

Nitrogen Use Efficiency and maize productivity in the Guinea Savanna Agro-ecological Zone of Ghana

ABSTRACT

Blanket fertilizer recommendation for maize production in Ghana was made in 1960s. Due to changes in soil fertility and for economic reasons, farmers are adopting different fertilizer rates and in various combinations to produce maize. The efficiency of the applications and effect on maize productivity have been rarely investigated. The objective of the study was therefore to investigate maize productivity and the nitrogen use efficiency of the current recommended fertilizer rate for maize production and other rates and combinations of synthetic and organic fertilizers being used by farmers in the Guinea Savanna Agro-ecological Zone (GSAZ) of Ghana. In 2014 and 2015 cropping seasons, on-farm research on nitrogen use efficiency in maize (*Zea mays*, L.) production was conducted in five districts in the Guinea Savanna Agro-ecological Zone (GSAZ) in the Northern Region of Ghana. The research fields were laid out in a Randomized Complete Block Design with 16 treatments in three replications. The treatments consisted of the control (T₁), eight synthetic fertilizer treatments (T₂, T₃, T₄, T₅, T₁₀, T₁₁, T₁₂, and T₁₃) which were made up of various rates and combinations of the compound fertilizers (15-15-15 NPK and 23-10-05 NPK) and Sulphate of Ammonia fertilizers, six integrated treatments (T₆, T₇, T₈, T₉, T₁₄, and T₁₅) which were made up of combination of the various rates of the synthetic fertilizers and poultry manure, and T₁₆ which involved the application of only Sulphate of Ammonia. The soil analysis indicated that the five locations differed significantly ($P < 0.05$) in terms of pH, organic matter, total N, available P, exchangeable Ca, exchangeable Mg, Exchangeable Cation Exchange Capacity (ECEC), base saturation, and exchangeable acidity. Combined application of poultry manure and synthetic fertilizer recorded significantly higher maize grain yields of 2.15 – 2.76 t/ha. Maize grain yield differed significantly ($P < 0.05$) at the different locations. Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE) was significantly ($P < 0.05$) affected by treatments, location, and year. Treatments that involved the combined application of synthetic fertilizers and poultry manure recorded the least NUE values with T₆ recording the lowest figure of 2.14 ± 1.17 . Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE) was lower for synthetic + organic treatments because the total N was much higher for these treatments resulting in increased yields but at a decreasing rate. The NUE was significantly lower in 2015 than in 2014. Mognegu significantly recorded the lowest NUE (4.27 ± 0.75) compared with the other locations whilst Kanpong recorded the highest NUE of 19.3 ± 0.68 . Location and year interaction, affected NUE significantly ($P < 0.05$) but location and treatment interaction as well as treatment and year interactions did not affect NUE. Maximum maize grain yield can be obtained through the application of integrated nutrient management in the GSAZ of Ghana. Higher rates of nitrogen application resulted in lower NUE.

Key words: Nitrogen Use Efficiency, Nutrient Management, Productivity, Northern Region, Ghana, Guinea Savanna Agro-ecological Zone, Maize, Poultry Manure

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is the third most important crop after wheat and rice, widely cultivated in tropics, sub-tropics and temperate regions in both irrigated and semiarid conditions. It however, grows best under sub-tropical conditions of 21°C to 28°C and about 600 – 1200 mm of rain [1]. In Ghana, maize is the most important staple and food security crop and it accounts for more than 50% of total cereal production and the second important commodity crop in the country after cocoa [2]. It is cultivated in all agro-ecological zones of Ghana but grows best in deep and well-drained loamy soils (MoFA, 2005). Of all the major food crops grown in 2011, maize occupied the largest proportion of 24.9% in terms of total area cultivated [2]. Smallholder farmers produce 90% of maize in Ghana [4].

Maize has wider uses than any other cereal [5]. The bulk of maize produced in Ghana is consumed in every household and it is arguably the most important crop for cash and food security because every household in Ghana consumes it. It is estimated that 85% of all maize grown in Ghana is consumed by humans and the remaining 15% is used for the animal feed preparation (mainly poultry) [6]. It contributes about 20% of calories to the Ghanaian diet [7]. In 2000, the per capita consumption of maize in Ghana was estimated at 42.5 kg [8] and in 2011 at 43.8 kg/capita [2]. The national consumption of maize in Ghana was estimated at 1.96 million MT in 2017/2018 [9].

The development and productivity of livestock and poultry sectors in Ghana also depend on the maize value chain since maize is a major component of poultry and livestock feed. While there is no reliable data for corn used in animal feed, the government of Ghana (GOG) estimates that 15% (270,000 MT) of all corn grown in 2017/2018 in Ghana was used in the animal feed sector (mainly poultry) [10]. The increasing demand for poultry and poultry products as a source of

protein and the concomitant demand for maize as poultry feed ingredient requires corresponding increase in maize production to meet the demand. Northern Region is an important area for cereals, legumes, and livestock production and is considered as one of the breadbasket regions of Ghana [11] but the soil fertility has declined due to annual bushfires, continuous cropping and excessive leaching.

Maize is noted to be a heavy nutrient feeder and has been found to respond well to higher fertilizer application, particularly nitrogenous fertilizer in Northern Ghana [5]. For decades (since 1960s), however, the recommended rate of synthetic fertilizer application for maize production in Ghana has been basal application of 250 kg/ha of NPK 15-15-15 compound fertilizer and topdressing with 250 kg/ha of sulphate of ammonia [12, 3]. Even though soil fertility and climatic conditions have since changed in Ghana particularly in the Northern region, the recommended fertilizer rates for maize cultivation has not been revised. Moreover, increasing fertilizer prices and economic considerations have forced farmers to adopt various types and combinations of fertilizers to produce maize in this part of Ghana. Application of low rates of N is noted to negatively affect photosynthesis and transpiration rates thereby reducing crop yields [13]. Conversely, excessive application of N may also lead to low nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) which is defined as the efficiency with which applied nitrogen produces additional grain over the control [14], increase production cost, and reduce crop yield [15, 16]. This has been corroborated by [17] who argue that applying higher rates of N to increase crop productivity is not an effective strategy in agricultural ecosystems because that significantly reduces the NUE. Interaction effects of irrigation and nitrogen application on growth, yield, and NUE have been documented by [17] and [18]. [13] have also reported higher water and nitrogen use efficiencies with maximum irrigation confirming water and nitrogen as yield-limiting factors under drier

conditions. Unfortunately, no field studies have been conducted in recent years to establish the efficiency of the recommended fertilizer rate and other rates and combinations being adopted by farmers for maize production in Northern Ghana. The objective of the present study was to investigate maize productivity and the NUE of the current recommended fertilizer rate for maize production and other rates and combinations of synthetic and organic fertilizers being used by farmers in the Guinea Savanna Agro-ecological Zone (GSAZ) of Ghana.

