001$).

Sources of variance	Degree of - freedom	p-value †					
		Height	Leaf number	Leaf area	Leaf area index	Fresh shoot biomass	Dry shoot biomass
Basal material (BM)	1	**	ns	ns	ns	***	ns
RHC rate	2	***	***	*	*	***	***
BM x RHC rate	2	***	ns	ns	ns	*	ns

 Table 1 Two-way analysis of variance pertaining to the effects of types of basal material, RHC proportions, and their interactions on growth and yield parameters of pak choi.

* $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$; and ns = not significantly different (*F*-test)

† p-values of periodic measurement of growth parameters, i.e., height and leaf number, at the harvest date (48 days after pak choi germination)

At the harvest (48 DAG), the height of pak choi was generally lower in crushed brick treatments (Figure 1B) than in sand treatments (Figure 1A). For both sand and crushed brick, increasing a proportion of RHC from 1:0 to 1:0.5 v/v increased plant height.

Leaf number was not affected by the potting mixes at 48 DAG (Figure 1C and 1D). Leaf area (Figure 1E) and leaf area index (Figure 1F) were not different between sand and crushed brick treatments. Raising an RHC proportion from 1:0 to 1:0.5 v/v rendered greater leaf area and leaf area index in both sand and crushed brick. However, increasing RHC to 1:1 v/v in crushed brick led to lower leaf area and leaf index as compared to its lower RHC proportion.



Figure 1 Height (A and B), leaf number (C and D), leaf area (E) and leaf area index (F) of pak choi as responded to basal materials (BM) of the potting mixes including sand and crushed brick supplemented with rice husk charcoal (RHC) of different ratios (BM:RHC, 1:0, 1:0.5, and 1:1 v/v). Bars with the same letters of either sub-figure (E) and (F) are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$; Tukey's HSD test). Error bars of sub-figure (E) and (D) represent standard deviation.

The 1:0.5 and 1:1 v/v of crushed brick treatments produced lower fresh shoot biomass than the sand treatments of respective RHC proportions (Figure 2A). Dry shoot biomass tended to decrease in crushed brick supplemented with RHC at a ratio of 1:0 and 1:1 v/v compared to sand supplemented with the respective RHC proportions (Figure 2B). Fresh- (Figure 2A) and dry shoot biomass (Figure 2B) increased in the 1:0.5 v/v in comparison to 1:0 v/v. On the contrary, the biomass tended to decrease in the 1:1 v/v compared to its lower RHC proportion (1:0.5 v/v) in crushed brick treatment.



Figure 2 Fresh- (A) and dry shoot biomass (B) of pak choi as affected by basal materials (BM) of the potting mixes including sand and crushed brick supplemented with rice husk charcoal (RHC) of different ratios (BM:RHC, 1:0, 1:0.5 and 1:1 v/v). Bars with the same letters of either sub-figure (A) and (B) are not significantly different ($p \le 0.05$; Tukey's HSD). Error bars represent standard deviation.

Discussion

The deleterious effect of crushed brick used as a basal material of the potting mix may primarily result from excessive Si supply. Butnan (2015) demonstrated that high Si content in growing media due to overdose application of eucalyptus charcoal led to the antagonistic effect of Si to Fe and Mn. Based on shoot Si content, plants have been classified as high-, intermediate-, and non-Si accumulators (Tubana *et al.*, 2016; Li and Delvaux, 2019). Plants contained 1-10% Si (in dry weight) ranked as high Si accumulator, and 0.5-1% Si was intermediate, while less than 0.5% Si was non-Si accumulator (Ma *et al.*, 2001). Brassica sp. was counted as a non-Si accumulator because its shoot Si concentration was less than 0.1% (Guntzer et al., 2012). However, it has been claimed that Brassica sp. could uptake and store high Si content in roots via an active transport process (Tubana et al., 2016; Haddad et al., 2018). High Si supply in growing media therefore rendered Si antagonistic to other cations, in particular Fe and Mn. The following are the mechanisms of the antagonistic effect of Si on other cations including Fe and Mn proposed by Liang et al. (2007): (i) increase in ionic strength, (ii) stimulation of unavailability of other cations via metal-phenolic complex through induction of phenolic compound releases and (iii) co-precipitation of Si with metals in growing media.

วิทยาศาสตร์เกษตรและการจัดการ 4 (3) : 39-47 (2564)

Silicon in crushed brick was achieved from the thermal transformation of soil minerals, i.e., kaolinite and quartz, as well as rice husk ash employed as raw materials in the brick production (Chuchaisong and Wongthong, 2009; Trakoolngam *et al.*, 2019). In addition, the low specific surface area and low negative surface charge causing the low cation holding capacity of crushed brick were possibly an additive effect of Si oversupply.

