

Assessment of the Biomass Status of Some Selected Trees Species with High Calorific Value Used For Charcoal Production in Toro Lga

Yakubu I.¹, Mohammed I.², Ibrahim D.B.³, Garba A.⁴, Ibrahim A.A.⁵.

Date of Submission: 10-09-2023

Date of Acceptance: 20-09-2023

ABSTRACT

The abysmal decline of trees species with high calorific values in the state and the rising demand of fuel wood and charcoal with corresponding raise in the price of fusil fuel (PMS, AGO, Kerosine and Gas) informed this study. The study investigated the status of trees with high calorific value in Toro Local government and compare the result with the previous record of 2013 and 2015. Point Centre Quarter Method (PCQ) was used for the vegetation inventory in Lukshi forest reserve Toro Local government. Data obtained was analysed using vegetation indices and inferential statistic. The result indicated that their is a declined of about 36% of trees with high calorific value in Toro Local government compared to number obtained 10 years ago (2013). The result further revealed that *Anogeisus leocarpus*, (14.4%), *Isobertina doka*(9.8%) are the most predominant specie and of high calorific value. *Deuterium microcarpum* (17%) and *Vetellaria paradoza* (1.15%) were also common and of high calorific value in the reserve. The result of the basal area analysis reveal also that their is a significant reduction In the volume of wood produced per tree in the study area, *Isobertina doka*, *Anogeisus leocarpus* and *Lennea acida* had 15,200cm³, 11,700cm³ and 5,400cm³ in the year 2013, and the volume of similar species dropped to the 9700,cm³, 6,900 and 8500 in 2023. The study concluded that the negative trend of tree species with high calorific value population in the study is associated to increased on anthropogenic activities, change in luggers cutting preference and poor administrative and management practices of the reserve. The study recommended improve education and awareness campaign to the inhabitant of Toro and the state at large on the implication of deforestation and lost of biodiversity among others.

I. INTRODUCTION

Biomass is a term for all organic material that stems from plants (including algae, trees and crops). Biomass is produced by green plants converting sunlight into plant material through photosynthesis and includes all land- and water-based vegetation, as well as all organic wastes. The biomass resource can be considered as organic matter, in which the energy of sunlight is stored in chemical bonds Awe, (2015). When the bonds between adjacent carbon, hydrogen and oxygen molecules are broken by digestion, combustion, or decomposition, these substances release their stored, chemical energy. Biomass has always been a major source of energy for mankind and is presently estimated to contribute of the order 10–14% of the world’s energy supply (Adeniji, 2016).

The conversion of biomass into energy can be achieved in a number of ways. To provide a fuel suitable for direct use in spark ignition gas engines (s.i.g.e.), the fuel must be provided in either a gaseous, or a liquid form. Production of a gaseous fuel from biomass can be achieved by the application of a number of technologies, each with its specific requirements, advantages and disadvantages (Adejumobi, 2016)

The value of a particular type of biomass depends on the chemical and physical properties of the large molecules from which it is made. Man for millennia has exploited the energy stored in these chemical bonds, by burning biomass as a fuel and by eating plants for the nutritional content of their sugar and starch. More recently, fossilised biomass has been exploited as coal and oil. However, since it takes millions of years to convert biomass into fossil fuels, these are not renewable within a time-scale mankind can use. Burning fossil fuels uses “old” biomass and converts it into “new” CO₂;

which contributes to the “greenhouse” effect and depletes a non-renewable resource (Massey, 2015).

However in Africa charcoal production is considered as the major driver for deforestation, almost all charcoal is produced in rural areas, especially in forested area surrounding the urban centers (Chidumayo, 2016 BTG, 2015).

Toro local government area has the highest demand for the use of forest trees for charcoal production this has led to high level of deforestation. Thus varieties of trees species are used for charcoal production with no preferences to quality of the wood. Hence trees are being felled indiscriminately.

One area in which this can be reduced to minimal is by changing the pattern and use of all kinds of trees as source of wood for charcoal to those plants species that can produce the desired energy for specific purpose in the study area.

Trees (wood plants) hence different calorific contents on previous research findings have identified some plants species with high calorific value in Toro local government area (Chidumayo, 2015) but their biomass status in the wild were not known to science in the study area this research is informed with the need to minimize or provide possible solution by establishing the biomass status of those trees with high calorific value used in the study area for charcoal production thereby preventing unnecessary destruction of the forest.