2.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS

A multi-location on-farm farmer participatory research was conducted in the Northern Region of Ghana in five districts namely Central Gonja, East Gonja, Zabzugu, Tatale, and West Mamprusi in 2014 and 2015 cropping seasons. The specific locations of the study in the districts were Kanpong, Adamupe, Mognegu, Bidribombe, and Bugyakura, respectively. Soils in the locations fall in the Mimi, Kpelesawgu-changnalili, Sambu-pasga soil series and are classified by FAO as Planosols, Lixisols, and Plinthosols, respectively as presented in Table 1

Table 1: Classifications of soils at the the five research locations

#	DISTRICT	LOCATION	Soil Series	FAO Classification
1.	Tatale Sanguli	Bidribombe	Kpelesawgu-changnalili	Lixisols
2.	Zabzugu	Mognegu	Sambu-pasga	Plinthosols
3.	Central Gonja	Kanpong	Kpelesawgu-changnalili	Lixisols
4.	East Gonja	Adamupe	Sambu-pasga	Plinthosols
5.	West Mamprusi	Bugyakura	Mimi	Planosols

Source: [23]

Three hundred and seventy-two farmers comprising of 254 males (68.3%) and 118 females (31.7%) participated in the research from the five locations.

The research fields were laid out in a Randomized Complete Block Design with 16 treatments in three replications at each location. The plot size was 12 m long and 6 m wide, and were separated by 1 m alley with intrablock distance of 2 m. The maize seeds were planted at 80 cm x

40 cm and thinned to two plants per hill to achieve a plant population of about 62,500 plants per hectare. During both years, sixteen treatments (T₁, ..., T₁₆,) (Table 2) were applied at each of the five locations. The treatments were selected for the investigation based on the common maize production and fertilizer application practices of farmers in the Northern region and also based on the recommended fertilizer rates for maize production in Ghana.

Chemical analysis of the soil (0-30 cm) was conducted at the start of the experiment at the laboratory of the Soil Research Institute, Kwadaso, Kumasi using chromic acid oxidation method for organic carbon [19], Bray's method for available P [20], neutral ammonium acetate of 1 M with the help of a flame photometer to determine available and exchangeable K [21], Kjeldahl method for total N, exchangeable Ca and Mg were determined by the EDTA titration method [22], and soil pH using a calibrated pH meter of two buffer solutions [20].

Table 2: Description of the 16 research treatments and their nutrient equivalents

Treatment #	Treatment description (kg/ha)	Nutrient equivalent (kg/ha)			Nutrient equivalent (kg/ha)		
		N	P	K	N	P ₂ O ₅	K ₂ O
T ₁	Control - No fertilization	0	0	0	0	0	0
T ₂	250 kg of 23-10-5 + 125 kg of S/A	84	25	13	84	57	15
T ₃	250 kg of 23-10-5 + 250 kg of S/A	110	25	13	110	57	15
T ₄	250 kg of 15-15-15 + 125 kg of S/A	64	38	38	64	86	45
T ₅	250 kg of 15-15-15 + 250 kg of S/A	90	38	38	90	86	45
T ₆	250 kg of 23-10-5 + 125 kg of S/A + 4000 kg Poultry manure	230	78	39	230	178	47
T ₇	250 kg of 15-15-15 + 125 kg of S/A + 4000 kg Poultry manure	210	90	64	210	207	77
T ₈	187.5 kg of 23-10-5 + 125 kg of S/A + 4000 kg Poultry manure	216	72	36	216	164	43
T ₉	187.5 kg of 15-15-15 + 125 kg of S/A + 4000 kg Poultry manure	201	81	55	201	185	65
T ₁₀	125 kg of 23-10-5 + 125 kg of S/A	55	13	6	55	29	8
T ₁₁	125 kg of 23-10-5 + 125 kg of 23N-10P-5K	58	25	13	58	57	15

Treatment #	Treatment description (kg/ha)	Nutrient equivalent (kg/ha)			Nutrient equivalent (kg/ha)		
		N	P	K	N	P ₂ O ₅	K ₂ O
T ₁₂	250 kg of 23-10-5 + 125 kg of 23N-10P-5K	86	38	19	86	86	23
T ₁₃	125 kg of 15-15-15 + 125 kg of S/A	45	19	19	45	43	23
T ₁₄	125 kg of 23-10-5 + 125 kg of S/A + 4000 kg Poultry manure	201	65	33	201	150	39
T ₁₅	125 kg of 15-15-15 + 125 kg of S/A + 4000 kg Poultry manure	201	72	45	201	164	54
T ₁₆	125 kg of S/A only	26	0	0	26	0	0

S/A = Sulphate of Ammonia N= Nitrogen P = Phosphorus K = Potassium

Poultry manure composition = 3.66% N: 1.32% P: 0.66% K

T₅ is the current recommended fertilizer rate for maize production in Ghana

Land preparation was done by ploughing, followed by spraying the field with Sarosate [a.i glyphosate 360 g/l in the form of 480 g/l isopylamine salt of soluble liquid (SL)] to kill any surviving weeds on the field; and alligator 400 EC (a.i. Pendimethaline 400 g/l; EC) as pre-emergence herbicide immediately after planting.

Poultry manure was evenly spread on treatment respective plots and thoroughly incorporated into the soil with a hoe, seven days before planting. Three seeds were planted per hill using a dibbler. Seedlings were thinned to two plants per hill before fertilizer application. In both years, planting was done under rain-fed conditions. Manual weeding was done before top dressing (2nd fertilizer application) when weeds appeared. This helped to loosen the soil and to earthen up around the base of the plants. Weeds that appeared subsequently were hand-picked as and when necessary. Compound fertilizers were applied within the first two weeks after planting depending on the available soil moisture. Application of sulphate of ammonia as topdressing was done 4 weeks after planting.

Plant heights were measured at 30 and 60 days after planting (DAP) from the ground level to the tip of the plant and at harvest from the ground level to the point of the flag leaf using a graduated

wooden meter bar. Ten plants from the central rows in each plot were randomly selected and measured. Yield data was collected from the five (5) central rows of each plot post physiological maturity. Number of crops harvested from the 5 central rows were counted and recorded.

The Harvest Index (HI) was calculated by dividing grain yield (Economic yield) by the total biological yield.

The NUE was calculated using the formula described by [14] as

follows:
$$\frac{Y_N - Y_0}{N} \times 100$$

NUE =

Where Y_N is the grain yields (kg/ha) with applied nitrogen, Y_0 is the yield obtained without nitrogen application (the averaged control yield), and N is the amount of nitrogen applied (kg/ha) in the particular treatment. NUE is, therefore, the increase in grain yield per kilogram nitrogen applied.

Statistical analysis was done using Minitab v16.2.4.4 statistical package employing a two-sample t-test procedure. Mean grain yield was adjusted for by number of plants and cobs harvested.

3.0 RESULTS

3.1 Soil analysis

Results of the soil analysis at the five locations as presented in Table 3 indicated that the soils at the various sites were largely sandy loam except at Kanpong that falls in the loamy soil characterization. The soils at the locations showed significant ($P < 0.01$) differences in respect of all the soil properties analyzed except for exchangeable K ($P = 0.579$) and exchangeable Na ($P =$

160 0.718). The pH of the soils ranged from moderately acidic at Adamupe to slightly acidic at
161 Mognegu and neutral at Kanpong, Bugyakura, and Bidribombe [23].