Raw materials of the fired clay brick in Northeast Thailand are commonly comprised of clayey soil, sand, and rice husk ash (Chuchaisong and Wongthong, 2009; Trakoolngam et al., 2019). Kaolinite was a principal mineral constituted in clayey soils employed in the manufacturing brick process (Promkotra, 2013). After the moulding step, the fresh brick was heated under a peak temperature of approximately 1,200°C (Chuchaisong and Wongthong, 2009). Under the heating process, kaolinite was transformed to metakaolinite, and finally mullite and cristobalite, respectively (Lee et al., 1999). Kaolinite structure was delaminated, dehydroxylated, and re-crystallized to produce not only high content of plant-available Si (Daou et al., 2020) but also other new mineral products, e.g., metakaolinte, γ -alumina, Al-Si spinel, Al-rich mullite, cristobalite, and amorphous SiO (Lee et al., 1999). These minerals possessed the low specific surface areas and low negative surface charges (Torres Sánchez and Tavani, 1994). Torres Sánchez and Tavani (1994) reported that the major minerals in the kaolinite heating process included 41.2%SiO, 22.5%Al_O_, and 19.2%Fe_O_ w/w. They also found abrupt decreases in specific surface areas of the whole sample of these minerals, i.e., 55, 46, and $2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ with increasing heating temperatures of 100, 500, and 1,100°C,

respectively. Meanwhile, the low surface charge of heated kaolinite-derived minerals was a consequence of the removal of the -OH group in the dehydroxylation reaction (Chakraborty, 2014)

At around 1,000 – 2,000°C, α -quartz (common quartz) was thermally transformed to β -quartz, high-temperature hexagonal tridymite, β -cristobalite, coesite, stishovite, and ready plant-available Si (Ringdalen, 2015). An additional Si was gained from rice husk ash– a brick raw material, which ranged 40.2 – 43.5% Si w/w (Hossain *et al.*, 2018).

The adverse effect of high RHC proportion (1:1 v/v) on fresh- and dry shoot biomass may also be attributed to the oversupply of Si. Rice husk charcoal has been chosen as an alternative Si source because it is reputed as high content of plant-available Si (Wang et al., 2019) as can be demonstrated in Costa et al. (2003), who found 32%Si w/w constituted in RHC. It has been reported that Si-instituted minerals in RHC were phytolith $[SiO_{n/2}(OH)_{4-n}]m$, hydrated amorphous Si (SiO, $\cdot nH_{2}O),$ and crystalline Si such as gonnardite (Na CaAl Si O , 7(H O), cristobalite $[(SiO_2)n]$, tridymite $[(SiO_2)n]$, diopside (MgCaSi $_{2}O_{6}$), kalsilite (KAlSiO4), albite [Na(AlSi_O_)], and quartz [(SiO_)n] (Xiao et al., 2014; Qian et al., 2016; Li and Delvaux, 2019). As such, phytolith and amorphous Si were pointed out as the primary Si minerals in rice residue-derived charcoal produced at about 500°C which was a similar level of heating temperature for charcoal production in the current work (Li and Delvaux, 2019). Phytolith and amorphous Si in RHC were soluble and easily uptaken by plant (Li et al., 2019). Overdose application of RHC therefore brought about an additive effect on Si antagonism.

Conclusions

The results of this study were constructively demonstrated that recycling waste brick as a basal material of potting mix for pak choi production brought about the deleterious effect on pak choi's growth and yield. Supplementation of potting media with rice husk charcoal at the proportion between the basal and supplement materials to 1:0.5 could improve growth and yield of pak choi and *vice versa* for 1:1 v/v. Instead of re-utilization of waste brick as a basal material of the potting mix in crop production, its fabrication to pellets, granules, or ball material as a soil conditioner should be taken into account.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the research project of Integration of Instruction with Research of Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University FY 2561(project no. 21/2561). We thank Dr. Pijika Timsuksai for her constructive comments.