Toro local government has a high demand for the use of forest tree for charcoal production, this has led to a high level of deforestation, which has served as a motivation factor for this study, to proffer solution to the indiscriminate felling of trees in the study area

OBJECTIVE

- To identify plant species with high calorific value in Toro LGA
- To determine the abundance (distribution) of trees with high calorific value in the study area
- To evaluate the biomass content of trees with high calorific value in Toro LGA

II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study area (Toro LGA) was stratified based on the administrative divisions of namely; Toro, Jama’ a and Lame districts. Lukshi forest reserve, one among five (5) other reserves in the local Government was selected for the study. Plant species with high calorific values were randomly searched in the forest using plotless method of vegetation inventory, point centre Quarter method (PCQM) along 10 parallel established transects of 100 meter length. For plant species with high calorific values references were made to the existing literature with that obtained in the forest. This will enable the researcher draw inferences.

Method of Data Collection

The data of this research were collected by assessing the existing literature/published data on three species with high calorific value in Toro Local Government.

The published species identified in the literature were evaluated in the field with the view to determining its status, density and abundance in the wild, using appropriate field technique (PCQM).

Sample Size

A minimum of 10 sample sites were chosen for the inventory of plant species along established transects of 100 meters in Lukshi forest Reserve of Jama’ a District. 10 sample sites are considered minimum for adequate coverage for all possible species (Sutherland, 1997; Comesky, 2001)

Check list of Plant Species by Family in Lukshi forest Reserve, Toro Local Government Area

Table 1 shows the check list of plant species in Lukshi forest reserve (FR) a total 27 species existed in the forest belonging ten (10) families and their distribution across the study plot (site). Fabaceae family has the highest individual followed by Comretaceae with four (4) individual species and Annonaceae, Apocynaceae, Blighiasapida, Hymenocardiaceae, Vitellaria paradoxa, Logniaceae, Olacaceae have the least individual in the study site.

Table 1: Check list of Plant Species by Family in lukshi forest Reserve, Toro Local Government Area

S/N	Family	Spices name	Common name	Transect 1	Transect 2	Transect 3	Transect 4
1	Fabaceae	Isobertina	Farardoka	✓	✓		✓

		tomentosa					
	//	Pseudocedrealla koskii	Tunas	✓		✓	✓
	//	Daniellia Oliveri	Maje	✓			
	//	Dichrostachus cineria	Dundu	✓			✓
	//	Isoberlina doka	Bakarkardoka	✓	✓	✓	
	//	acacia Senegal	Dakwa				
	//	Afromosia laxiflora	makarho		✓		
	//	Acacia paradoxa	Farar kaya		✓		
	//	Detarium microcarpum	Taura		✓		
	//	Piliostigma reticulatum	Kargo			✓	✓
2.	Comretaceae	Anogeissus leocarpus	Marke	✓	✓	✓	✓
	//	Terminalia avicennioi	Baushe		✓	✓	✓
	//	Combretum Molle	Wuyandamo		✓		
	//	Terminalia laxiflora	Zindi			✓	✓
	//	Cumbretum glucinosum	Faringanye	✓	✓	✓	✓
	//	Cumbretum nigirca	Gwanja	✓			
3.	anocardiaceae	Lannea acida	Farinfaru	✓		✓	
	//	Lennea microcarpa	Bakin faru	✓	✓		✓
4.	Rubiaceae	Gardenia aqualla	Gaude	✓	✓		
	//	Crossopteryx febrifuga	Kashinawaki			✓	✓
5.	Annonaceae	Annona senegalensis	Gondar daji			✓	✓
6.	Apocynaceae	Carrissa edulis	Lemon tsuntsu				✓
7.	Sapindaceae	Blighia sapida	Gwanja	✓			
8.	Hymenocardiaceae	Hymenocardia acida	Jan yaro	✓			
9.	Sapotoideae	Vitellaria paradoxa	Kadanya		✓		
10.	Logniaceae	Strychnos spinosa	Kokiya		✓		
11.	Olacaceae	Xymenia americana	Tsada			✓	

Source: Field Survey. (2022)

Table 2: Relative Abundance of Plant Species in Lukshi Forest Reserve, Toro Local Government. Objective three (3): Relative Abundance of Plant Species in Lukshi Forest Reserve, Toro Local Government.