162 **Table 3: Soil characteristics of the five research locations**

Location	Soil type	Soil pH	Organic Matter (%)	Total Nitrogen (%)	Available P (ppm)	Exchangeable Bases (cmol/kg)					Base Saturation	Exch. Acidity
						K	Ca	Mg	Na	ECEC		
Bidribombe	Sandy loam	6.55 ^b	1.69 ^{ab}	0.09 ^b	4.73 ^b	0.15 ^a	4.11 ^a	1.69 ^a	0.10 ^a	6.15 ^b	98.30 ^a	0.10 ^d
Mognegu	Sandy loam	6.38 ^c	1.84 ^a	0.10 ^a	5.53 ^b	0.21 ^a	4.47 ^a	1.95 ^a	0.11 ^a	6.92 ^a	97.24 ^b	0.19 ^a
Kanpong	Loam	6.73 ^a	1.15 ^c	0.07 ^c	4.81 ^b	0.20 ^a	2.97 ^b	1.27 ^b	0.13 ^a	4.69 ^c	97.16 ^b	0.13 ^c
Adamupe	Sandy loam	5.94 ^d	1.64 ^b	0.08 ^b	6.69 ^a	0.20 ^a	2.31 ^c	1.69 ^a	0.12 ^a	4.48 ^c	96.27 ^c	0.16 ^b
Bugyakura	Sandy loam	6.56 ^b	1.14 ^c	0.07 ^c	3.23 ^c	0.13 ^a	3.45 ^b	1.06 ^b	0.07 ^a	4.88 ^c	96.17 ^c	0.17 ^{ab}
P- Value	-	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.579	0.000	0.000	0.718	0.000	0.000	0.000

163
164 **Means that do not share a letter are significantly different**

166 **3.2 Plant height**

167 Treatments significantly ($P = 0.0001$) influenced plant height at various growth stages. Beyond 60 DAP, all treatments increased
168 marginally except that of T₁₆ which recorded significant increase of 25 cm. Consistently, Treatments T₁₆ and T₁ recorded the shortest
169 plant heights throughout the growth period (Table 4).

The difference in plant height between plants of Treatments T₁ and T₁₆ were not significant ($P > 0.05$) at 30 and 60 DAP but otherwise ($P < 0.05$) at harvest. The poultry manure-treated plots (T₆, T₇, T₈, and T₉,) supported tallest plant heights during the growth period. The differences in plant heights between the poultry manure treatments at all the growth stages were not significant ($P > 0.05$).

Table 4: Effect of treatments on plant height from 30 to 110 DAP

Treatments	Plant height (m)		
	Days After Planting (DAP)		
	30	60	110
T ₁	0.63 ^d	1.37 ^e	1.49 ^d
T ₂	0.78 ^{abcd}	1.78 ^{bc}	1.93 ^{bc}
T ₃	0.9 ^{abcd}	1.89 ^{abc}	1.95 ^{ab}
T ₄	0.93 ^{abcd}	1.9 ^{abc}	1.94 ^{bc}
T ₅	0.88 ^{abcd}	1.91 ^{abc}	1.98 ^{ab}
T ₆	0.95 ^{ab}	2.05 ^a	2.10 ^{ab}
T ₇	0.99 ^{ab}	2.06 ^a	2.12 ^{ab}
T ₈	0.96 ^a	2.06 ^a	2.07 ^{ab}
T ₉	0.95 ^{ab}	2.04 ^{ab}	2.15 ^a
T ₁₀	0.81 ^{abcd}	1.89 ^{abc}	2.02 ^{ab}
T ₁₁	0.87 ^{bcd}	1.87 ^{abc}	1.98 ^{ab}
T ₁₂	0.83 ^{abcd}	1.83 ^{abc}	1.97 ^{ab}
T ₁₃	0.85 ^{bcd}	1.75 ^{cd}	1.95 ^{ab}
T ₁₄	0.91 ^{abc}	1.9 ^{abc}	2.00 ^{ab}
T ₁₅	0.88 ^{abcd}	1.8 ^{abc}	1.93 ^{bc}
T ₁₆	0.71 ^{cd}	1.49 ^{de}	1.74 ^c
<i>P-Value</i>	<i>0.000</i>	<i>0.000</i>	<i>0.000</i>
n	15	15	15
SEM*	0.04	0.06	0.04

Values are least square means $\pm$ SEM

Means that do not share a letter are significantly different

* SEM = Standard Error of the Means

3.3 Grain yield

All the treatments that included poultry manure (T_6 , T_7 , T_8 , T_9 , T_{14} , and T_{15}) produced significantly ($P < 0.0001$) higher grain yield than the rest of the treatments without poultry manure (Table 6). The pooled results indicated that T_6 produced the highest grain yield (2591.85 kg/ha) whilst T_{10} recorded the least grain yield of 1887.87 kg/ha. Differences among the poultry manure treatments were generally not significant ($P > 0.05$) except for the 2014 and 2015 pooled data where T_6 and T_8 differed significantly ($P < 0.05$) from T_{15} and in 2015 where T_6 again differed from T_{15} . The mean grain yields for 2014 were generally lower than 2015 even though rainfall in 2015 was less.

There was significant ($P < 0.0001$) differences in grain yields among locations in 2014 and 2015 (Table 5). The pooled data of 2014 and 2015 did not, however, show significant differences among Mognegu, Adamupe, and Kanpong locations. Similarly, grain yields at Bidribombe, Kanpong, and Bugyakura were statistically similar. Grain yield obtained from Mognegu location was, however, significantly different from Bugyakura and Bidribombe locations.

3.4 Harvest Index (H. I.)

Treatments significantly ($P < 0.0001$) affected H. I. with poultry manure treatments recording significantly ($P < 0.0001$) greater H. I. compared to the other treatments, but the integrated treatment effects were not statistically different from each other. The performance of T_1 and T_{16} were not statistically different (Figure 1).