References

- Abrishamkesh, S., M. Gorji, H. Asadi, G. H. Bagheri-Marandi and A. A. Pourbabaee. 2015. Effects of rice husk biochar application on the properties of alkaline soil and lentil growth. Plant, Soil and Environment 61(11): 475–482. doi:https://doi.org/10.17221/117/2015-PSE
- Butnan, S. 2015. Biochars differing in properties and rates impacting soil-plant and greenhouse gases in different textured and mineralogy soils. Ph.D. Dissertation. Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen. 226 p.
- Chakraborty, A. K. 2014. Phase Transformation of Kaolinite Clay. Springer, West Bengal.
- Chuchaisong, P. and S. Wongthong. 2009. Study of the Properties of Clay bricks Produced in Chon Buri Province.

Ungraduate Project. Burapha University, Chon Buri. 67 p.

- Costa, H. M. d., L. L. Y. Visconte, R. C. R. Nunes and C. R. G. Furtado. 2003. Rice husk ash filled natural rubber. III. Role of metal oxides in kinetics of sulfur vulcanization. Journal of Applied Polymer Science 90: 1519 –1531. doi: https://doi.org/ 10.1002/app.12684
- Daou, I., G. L. Lecomte-Nana, N. Tessier-Doyen, C. Peyratout, M. F. Gonon and R. Guinebretiere. 2020. Probing the dehydroxylation of kaolinite and halloysite by *in situ* high temperature X-ray diffraction. Minerals 10(5): 480. doi:https://doi.org/10.3390/min 10050480
- Ebesu, R. 2004. Home garden oriental leafy greens. Hawaii Cooperative Extension Service Home Garden Vegetable Series no. 10. College of Tropical Agriculture and Human Resources, University of Hawaii at Manoa, Hawaii.
- Farhan, A. F. A., A. J. Zakaria, P. N. Mat and K. S. Mohd. 2018. Soilless media culture-a propitious auxiliary for crop production. Asian Journal of Crop Science 10: 1-9. doi:https://doi.org/ 10.3923/ajcs.2018.1.9
- Guntzer, F., C. Keller and J.-D. Meunier. 2012. Benefits of plant silicon for crops: A review. Agronomy for Sustainable Development 32(1): 201-213. doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-011-0039-8
- Haddad, C., M. Arkoun, F. Jamois, A. Schwarzenberg, J.-C. Yvin, P. Etienne and P. Laîné. 2018. Silicon promotes growth of *Brassica napus* L. and delays leaf senescence induced by nitrogen starvation. Frontiers in Plant Science 9(516): doi:https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls. 2018.00516

- Haefele, S. M., Y. Konboon, W. Wongboon, S. Amarante, A. A. Maarifat, E. M. Pfeiffer and C. Knoblauch. 2011. Effects and fate of biochar from rice residues in rice-based systems. Field Crops Research 121(3): 430-440. doi:https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.fcr.2011.01.014
- Hossain, S. S., L. Mathur and P. K. Roy. 2018.
 Rice husk/rice husk ash as an alternative source of silica in ceramics: A review.
 Journal of Asian Ceramic Societies 6(4): 299-313. doi:https://doi.org/10.1080/21 870764.2018.1539210
- Huett, D. O., N. A. Maier, L. A. Sparrow and
 T. J. Piggott. 1997. Vegetable Crops.
 pp. 385-464. *In* Reuter, D. J. and
 Robinson, J. B. (Eds.). Plant Analysis:
 An Interpretation Manual. CSIRO
 Publishing. Collingwood.
- Lawanwadeekul, S., T. Otsuru, R. Tomiku and H. Nishiguchi. 2020. Thermal-acoustic clay brick production with added charcoal for use in Thailand. Construction and Building Materials 255: 119376. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat. 2020.119376
- Lee, S., Y. J. Kim and H.-S. Moon. 1999. Phase transformation sequence from kaolinite to mullite investigated by an energyfiltering transmission electron microscope. Journal of the American Ceramic Society 82(10): 2841-2848. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1151-2916. 1999.tb02165.x
- Li, Z. and B. Delvaux. 2019. Phytolith-rich biochar: A potential Si fertilizer in desilicated soils. GCB Bioenergy 11(11): 1264-1282. doi:https://doi.org/ 10.1111/gcbb.12635
- Li, Z., D. Unzué-Belmonte, J.-T. Cornelis, C. V. Linden, E. Struyf, F. Ronsse and B. Delvaux. 2019. Effects of phytolithic

rice-straw biochar, soil buffering capacity and pH on silicon bioavailability. Plant and Soil 438(1): 187-203. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/ s11104-019-04013-0