Table 2 shows the relative Abundance of plant Species with high calorific value in the study

Area (Lukshi forest). Anogeissus leocarpus have 14.4% Cumbretum glutinosum. 13.29% Isoberlina tomentosa 10.9% while Isoberlina doka and Gardenia aqualla have 9.8% occurrences respectively. The remaining species have percentages occurrences ranging from 0.5-8.09%.

Relative Abundance of Plant Species in Lukshi Forest Reserve, Toro Local Government.			
S/N	Specie	Frequency	Relative Abundance
1.	Sclerocoya birrea	1	0.5
2.	Anogeissus leocarpus	25	14.4
3.	Isoberlinia tomentosa	19	10.9
4.	Isoberlina doka	17	9.8
5.	Lennea acida	2	1.15
6.	Cumbretum glutinosum	23	13.29
7.	Pseducedrellar Koskii	4	2.3
8.	Lennea microcarpa	14	8.09
9.	Dichrostachus cineria	2	1.15
10.	Cumbretum nigrican	1	0.5
11.	Danellia oliveri	5	2.8
12.	acacia senegal	4	2.3
13.	Gardenia aqualla	17	9.8
14.	Hymenocardia acida	3	1.7
15.	Terminallia avicennioide	8	4.6
16.	Combretum Molle	5	2.8
17.	Afromosia laxiflora	1	0.5
18.	Vitellaria paradoxa	2	1.15
19.	Acacia paradoxa	1	0.5
20.	Strychno saspinosa	1	0.5
21.	Detarium microcarpum	3	1.7
22.	Annona senegalensis	2	1.15
23.	Piliostiqma reticulatum	3	1.7
24.	Terminalia laxiflora	1	0.5
25.	Xyminia americana	1	0.5
26.	Crossopteryx febrifuga	6	0.5
27.	Cariesa soplis	2	1.15
	Total	173	

Source : Field Survey, (2022)

Table 3: Plant Species with High Calorific Values in Toro Local Government Area.

Data obtained from the secondary sources indicated 17 species belonging to 6 families with

high calorific values ranging from 13.47mj/kg Adamu (2013) – 21.58 Adedeji (2015).

Calorific value of plant species in lukshi forest reserve, Toro Local Government.

S/N	Species	Calorific Value	Source
1.	Acasia albida	* 13.47 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013
		** 13.29 mj/kg	Adedeji, 2015
2.	Acacia nilotica	* 12.37 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013
		** 12.42 mj/kg	Adedeji, 2015

3.	Anogeisus leocarpus	*21.58 mj/kg ** 21.49 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
4.	Balanite egyptiaca	*10.72 mj/kg **10.98 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
5.	Detarium macrocarpum	* 15.32 mj/kg **15.29 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
6.	Diopyrus spilitoruis	* 17.80 mj/kg ** 17.90 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
7.	Khaya senegalensis	* 15:01 mj/kg ** 15:00 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
8.	Parkia biglobosa	*12.72 mj/kg **12.70 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
9.	Prosopis Africana	* 16.14 mj/kg **16.16 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
10.	Zyziphus – spina –christi	*12.40 mj/kg **12.42 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
11.	Vitellaria paradoza	*19.73 mj/kg **19.71 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
12.	Burkia Africana	*15.63 mj/kg **15.57 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
13.	Pterocarpus erinaceus	*19.31 mj/kg **19.25 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
14.	Isobarlina doka	*19.80 mj/kg **20.200 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
15.	Afzelia Africana	*18.71 mj/kg **18.69 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
16.	Peterocopsis laxiflora	*14.21 mj/kg **14.30 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015
17.	Terminalia glaucoscens	*20.15 mj/kg **20.76 mj/kg	Adamu, 2013 Adedeji, 2015

Key: *Adamu, (2013); ** Adedeji; (2015).

Source: Adopted and Modified Adamu, (2013) and Adedeji; (2015)

Table 4: Status of Plant Species with High Calorific Value in Lukshi Forest Reserved Toro Local Government

Table 4 shows the status of plant species with high calorific values in the Lukshi Forest reserved Toro Local Government area with their relative percentage occurrences. The result

indicated that a total of Six (6) species belonging to 3 families existed in the forest reserved this include Cumbretacea, Fabaceae and Rubiaceae. Anogeisus leocarpus have the highest percentage occurrence of 14.4%, Isobarlina doka have 9.8, other species have percentage occurrence of 0.5 – 4.6% in the forest reserved .