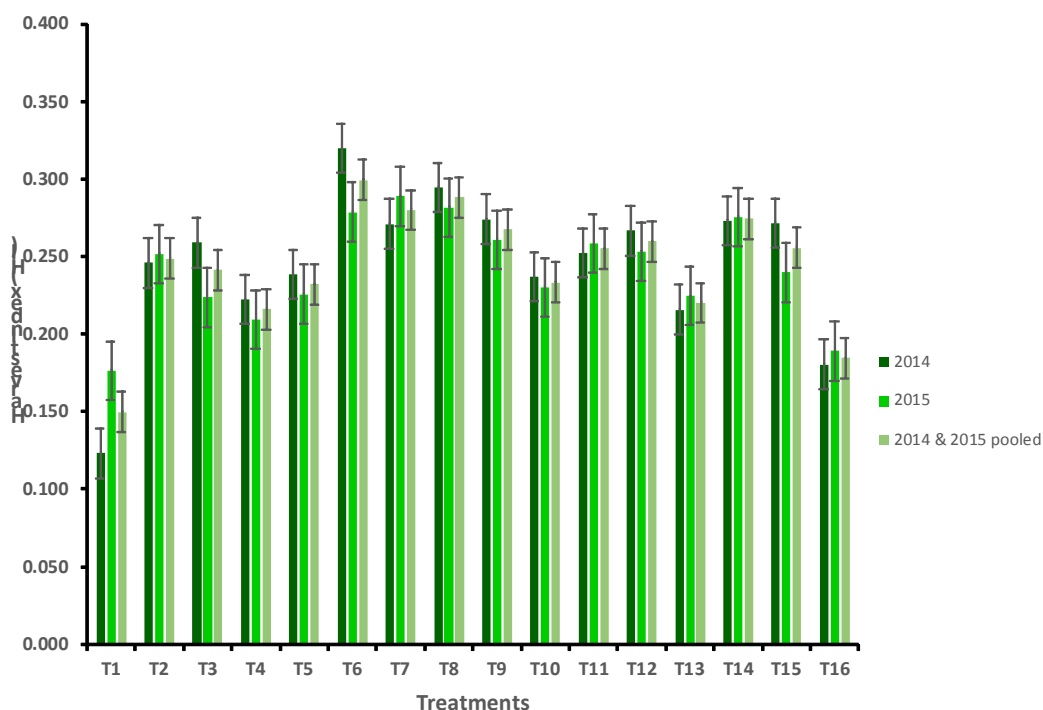


Figure 1: Effect of treatment on Harvest Index (H. I.) of maize during 2014 and 2015 cropping seasons

Values represent least square means

Bars represent standard error of the means

Table 5: Comparative maize grain yield performances at the five locations in 2014 and 2015

Location	Grain yield (kg/ha)						% change in grain yield (kg/ha)
	2014 & 2015	SEM*	2014	SEM	2015	SEM	
Bidribombe	1987.70 ^c	54.10	1802.87 ^d	± 69.28	2172.53 ^{bc}	± 73.11	20.50
Mognegu	2336.78 ^a	52.11	2628.21 ^a	± 66.66	2045.35 ^{cd}	± 67.61	-22.18
Kanpong	2162.06 ^{abc}	42.78	2183.17 ^{bc}	± 58.46	2140.94 ^{bc}	± 61.93	-1.93
Adamupe	2223.84 ^{ab}	48.07	2229.68 ^{bc}	± 62.88	2218.00 ^{bc}	± 61.79	-0.52
Bugyakura	2084.78 ^{bc}	47.82	1787.89 ^d	± 59.43	2381.67 ^{ab}	± 66.66	33.21
<i>P-value</i>	0.000		0.000		0.000		
<i>n</i>	96		48		48		

The values represent the least square means

Means that do not share a letter within 2014 & 2015 column and within the 2014 and 2015 columns are significantly ($P < 0.0001$) different

* SEM = Standard Error of the Means

Mean grain yield was adjusted for by number of plants and cobs harvested

213 Table 6: Effect of Treatments on grain yield during 2014 and 2015 cropping seasons

Treatment	Grain Yield (kg/ha)						% change in grain yield (kg/ha) from 2014 to 2015
	2014 & 2015 pooled	SEM*	2014	SEM	2015	SEM	
T ₁	2117.78 ^{bc}	± 91.59	1693 ^{de}	± 137.74	1967 ^{cdef}	± 136.73	16.18
T ₂	2002.71 ^c	± 68.74	1981 ^{cde}	± 111.42	2020 ^{def}	± 99.31	1.97
T ₃	2144.44 ^{bc}	± 68.89	2043 ^{bcde}	± 107.15	2186 ^{bcdef}	± 100.43	7.00
T ₄	1953.89 ^c	± 68.64	1866 ^{cde}	± 105.04	1965 ^{ef}	± 99.99	5.31
T ₅	1990.51 ^c	± 68.55	2041 ^{bcde}	± 105.74	1961 ^{ef}	± 99.73	-3.92
T ₆	2591.85 ^a	± 71.58	2668 ^a	± 107.85	2766 ^a	± 104.37	3.67
T ₇	2443.70 ^{ab}	± 72.40	2543 ^{ab}	± 109.65	2512 ^{abcd}	± 108.04	-1.22
T ₈	2559.34 ^a	± 71.85	2650 ^a	± 110.95	2656 ^{ab}	± 106.57	0.23
T ₉	2412.63 ^{ab}	± 71.30	2533 ^{ab}	± 107.32	2526 ^{abc}	± 104.67	-0.28
T ₁₀	1887.87 ^c	± 69.11	1875 ^{cde}	± 107.14	1947 ^{ef}	± 99.79	3.84
T ₁₁	1924.80 ^c	± 68.70	1825 ^{de}	± 104.76	1986 ^{ef}	± 99.54	8.82
T ₁₂	2147.24 ^{bc}	± 68.80	2225 ^{abcd}	± 106.20	2132 ^{cdef}	± 99.90	4.18
T ₁₃	1927.35 ^c	± 68.62	1893 ^{cde}	± 106.93	1839 ^f	± 100.39	-2.85
T ₁₄	2366.71 ^{ab}	± 69.70	2357 ^{abc}	± 106.48	2422 ^{abcde}	± 101.08	2.78
T ₁₅	2153.84 ^{bc}	± 68.92	2187 ^{abcde}	± 107.50	2224 ^{bcdef}	± 100.65	1.69
T ₁₆	1919.86 ^c	± 72.22	1660 ^e	± 114.18	1941 ^{cdef}	± 119.50	16.93
<i>P-value</i>	<i>0.000</i>		<i>0.000</i>		<i>0.000</i>		
<i>n</i>	<i>30</i>		<i>15</i>		<i>15</i>		

214 Values are least square means.

215 Means that do not share a letter within a column are significantly different

216 * SEM = Standard Error of the Means

217 Mean grain yield was adjusted for by number of plants and number of cobs harvested.

3.5 Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE)

Kanpong recorded the highest NUE of 19.3 kg. This was statistically similar to Bidribombe (18.75 kg) and Adamupe (18.41 kg) values but significantly ($P < 0.0001$) higher than at Bugyakura (15.32 kg) and Mognegu (4.27 kg), which recorded the least efficiency.