- Liang, Y., W. Sun, Y.-G. Zhu and P. Christie. 2007. Mechanisms of silicon-mediated alleviation of abiotic stresses in higher plants: A review. Environmental Pollution 147(2): 422-428. doi:http:// dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2006. 06.008
- Lourenço, P. B., F. M. Fernandes and F. Castro. 2010. Handmade clay bricks: Chemical, physical and mechanical properties. International Journal of Architectural Heritage 4(1): 38-58. doi:https://doi. org/10.1080/15583050902871092
- Ma, J. F., Y. Miyake and E. Takahashi. 2001.
 Silicon as a Beneficial Element for Crop Plants. pp. 17-39. *In* Datnoff,
 L. E., Snyder, G. H. and Korndörfer,
 G. H. (Eds.). Silicon in Agriculture. 8.
 Elsevier. Amsterdam.
- Promkotra, S. 2013. Applicable fine stream sediments from upper Chi River produced fired clay bricks. Applied Mechanics and Materials 423-426: 1041-1045. doi:https://doi.org/10.4028/ www.scientific.net/AMM.423-426.1041
- Qian, L., B. Chen and M. Chen. 2016. Novel alleviation mechanisms of aluminum phytotoxicity via released biosilicon from rice straw-derived biochars. Scientific Reports 6(1): 29346. doi:https://doi.org/10.1038/srep29346
- Ringdalen, E. 2015. Changes in quartz during heating and the possible effects on Si production. The Journal of The Minerals, Metals & Materials Society 67(2): 484-492. doi:https://doi.org/ 10.1007/s11837-014-1149-y

- Singh, C., S. Tiwari, V. K. Gupta and J. S. Singh. 2018. The effect of rice husk biochar on soil nutrient status, microbial biomass and paddy productivity of nutrient poor agriculture soils. Catena 171: 485-493. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j. catena.2018.07.042
- Sujjavanich, S., T. Meesak and D. Chaysuwan. 2014. Effect of clay brick powder on ASR expansion control of rhyolite mortar bar. Advanced Materials Research 931-932: 441-445. doi: https://doi.org/10.4028/www.scientific. net/AMR.931-932.441
- Thambhitaks, K. and J. Kitchaicharoen. 2021. Valuation of external costs of wetseason lowland rice production systems in Northern Thailand. Chiang Mai University Journal of Natural Sciences 20(3): e2021057. doi:https://doi.org/10.12982/ CMUJNS.2021.057
- Torres Sánchez, R. M. and E. L. Tavani. 1994. Temperature effects on the point of zero charge and isoelectric point of a red soil rich in kaolinite and iron minerals. Journal of Thermal Analysis and Calorimetry 41(5): 1129-1139. doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02547202
- Trakoolngam, K., S. Promkotra and T. Kangsadan. 2019. Compressive strength of fired-clay brick with variations in composition of rice husk ash compared with ancient bricks in Dvaravati Peroid, Northeast Thailand. pp. *In* Aguilar, R., Torrealva, D., Moreira, S., Pando, M. A. and Ramos, L. F. (Eds.). RILEM Bookseries, vol 18. Structural Analysis of Historical Constructions. Springer. Cham

- Tubana, B. S., T. Babu and L. E. Datnoff. 2016. A review of silicon in soils and plants and its role in us agriculture: History and future perspectives. Soil Science 181(9-10): 393-411. doi: https://doi. org/10.1097/ss.00000000000179
- Wang, J., X. Pan, Y. Liu, X. Zhang and Z. Xiong. 2012. Effects of biochar amendment in two soils on greenhouse gas emissions and crop production. Plant and Soil 360: 287-298. doi:https://doi. org/10.1007/s11104-012-1250-3
- Wang, Y., X. Xiao, Y. Xu and B. Chen. 2019. Environmental effects of silicon within biochar (sichar) and carbon-silicon coupling mechanisms: A critical review. Environmental Science & Technology 53(23): 13570-13582. doi:https://doi. org/10.1021/acs.est.9b03607
- Xiao, X., B. Chen and L. Zhu. 2014. Transformation, morphology, and dissolution of silicon and carbon in rice straw-derived biochars under different pyrolytic temperatures. Environmental Science & Technology 48(6): 3411-3419. doi: https://doi.org/10.1021/es405676h
- Yu, Y., A. O. Odindo, L. Xue and L. Yang. 2016. Influences of biochar addition on vegetable soil nitrogen balance and pH buffering capacity. IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science. 41: 012029. doi:https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/ 41/1/012029
- Zaman, A. U. 2017. A strategic framework for working toward zero waste societies based on perceptions surveys. Recycling 2(1): 1. doi:https://doi.org/ 10.3390/recycling2010001