Table 4: Status of Plant Species with High Calorific Value in Lukshi Forest Reserved Toro Local Government

S/N		Species	Frequency	Relative percentage occurrence
1	Cumbretacea,	Anogeisus leocarpus	25	14.4
2	“	Detarium macrocarpum	3	1.7
3.	“	Vitellaria paradoza	2	1.15
4.	Fabaceae	Afromosia laxiflora	1	0.5
5.	“	Isoberlina doka	17	9.8
6.	Rubiaceae	Terminalia laucoscens	8	4.6

Source: Field Survey, (2022)

Table 5: Absolute Density of Plant Species with High Calorific Value in Lukshi Forest Reserved (2,600Ha=2.6km) Toro Local Government.

Table 4 shows the absolute density of plant species with high calorific value. The result indicated that Cumbretaceae represented by two species Anogeisus leocarpus, Deterium

macrocarpum and Vitellaria paradoza have an absolute density of 9.6, 1.2 and 0.8 while Fabaceae family represented by two species namely Afromosia laxiflora and Isobalina doka have absolute density of 0.4 and 6.5. Rubiaceae represented by one species have an absolute value of 3.1 per km².

Table 5: Absolute Density of Plant Species with High Calorific Value in Lukshi Forest Reserved (2,600Ha=2.6km) Toro Local Government.

S/N		Species	Frequency	Absolute Density/Km ²
1	Cumbretacea,	Anogeisus leocarpus	25	9.6
2	“	Detarium macrocarpum	3	1.2
3.	“	Vitellaria paradoza	2	0.8
4.	Fabaceae	Afromosia laxiflora	1	0.4
5.	“	Isoberlina doka	17	6.5
6.	Rubiaceae	Terminalia laucoscens	8	3.1

Source: Field Survey, 2022

Table 6: Plant Species Relative Basal Area (BA) in Lukshi Forest Reserve Toro LGA

Table 6 shows total basal area of plant species in Lushi Forest Reserve. The result indicated that Isoberlinia doka, Anogeissus leioearpus and Lennea acid have the highest basal area of 15, 200; 9, 700 and 5, 400cm. Gymnospria senegslensis and Terminalia lexiflora are the

species with least basal area of 25cm and 75cm. However, species basal area with high calorific value (Adamu, 2013; Adadeji, 2015) in the study site include Anogeissus leioearpus 9, 700cm³ Isoberlinia eloka 15,200cm³, Terminallia avicenniodes 850cm³, Afromosia Laxiflora 1950cm³, Detorium microcupum 1450cm³.

Table 6: Plant Species Relative Basal Area (BA) in Lukshi Forest Reserve. Toro LGA

SP Scientific Name	SP Common Name	Dbh	BA(cm ³)
1 Sclerocoya birrea	Danya	9	450
2 Anogeissus leioearpus	Marke	194	9700*
3 Isoberlina tementosa	Farar doka	138	6900
4 Isoberlina eloka	Bakar doka	304	15200*
5 Lanea acid	Farin faru	17	850
6 Cumbretum glutinosum	Farin gauge	77	3850
7 Pseudocedrellar coskaii	Tunas	54	2700
8 Lennea acid	Bakin faru	108	5400
9 Dichrostachus cineria	Dundi	6	300
10 Blighia sapida	Gwanja	6	0.5
11 Danellia Olinner	Maje	12	600
12 Acalia Senegal	Dakwara	47	3240
13 Gardenia aqualla	Gaude	26	1300
14 Hymenocardia acida	Jan yaro	91	4550
15 Terminallia avicenniodes	Baushe	17	850*
16 Conbretum Mollea	Wuyan damo	73	3650
17 Afromosia Laxiflora	Makarho	39	1950*
18 Vitellaria Paradoxa	Kadanya	10	500*
19 Acacia paradoxa	Farar kaya	2	100
20 Strychuosa spinosa	Kokiya	8	400
21 Detorium microcupum	Taura	1	1450*
22 Annona senegslensis	Goudar daji	29	1450
23 Piliostigma reticulatum	Kargo	12	600
24 Terminallia lexiflora	Zindi	23	1150
25 Gymnospria senegslensis	Tsada	15	75
26 Crossoporyx febrifuga	Kashin awaki	5	25
27 Carrisa edulis	Lemon tsantsu	82	4100

Source:Field Survey, (2022).