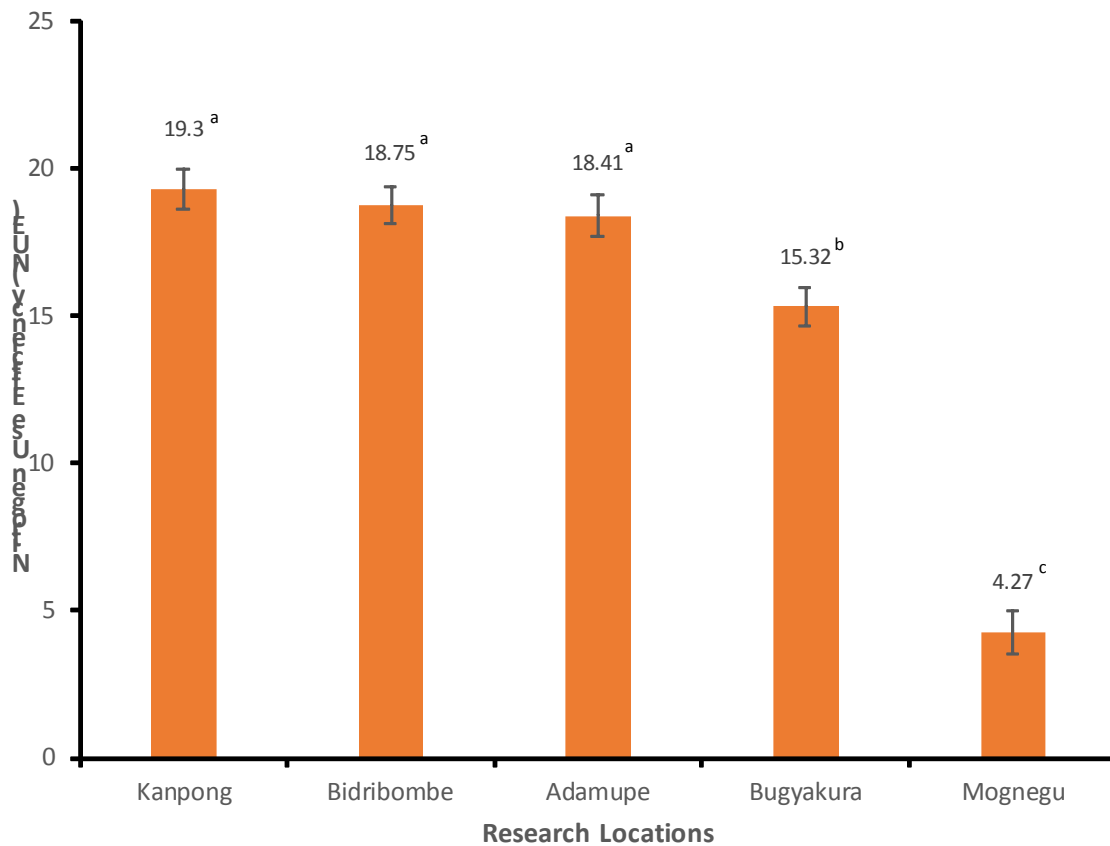


Figure 2: Nitrogen Use Efficiency at five locations

Values are least square means

Bars represent standard error of the means

Means that do not share a letter are significantly different

230 **Table 7: Nitrogen Use Efficiency of 15 treatments compared with the control**

Treatment	NUE	SEM*
T ₂	18.57 ^{cd}	± 1.11
T ₃	14.71 ^d	± 1.10
T ₄	22.62 ^{bc}	± 1.12
T ₅	17.58 ^{cd}	± 1.11
T ₆	2.14 ^f	± 1.17
T ₇	3.43 ^{ef}	± 1.16
T ₈	2.79 ^{ef}	± 1.17
T ₉	4.71 ^{ef}	± 1.14
T ₁₀	25.41 ^{ab}	± 1.12
T ₁₁	26.05 ^{ab}	± 1.11
T ₁₂	18.52 ^{cd}	± 1.10
T ₁₃	30.38 ^a	± 1.12
T ₁₄	5.74 ^{ef}	± 1.12
T ₁₅	7.97 ^e	± 1.10
T ₁₆	27.50 ^{ab}	± 1.24
P- value	0.000	
n	30	

231 Means that do not share a letter are significantly different

232 * SEM = Standard Error of the Means

233

234 The greatest and the least NUEs were recorded by T₁₃ and T₆, respectively (Table 7).

235 Generally, integrated nutrient treatments recorded lower NUE. The NUE was significantly (P <

236 0.0001) lower in 2015 than in 2014 (Figure 3).

237

238

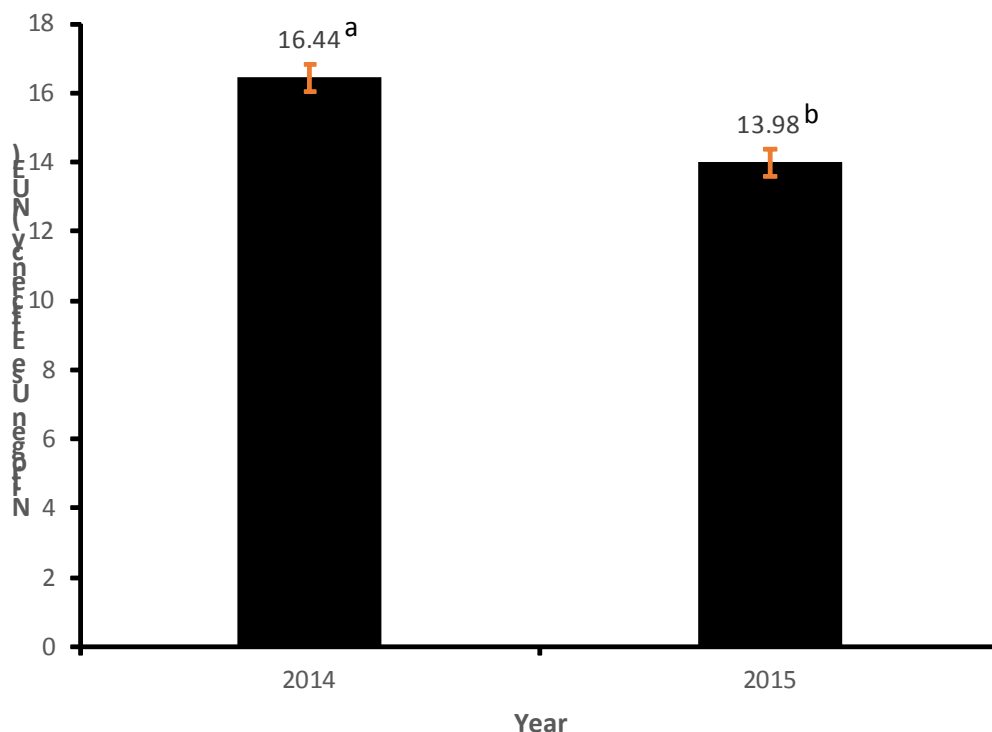


Figure 3: Comparison of Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE) in 2014 and 2015

Values are least square means

Bars represent standard error of the means

Means that do not share a letter are significantly different

3.6 Interaction Effects on Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE)

Location and treatments interaction as well as treatments and year interaction did not significantly ($P = 0.506$ and $P = 0.849$, respectively) affect the NUE. **Location** and year interaction, however, affected NUE significantly ($P = 0.001$) (Table 8).

254 **Table 8:** Location and year interaction effect on Nitrogen Use Efficiency at the **five** research locations

Location	Year				% change in NUE from 2014 to 2015
	2014	SEM*	2015	SEM	
Bidribombe	18.85 ^a	± 0.90	18.64 ^a	± 0.90	1.11
Mognegu	7.95 ^c	± 1.04	0.59 ^d	± 0.94	92.58
Kanpong	20.09 ^a	± 0.92	18.51 ^a	± 0.95	7.86
Adamupe	18.70 ^a	± 0.93	18.12 ^{ab}	± 0.94	3.10
Bugyakura	16.61 ^{ab}	± 0.91	14.02 ^b	± 0.96	15.59
P- value	0.001		0.001		-
n	48				

255 Values are least square means.

256 Means that do not share a letter are significantly different

257 * SEM = Standard Error of the Means

258

259 The NUE at Mognegu was significantly (P = 0.001) the lowest in 2014 and 2015 and recorded
260 highest decline of 92.58% from 2014 to 2015.

261 **4.0 DISCUSSION**

262 **4.1 Soil Analysis**

263 Analysis of the soils at the various locations indicated that the soils vary significantly from one
264 another in their soil properties. This means that application of the same nutrient management
265 practices at all the locations will not yield the same results. Fertilizer recommendation and
266 nutrient management practices should, therefore, be location specific. The sandy nature of the
267 soils with low organic matter content at the locations means that the soils would generally be
268 susceptible to leaching and nutrient loss without proper soil management practices.

269 The pH of the soils at all the locations ranging between 5.94 and 6.73 indicates that the soils are
270 mildly acidic, which can support cultivation of many crops. This is because plants generally

prefer soils that have pH close to either side of neutrality as most nutrients are available in the pH range of 5.5 – 6.5 [20]. The pH range recorded will also promote soil microbial population and activity. The relatively low soil pH of the soils at Adamupe (5.94) and Mognegu (6.38) as compared to the pH levels at Kanpong, Bugyakura, and Bidribombe could be attributed to leaching of bases and continuous application of sulphate of ammonia at the two sites in previous cropping seasons. According to [24], application of ammonium sulphate fertilizer tends to leave a slight acidic residue after the cropping season in most of the soils in the Guinea Savannah Agro ecological Zone (GSAZ). The soil pH and organic matter content of the soils at the research locations are within the ranges reported by [25]. The percent total N content (0.07 – 0.10) of the soils at the locations being higher than the reported range (0.02-0.05) for soils in the Northern region could be attributable to favourable pH recorded at the sites which promotes microbial activities and ensures nutrient availability. Even though the Exchangeable Cation Exchange Capacity (ECEC) at the different locations showed significant differences, the levels were low. The low levels is attributable to the low clay and organic matter content of the soils. This means that the soils can retain less cations. The low levels was, however, not expected to pose any aluminum toxicity or soil acidity problem because the exchangeable acidity levels were also low. Generally, Mognegu recorded the highest values in most of the soil properties analysed (organic matter, N, K, Mg, and ECEC) and second to Adamupe in the case of P. It can, therefore, be concluded that Mognegu was the most fertile site which was expected to support improved crop growth and yield than the other sites *ceteris paribus*.

4.2 Plant height

Plant height is an indicator of vegetative growth. The consistently higher than 175 cm maize plant height recorded by all the treatments except for T₁ and T₁₆ across the five (5) locations

means that the various treatments provided the right nutrients to stimulate good vegetative growth. Conversely, the shorter plants recorded by T₁ and T₁₆ is an indication that both failed to supply adequate plant nutrients for good plant growth. This means that even though the soils at the locations had higher total N content (0.07 – 0.10) than the reported range (0.02-0.05) for soils in the Northern region, the levels were still not enough to promote good vegetative growth. In 2005, [3] recorded average (potential) plant height of 175 cm for Obatanpa maize variety from across 8-10 trial stations. This suggests that given proper nutrition, Obatanpa can grow taller than 175 cm.

The significantly taller maize plants recorded by the integrated (poultry manure and synthetic fertilizers) plots (T₆, T₇, T₈, T₉, T₁₄, and T₁₅) irrespective of the levels and types of synthetic fertilizers applied, means that the poultry manure helped the plant to make efficient use of the nutrients supplied by the synthetic fertilizers. The better growth of the integrated nutrient treated plants could also be attributed to the higher total N for those treatments. The findings agree with [26] who observed positive effect of integrated nutrient management on maize leaf area and plant height, and [27] who also recorded significant increases in maize plant height, leaf number, and Leaf Area Index with combination of farm yard manure (FYM) and mineral fertilizer under irrigation. The fact that the integrated plots did not significantly differ from one another is a demonstration that once poultry manure is applied to maize at a rate of 4 t/ha, application of the recommended compound fertilizer rate of 250 kg/ha NPK can be reduced to 187.5 kg/ha and still achieve optimum maize plant height.

The consistently shorter and slender plants produced by the control (T₁) confirms the fact that plant nutrients are necessary for plant growth [28, 29] and that insufficient plant nutrients are responsible for limiting crop growth. The results, undoubtedly, confirms the need for maize

fertilization in the Northern region of Ghana. This is further confirmed by the fact that T₁₆ plants which received only topdressing with 125 kg/ha of sulphate of ammonia at 4-6 weeks after planting recorded significantly taller plants after the application of the ammonia.

4.3 Grain yield

Generally, the maize grain yields were influenced significantly by the various treatments of the synthetic and organic fertilization. The consistently lower grain yields recorded by T₁ (control – no fertilization) and T₁₆ (application of 125 kg of Sulphate of Ammonia only) is attributed to inadequate nutrition. Nutrient deficiencies have been reported to cause changes in physiological and biochemical processes that result in growth retardation, delayed development as well as qualitative and quantitative yield reduction [30]. This was observed in the field as the T₁ plants looked stunted with yellowish coloration. Nitrogen is important for the synthesis of protein and nucleic acid and an essential constituent of other compounds needed for plant growth processes such as chlorophyll and many enzymatic processes [31]. It affects growth negatively when it is sub-optimal [32]. Even though T₁₆ appeared better than T₁, both effects were statistically similar implying that application of 125 kg/ha of S/A to maize at the latter growth stage was inadequate and uneconomical. It further demonstrates that adequate and timely application of nutrients is critical to ensure good plant growth and yield and that delayed application could not reverse damage caused by nutrient deficiencies. The result is consistent with [5] and [24] who reported that maize grain yields in the GSAZ of Ghana are low and uneconomical when cultivated without fertilizers.