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Concept of Charcoal

Charcoal is a lightweight black carbon residue produced by strongly heating wood (or other animal and plant materials) in minimal oxygen to remove all water and volatile constituents. In the traditional version of this pyrolysis process, called charcoal burning, the heat is supplied by burning part of the starting material itself, with a limited supply of oxygen. The material can also be heated in a closed retort (Himraj, 2017).

This process happens inadvertently while burning wood, as in a fireplace or wood stove. The visible flame in these is due to combustion of the volatile gases exuded as the wood turns into

charcoal. The soot and smoke commonly given off by wood fires result from incomplete combustion of those volatiles. Charcoal burns at a higher temperature than wood, with hardly a visible flame, and releases almost nothing except heat (Massey, 2018).

Charcoal, impure form of graphitic carbon, obtained as a residue when carbonaceous material is partially burned, or heated with limited access of air. Coke, carbon black, and soot may be regarded as forms of charcoal; other forms often are designated by the name of the materials, such as wood, blood, bone, and so on, from which they are derived. Charcoal has been replaced by coke for reducing metal ores in blast furnaces and by natural gas as a source of carbon in

making certain chemicals, but it is still employed in making black gunpowder and in case-hardening metals. Formerly, charcoal production from wood was an important source of acetone, methyl alcohol, and acetic acid, all of which are now produced from other raw materials. (Etukudo, 2018).

The use of special manufacturing techniques results in highly porous charcoals that have surface areas of 300–2,000 square metres per gram. These so-called active, or activated, charcoals are widely used to adsorb odorous or coloured substances from gases or liquids, as in the purification of drinking water, sugar, and many other products, in the recovery of solvents and other volatile materials, and in gas masks for the removal of toxic compounds from the air. They also are used as catalysts in making certain chemicals (e.g., phosgene, sulfuryl chloride) or as supports for other catalytic agents (Himraj, 2017).

Production of Charcoal

The production of wood charcoal in locations where there is an abundance of wood dates back to ancient times. It generally begins with piling billets of wood on their ends to form a conical pile. Openings are left at the bottom to admit air, with a central shaft serving as a flue. The whole pile is covered with turf or moistened clay. The firing is begun at the bottom of the flue, and gradually spreads outward and upward. The success of the operation depends upon the rate of the combustion. Under average conditions wood yields about 60% charcoal by volume, or 25% by weight; small-scale production methods often yield only about 50% by volume, while large-scale methods enabled higher yields of about 90% by the 17th century. The operation is so delicate that it was generally left to colliers (professional charcoal burners). They often lived alone in small huts to tend their wood piles. For example, in the Harz Mountains of Germany, charcoal burners lived in conical huts called Köten which are extant today (Massey, 2017).

Charcoal Production Methods

Charcoal has been made by various methods. The traditional method in Britain used a clamp. Rabier, (2016) this is essentially a pile of wooden logs (e.g. seasoned oak) leaning in a circle against a chimney. The chimney consists of 4 wooden stakes held up by some rope. The logs are completely covered with soil and straw allowing no air to enter. It must be lit by introducing some burning fuel into the chimney; the logs burn very slowly and transform into charcoal in a period of 5

days' burning. If the soil covering gets torn or cracked by the fire, additional soil is placed on the cracks. Rabier, (2016) once the burn is complete, the chimney is plugged to prevent air from entering. The true art of this production method is in managing the sufficient generation of heat, by combusting part of the wood material, and its transfer to wood parts in the process of being carbonised. A strong disadvantage of this production method is the huge amount of emissions that are harmful to human health and the environment (emissions of unburnt methane) (Bailey 2018). As a result of the partial combustion of wood material, the efficiency of the traditional method is low.

Modern methods employ retorting technology, in which process heat is recovered from, and solely provided by, the combustion of gas released during carbonization (Bailey, 2018).

Types of Charcoal

- i. Common charcoal is made from peat, coal, wood, coconut shell, or petroleum.
- ii. Sugar charcoal is obtained from the carbonization of sugar and is particularly pure. It is purified by boiling with acids to remove any mineral matter and is then burned for a long time in a current of chlorine to remove the last traces of hydrogen. Ogunsanwo, (2018) it was used by Henri Moissan in his early attempt to create synthetic diamonds (Bailey, 2018).
- iii. Activated charcoal is similar to common charcoal but is manufactured especially for medical use. To produce activated charcoal, common charcoal is heated to about 900 °C (1,650 °F) in the presence of a gas (usually steam), causing the charcoal to develop many internal spaces, or "pores", which help the activated charcoal to trap chemicals. Impurities on the surface of the charcoal are also removed during this process, greatly increasing its adsorption capacity (Hines, 2019).
- iv. Lump charcoal is a traditional charcoal made directly from hardwood material. It usually produces far less ash than briquettes.
- v. Japanese charcoal has had pyroligneous acid removed during the charcoal making; it therefore produces almost no smell or smoke when burned. The traditional charcoal of Japan is classified into three types:

- a. White charcoal (Binchōtan) is very hard and produces a metallic sound when struck.
- b. Black charcoal
- c. Ogatan is a more recent type made from hardened sawdust.
- vi. Pillow shaped briquettes are made by compressing charcoal, typically made from sawdust and other wood by-products, with a binder and other additives. The binder is usually starch. Briquettes may also include brown coal (heat source), mineral carbon (heat source), borax, sodium nitrate (ignition aid), limestone (ash-whitening agent), raw sawdust (ignition aid), and other additives (Hines, 2019).
- vii. Sawdust briquette charcoal is made by compressing sawdust without binders or additives. It is the preferred charcoal in Taiwan, Korea, Greece, and the Middle East. It has a round hole through the center, with a hexagonal intersection. It is used primarily for barbecue as it produces no odour, no smoke, little ash, high heat, and long burning hours (exceeding 4 hours).
- viii. Extruded charcoal is made by extruding either raw ground wood or carbonized wood into logs without the use of a binder. The heat and pressure of the extruding process hold the charcoal together. If the extrusion is made from raw wood material, the extruded logs are subsequently carbonized (Rabier, 2016).

Uses of Charcoal

Charcoal has been used since earliest times for a large range of purposes including art and medicine, but by far its most important use has been as a metallurgical fuel. Charcoal is the traditional fuel of a blacksmith's forge and other applications where an intense heat is required. Charcoal was also used historically as a source of black pigment by grinding it up. In this form charcoal was important to early chemists and was a constituent of formulas for mixtures such as black powder. Due to its high surface area charcoal can be used as a filter, and as a catalyst as an adsorbent (Himraj, 2017).

Calorific Value (Heating Value)

Calorific value is defined as the amount of calories generated when a unit amount of substance is completely oxidized and is determined using the bomb calorimeter. The calorific value of coal represents gross calorific value (H_G), which contains the latent heat of water vaporization.

When the latent heat of water vaporization is not included, the calorific value is called net calorific value (H_N). The relationship between gross calorific value and net calorific value is expressed by the following equation:

$$H_N = H_G - 600(w + 9h) \quad \text{for (1)}$$

where w is the moisture content and h is the hydrogen content under a constant moisture base.

The technology of taking briquettes as a kind of fuel has been widely used in many countries for both domestic and industrial purposes.

Briquette technology, as an important recycling system for the agricultural and industrial waste, has always contributed to offset forest and fossil fuels, bio-residue management problems and reduce toxic emissions from incomplete carbonization besides energy production development.

Common types of briquette now used are biomass, coal and charcoal, etc.

An important characteristic of the fuel briquette is its calorific value, according to the Dictionary of Mechanical Engineering (2014), the calorific value of a fuel (or heat of combustion or heating value or heat value) is defined as "the energy released per unit mass of fuel in complete combustion with oxygen." Briefly for shortness, that is, the amount of energy (per kg) it exudes during combustion.

The calorific value determines the briquette efficient carbonization and heat value.

Although briquettes, as with most solid fuels, are priced by mass or volume and ease of handling, market forces set the price of each fuel according to its energy content.

Thus, the calorific value can be used to evaluate the competitiveness of a processed biomass fuel in a given market situation. The production cost of briquettes is, however, independent of their calorific values. The Calorific Value is constantly monitored, and it is a condition of the Gas (Safety) Management Regulations 1996 that alterations in the declared Calorific Value (CV) are publicly made known. It is customary to quote the Gross (Upper) CV rather than the Net (Lower) CV. The difference between the two represents the heat contained in the latent heat of vaporization of the water vapour in the products of combustion which can only be recovered in condensing appliances. The ratio of net/gross CV is about 90%, reflecting the high hydrocarbon/carbon ratio for gas. The range of declared CV (gross) is 38–39 MJ/m³ with a typical value of 38.63 MJ/m³. This latter figure represents a net CV of 34.88 MJ/m³.