The consistently higher grain yields recorded by the application 250 kg/ha 23-10-05-NPK and 125 kg/ha Sulphate of Ammonia (T₂) as compared to the same rate of 15-15-15 NPK plus the sulphate of ammonia (T₄) can partly be explained by the higher levels of N in 23-10-05 NPK

340 than 15-15-15 NPK that resulted in greener coloration and chlorophyll development for
341 production of photosynthates in the maize plants. The improved yields obtained from T₆ and T₇
342 as compared to the synthetic fertilizer alone in T₂ and T₄, could also be due to the poultry
343 manure that enhanced soil available nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium as was observed by
344 [33]. The trend is a demonstration that application of the synthetic fertilizers alone failed to meet
345 the nutrient requirements of the maize plants. Besides supplying macro and other micronutrients,
346 organic sources are also noted to make available the unavailable sources of elemental nitrogen,
347 bound phosphates, micronutrients and decomposed plant residues to aid absorption of nutrients
348 by the plants [34, 35] and ensuring proper functioning of the plant metabolism [27] for improved
349 crop growth, stover yield, and general crop performance. The significantly improved grain yields
350 recorded for treatments that included poultry manure (T₆, T₇, T₈, T₉, T₁₄, and T₁₅) confirms the
351 observation by [28], [36] and [37] that increased application of organic and synthetic fertilizers
352 in developing countries could enhance the environment and increase crop yields. The results also
353 agree with the view expressed by [38] that unless farmers in the GSAZ of Ghana ameliorated
354 their soils, maize production was not profitable and sustainable. The ability of poultry manure to
355 improve the soil physical conditions by acting as a binding agent might have helped to improve
356 water retention, aeration, and nutrient availability and thus contributing to better performance in
357 2015 even when total rainfall was low. Elsewhere, other researchers [39, 40, 41, and 42]
358 demonstrated that various soil amendments improved yields and productivity of various crops
359 under water-stressed conditions. The improved mean grain yields in 2015 over 2014 could be
360 attributed to the residual effects of the various treatments. The non-burning of crop residue on
361 the fields could have also contributed to organic matter build up and hence the general improved
362 yields recorded in 2015 even though rainfall was lower.

The yield differences observed among the locations could be attributed to the differences in soil chemical properties and the different rainfall amounts (not shown) recorded at the different locations. The high grain yield obtained at Mognegu location in 2014 and when data was pooled together could be explained by the high initial organic matter and total N content of the soil which might have significantly contributed to meeting the nutrient requirements of the plants for optimum growth and yield

4.4 Nitrogen Use Efficiency

The Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE) varied significantly at the different locations because the inherent Nitrogen levels of the soils differed from each other. The soils with lower fertility recorded the highest NUE indicating that better responses are obtained from application of Nitrogen when the soil is poor in fertility. The higher NUE recorded at Kanpong means that application of N at Kanpong was more efficient than at all the other locations and the high responsive yields to N use at the location can be attributed to the lower soil fertility status as compared to the more fertile locations particularly Mognegu which had higher initial total N and organic matter. This probably means that the total applied N was near the optimum requirements by the plant.

NUE was lower for synthetic + organic treatments because the total N was much higher for these treatments. Consequently, the integrated treatments increased maize grain yields but at a decreasing rate as the total N increased.

The general decline in NUE from 2014 to 2015 is attributable to the residual effect of the treatments applied in 2014 which might have further improved the N content of the soil thereby

reducing the efficiency of the N applied in 2015. Again, the general low rainfall recorded in 2015 might have affected N uptake from soil and the ability of the crop to make efficient use of all the applied N for growth and production of crop harvests. This agrees with [43] who reported reduction in morpho-physiological and biochemical attributes of maize when maize experienced drought conditions at tasseling stage. The findings is also in line with [13] who recorded higher nitrogen use efficiencies with maximum irrigation.

Failure of treatments and location interaction as well as treatments and year interaction to significantly influence NUE means that irrespective of the location or the year of application, a particular treatment will produce the same efficiency *ceteris paribus*. However, the significance of location and year interaction effect on NUE is explained by the differences in the amount of rainfall at the various locations and the growth stage of the crop during which the water deficit occurred. According to [44] and [43] the negative effect of water deficit on maize production is more pronounced during reproductive stages.

5.0 CONCLUSION

The integrated treatments (T₆, T₇, T₈, T₉, T₁₄, and T₁₅) performed better in respect of plant growth, grain yield, and harvest index than treatments that involved application of only synthetic fertilizers. Even halving the quantities of the current recommended fertilizer rates and combining with 4 t/ha of poultry manure (T₁₅) yielded better results. The 23-10-05 NPK compound fertilizers resulted in superior yields and general performance than 15-15-15 NPK fertilizer in all combinations.

Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE) was lower for synthetic + organic treatments because the total N was much higher for these treatments resulting in increased yields but at a decreasing rate. NUE

decreased with continuous application of fertilizers and manures and increased soil fertility. Fertilizer application should therefore take into consideration inherent fertility of the soil. The results of the research underscore the need to promote integration of synthetic and organic fertilizers to promote maize production in the GSAZ of Ghana. It also emphasizes the need for the government to introduce interventions such as fertilizer subsidy programmes that make both organic and synthetic fertilizers available to smallholder maize farmers at affordable rates. Fertilizer subsidy programmes should therefore not be limited to synthetic fertilizers to promote integrated nutrient management.

REFERENCES

- [1]. Pandey, S. N. and Chadha, A. (2008). A textbook of Botany (Plant Anatomy and Economic Botany) Volume III. Vikas Publishing House PVT Ltd. pp. 309-312.
- [2]. MoFA (2011a). Ministry of Food and Agriculture 2011 Annual Report.
- [3]. MoFA (2005). Maize production guide. Food Crops Development Project (FCDP)
- [4]. Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa (AGRA) (2016). Business plan for Ghana 2016-2020 document.
- [5]. Council for Scientific and Industrial Research/Savanna Agricultural Research Institute (CSIR-SARI) (2011). Annual report 2011
- [6]. Angelucci, F. (2012). Analysis of incentives and disincentives for maize in Ghana. Technical notes series, Monitoring African Food and Agricultural Policies (MAFAP), FAO, Rome.
- [7]. Braimoh, A. K., and Vlek, P. L. G. (2006). Soil quality and other factors influencing maize yield in Northern Ghana. Soil Use and Management. 22 (2):165-171. www.wajae.org
- [8]. MoFA (2000). Food and Agriculture Sector Development Policy (FASDEP I). pp. 55

- [9]. Index Mundi (2018). Ghana corn domestic consumption by year. Accessed from:
<https://www.indexmundi.com/agriculture/?country=gh&commodity=corn&graph=domestic-consumption>. Date Accessed: [30th April 2018]
- [10]. USDA (2018). USDA Foreign Agricultural Service. Global Agricultural Information Network (GAIN) Report.
http://agriexchange.apeda.gov.in/marketreport/Reports/Grain_and_Feed_Update_Accra_Ghana_2-2-2018.pdf Date accessed: 30th April 2018
- [11]. MoFA and AGRA (2010). Breadbasket Transformation of Ghana's Northern Region. Final document. July 2010
- [12]. Ragasa, C., Dankyi, A., Acheampong, P., Wiredu, A. N., Chapo-to, A., Asamoah, M., and Tripp, R. (2013). Patterns of Adoption of Improved Maize Technologies in Ghana. IFPRI Working Paper 36, July 2013. Ghana Strategy Support Program
- [13]. Ashraf, U., Salim, M. N., Asher, A. Sabir, S. ur. R, Khan, A., Pan, S., and Tang, X. (2016). Maize growth, yield formation and water-nitrogen usage in response to varied irrigation and nitrogen Supply under semi-arid climate. Turkish Journal of Field Crops 21(1): 87-95
- [14]. Dobermann, A. (2007). Nutrient use efficiency-measurement and management. In: Proceedings of the IFA International Workshop on Fertilizer Best Management Practices, 7-9 March 2007, Brussels, Belgium.
- [15]. Gheysari, M., Mirlatifi, S. M., Bannayan, M., Homaei, M., and Hoogenboom, G. (2009). Interaction of water and nitrogen on maize grown for silage. Agriculture and Water Management 96:809-821.
- [16]. Di Paolo, E. and Rinaldi, M. (2008). Yield response of corn to irrigation and nitrogen fertilization in a Mediterranean environment. Field Crops Research 105:202–210.

- [17]. Hammad, H.M., Ahmad, A., Abbas, F., and Farhad, W. (2012). Optimizing water and nitrogen use for maize production under semiarid conditions. *Turkish Journal of Agriculture and Forestry* 36: 519-532.
- [18]. Khaliq, T., Ahmad, A., Hussain, A., and Ali, M. A. (2009). Maize hybrids response to nitrogen rates at multiple locations in semiarid environment. *Pakistan Journal of Botany* 41:207-224.
- [19]. Walkley, A. J. and Black, I. A. (1934). Estimation of soil organic carbon by the chromic acid titration method. *Soil Science* 37: 29-38
- [20]. FAO (2008). Guide to laboratory establishment for plant nutrient analysis. FAO fertilizer and plant nutrition bulletin 19. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Rome, 2008.
- [21]. Toth, S. J. and Prince, A. L. (1949). Estimation of cation exchange capacity and exchangeable Ca, K, and Na contents of soils by flamephotometric techniques. *Soil Science* 67: 439-444
- [22]. Cheng, K. L. and Bray, R. H. (1951). Determination of calcium and magnesium in soil and plant material. *Soil Science* 72:449-458
- [23]. Soil Research Institute (2015). Soil Research Institute (CSIR) laboratory analysis guide, 2015. Soil Research Institute, Kwadaso, Kumasi.
- [24]. Nyankpala Agricultural Research Station (NARS) (1993). Report 9: Farm household systems in Northern Ghana. Edited by Arthur Runge-Metzger and Lothar Diehl. Research approach at the Nyankpala Agricultural Research Station. (G. Schimidt and H. Mercer-Quarshie). 3-8:36-38

- [25]. MoFA (2011b). Agriculture in Ghana. Facts and Figures (2010). Ministry of Food and Agriculture. Statistics, Research and Information Directorate (SRID). May, 2011
- [26]. Kannan, R. L., Dhivya, M., Abinaya, D., Krishna, R. L., and Kumar, S. K. (2013). Effect of Integrated Nutrient Management on Soil Fertility and Productivity in Maize. Bulletin of Environment, Pharmacology and Life Sciences 2 (8): 61-67.
- [27]. Haq, S. A. (2006). Integrated Nutrient Management in Maize (*Zea mays*, L.) Under Irrigated Agro-ecosystem of Kashmir Valley. M.Sc. Research Thesis.
- [28]. Kumar, V. and Chopra, A. K. (2014). Ferti-irrigational impact of sugar mill effluent on agronomical characteristics of *Phaseolus vulgaris*, L. in two seasons. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment 186(11):7877-7892.
- [29]. Dubey, R., Sharma, R. S., and Dubey, D. P. (2014). Effect of organic, synthetic and integrated nutrient management on crop productivity, water productivity and soil properties under various rice-based cropping systems in Madhya Pradesh, India. International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences 3(2): 381-389
- [30]. Saxena, R. and Diwakar, R. (2012). Biochemical analysis of chlorophyll content of brinjal leaves. VEGETOS 25(2): 83-85
- [31]. Gallais, A. and Hirel, B. (2004). An approach to the genetics of nitrogen use efficiency in maize. Journal of Experimental Botany 55:295-306
- [32]. Hague, M. M, Hamid, A., and Bhuiyan, N. I. (2001). Nutrient uptake and productivity as affected by nitrogen and potassium application levels in maize/sweet potato intercropping systems. Korean Journal of Crop Science 46(1): 1-5

- [33]. Kumar, V. and Chopra, A. K. (2013). The effects of sugar mill effluent on hybrid cultivar of faba bean (*Vicia faba* L.) and soil properties. *International Journal of Biotechnology Research* 1(6): 91-102
- [34]. Varalakshmi, L. R., Shrinivasamurthy, C. A., and Bhaskar, S. (2005). Effect of integrated use of organic manures and synthetic fertilizers on organic carbon, available N, P, and K sustaining productivity of groundnut-finger millet cropping systems. *Journal of the Indian Society of Soil Science* 53(3): 351-358
- [35]. Kumar, V. and Chopra, A. K. (2011). Impact on physico-chemical characteristics of soil after irrigation with distillery effluent. *Archives of Applied Science Research* 3(4):63-77
- [36]. Das, A., Prasad, M., Shivay, Y. S., and Subha, K. M. (2004). Productivity and Sustainability of cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.)-wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) cropping systems as influenced by prilled urea, FYM and Azotobacter. *Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science* 190(5): 298-304
- [37]. Chatha, T. H., Haya, R., and Latif, I. (2002). Influence of sewage sludge and organic manures application on wheat yield and heavy metal availability. *Asian Journal of Plant Science* 1:79-81
- [38]. Baba, I. I. Y., Abdulai, M., Haruna, M., Wiredu, A. N., and Mawunya, M. (2013). Influence of Staymoist on soil water stress management and productivity of maize in Guinea Savanna Zone of Ghana. *International Journal of Advance Agricultural Research* 1(2013): 74-86
- [39]. Li, R. J., Stroud, J. L., Ma, F. J., McGrath, S. P. and Zhao, F. J. (2009). Mitigation of arsenic accumulation with rice, water management and silicon fertilization. *Environmental Science Technology* 43(10):3778-3783

- 519 [40]. Sojka, R. E. and Entry, J. A. (2000). Influence of polyacrylamide application to soil on
520 movement of microorganisms in runoff water. *Environmental Pollution* 3:406-422.
- 521 [41]. Prado, A. G. S. and Claudio, A. (2000). Immobilization of Pesticide 2,4-
522 dichlorophenoxyacetate Acid on a silicon gel surface. *Pest Management Science* 56: 419-
523 424
- 524 [42]. Johnson, M. S. (1985). Degradation of water absorbing polymers used as soil amendments.
525 *Arab Gulf Journal Research* 3: 745-750
- 526 [43]. Anjum, S. A., Wang, L.C., Farooq, M., Hussain, M., Xue, L. L. and Zou, C. M. (2011).
527 Brassinolide application improves the drought tolerance in maize through modulation of
528 enzymatic antioxidants and leaf gas exchange. *Journal of Agronomy of Crop Science* 197:
529 177-185.
- 530 [44]. Gheysari, M., Loescher, H. W., Sadeghi, S. H., Mirlatifi, S. M., Zareian, M. J., and
531 Hoogenboom, G. (2015). Water-Yield Relations and Water Use Efficiency of Maize Under
532 Nitrogen Fertigation for Semiarid Environments: Experiment and Synthesis. In: Sparks, D.
533 L. (Ed.). *Advances in Agronomy* 130:175–229.