IV. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The result obtained indicated that, there were 17 species of trees with high calorific value in Toro Local government (Adamu, 2013 and Adedeji, 2015), Field investigation revealed six (6) species with high calorific value. *Anogeisus leocarpus* has the highest percentage occurrence of 14.4% followed by *Isobearlina doka* with 9.8%. Other species with high calorific value includes *Detarium microcarpum*, *Vitellaria paradoxa* with 1.7 % and 1.15% respectively. Correspondently, the aforementioned species have the highest absolute density in the reserved. *Anogeisus leocarpus* led the density of 9.6, *Isobearlina doka* led 6.5, while *Deuterium microcarpum* 1.2 and *Terminalia leucoscense* 3%, species with highest relative dominance recorded include also *Anogeisus leocarpus*, 21.53 cm³ and *Isobearlina doka* 13.73cm³. From the field of investigation, *Isobearlina doka*, *Anogeisus leocarpus*, and *Leanea* species have a basal area value ranging from 9700cm, 6900cm and 850cm cumulatively, indicating low basal area (Juveniles trees) compare to the study area conducted by Adamu (2013) and Adedeji (2015) of matured trees with high calorific value of 15,200cm³, 11,700cm³ and 5,400cm³ of the similar species from the same study area of Bauchi south.

V. CONCLUSION

Filed investigation further revealed that the preponderance of species with high calorific value in the reserve was in connected with the reproductive potentials of the species producing eight sexually or bia sexually (Seed and vegetation). However, the existence of these species in the reserved further exposes the reserve to continues human perturbation. The proliferation of species with low calorifi value in the reserve further sustained the reserve and maintained its ecological integrity. Also discovered during the field investigation include, the present of loggers, Cattle grazing and local mining in the reserve. Aiding and abiding by the forest guard for loggers to continue their nefarious activities in the reserve threatened the validity of the reserve status.

Finding of this study indicated that there is a shape decline of about 78.8% of the total plant species with high calorific value in Toro Local government as compared to the number obtained 10 years ago (Adamu,2013) and Eight (8) years ago Adedeji (2015). The negative trend is associated to increased anthropogenic activities in and around the reserve, change in logging preference by logger targeting species with high calorific value increase in charcoal production, mining and over greasing

were some of the associated threat factors disturbing the reserve. In addition, poor management practices in the reserve further compounded the problem over the years. Similarly the result further shows abysmal net negative trend on other species with low calorific value with significant reduction in density, and basal area covered. The study also revealed that Lukshi forest reserve still have the potentials of sustaining itself looking at preponderance of plant species with good regenerative potentials if adequate protection is given.

VI. RECOMMENDATION

The conservation and sustainable utilization of these resources are crucial. These time in other to alleviate this challenges it may be better to take the following measures.

1. The study recommended the improve education and awareness campaign to the inhabitant of Toro and the state at large on the implication of deforestation and lost of biodiversity among others

1. There should be aggressive campaign regulating the impact of forest trees destruction for charcoal production especially *Anogeisus leocarpus*, *Isobearline doka* etc.

2.Expansion of alternative energy source to reduce the dependency on charcoal should be provided

3.Massive afforestation program need to be carried out in the study area in form of planting more indigenous trees species

REFERENCES

- [1]. Adejumobi, C. A. and Eniola, P. O. (2011). Climate change awareness and socio-economic characteristics of charcoal producers in Oke-Ogun Area of Oyo State, Nigeria. *ThePolytechnic Journal of Science andTechnology PJST*. 6:16-25.
- [2]. Adeniji, O. A. Zaccheus, O. S. Ojo, B. S. and Adedeji, A. S. (2015). Charcoal production and producers' tree species preference in Borgu Local Government Area of Niger State, Nigeria. *Journal of Energy Technologies and Policy*, 5(11):1-8.
- [3]. Awe, F; Imoagene, E; Osadebe, C.O. and Olufolaji, A.D. (2012). Impact of deforestation on the economic activities of people in Okun area of Kogi state, Nigeria. *Continental Journal Agricultural Economics*. 6 (1):17, ISSN:214 1- 4130.
- [4]. Biomass Technology Group (BTG) (2010). Vos, J.,and Vis, M. Making charcoal production insub Sahara Africa sustainable. pp.1-59 .Available on

- www.btgworld.com. Accessed 15th of January, 2020.
- [5]. Bailey, R.T. and Blankenhorn, P.R, Wood science, 15(1), (2017), pp19-18
- [6]. Hines, D.A. and Eckman, K., Indigenous Multipurpose Trees of Tanzania: Uses and Economic Benefits for People, FO: Misc/93/9 Working Paper, FAO, Rome, (1993)
- [7]. Megahed, M. M.; M. L. El-Osta; H. A. Abou-Gazia and A. M. El-Baha, Properties of plantation grown leguminous species and their relation to utilization in Egypt. Menofiya Journal of Agricultural Research 23 (6), (1998), 1729-1751.
- [8]. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations- FAO, Charcoal for domestic and industrial use. FAO, Rome, (1962).
- [9]. Stimely, G. L. and Blankenhorn, P. R, Effects of species, specimen size and heating rate on charcoal yield and fuel properties. Wood and Fiber Sciences 17(4), (1985), 477-489.
- [10]. Massey, E. E. and Prima, S. D, The demand for charcoal in Dares Salaam Tanzania: An economic and environmental assessment. PREM report.(2005)
- [11]. Chidumayo, N. E. (2011). Environmental Impacts of Charcoal Production in Tropical Ecosystems of the World. Paper presented at the 2011 Annual Conference of the Association for Tropical Biology and Conservation, and society for Conservation Biology, June, 12-16,
- [12]. Cheng, Zhilong; Yang, Jian; Zhou, Lang; Liu, Yan; Wang, Qiuwang (1 January 2016). Characteristics of charcoal combustion and its effects on iron-ore sintering performance. Applied Energy. 161: 364–374. doi:10.1016/j.apenergy.2015.09.095.
- [13]. Kenneth L. Kosanke; Bonnie J. Kosanke (1999), "Pyrotechnic Spark Generation", Journal of Pyrotechnics: 49–62, ISBN 978-1-889526-12-6, archived from the original on 16 December 2017
- [14]. Ahmad, N; Isa, S.S.M.; Ramli, M.M.; Hambali, N.A.M.A.; Kasjoo, S.R.; Isa, M.M.; Nor, N.I.M.; Khalid, N. (2016). "Adsorption properties and potential applications of bamboo charcoal: A Review" (PDF). MATEC Web of Conferences. 78: 1–7. Archived from the original (PDF) on 24 July 2018. Retrieved 3 February 2018 – via edp sciences.
- [15]. Dawson, Andrew (1997). "Activated charcoal: a spoonful of sugar". Australian Prescriber. 20: 14–16. doi:10.18773/austprescr.1997.008.
- [16]. Treating flatulence. NHS. NHS UK. Retrieved 27 May 2012.
- [17]. charcoal: powdered, compressed, willow and vine. Muse Art and Design. Muse Art and Design. 7 September 2011. Archived from the original on 31 August 2012. Retrieved 27 May 2012.
- [18]. Johannes Lehmann, ed. (2009). Biochar for Environmental Management: Science and Technology. Stephen Joseph. Earthscan. ISBN 978-1-84407-658-1. Retrieved 30 December 2013.
- [19]. Gerlach, Achim; Schmidt, Hans-Peter (2014), "The use of biochar in cattle farming", The Biochar Journal, Arbaz, Switzerland, ISSN 2297-1114
- [20]. Yarrow, David (March 2015). "Biochar: Helping Everything from Soil Fertility to Odor Reduction". Acres U.S.A. Archived from the original on 9 June 2019. Retrieved 7 March 2019.
- [21]. Schupska Site=CAES News, Stephanie (10 March 2011). "Charcoal supplemented diet reduces ammonia in chickens' litter".
- [22]. Damerow, Gail (2015). The Chicken Health Handbook, 2nd Edition: A Complete Guide to Maximizing Flock Health and Dealing with Disease. p. 391. ISBN 978-1612120133.
- [23]. Stearn, Margaret (2007). Warts and all: straight talking advice on life's embarrassing problems. London: Murdoch Books. p. 333. ISBN 978-1-921259-84-5. Retrieved 3 May 2009. Am J Gastroenterology 2005 Feb 100(2)397–400 and 1999 Jan 94(1) 208-12
- [24]. Passali, Desiderio (1984). Experiences in the determination of nasal mucociliary transport time. Acta Otolaryngol. 97 (3–4): 319–23.
- [25]. Brooks, John K.; Bashirelahi, Nasir; Reynolds, Mark A. (7 June 2017). "Charcoal and charcoal-based dentifrices: A literature review". Journal of the American Dental Association. 148 (9): 661–670.