

Fruit based agroforestry systems - potential means for sustaining carbon sequestration, improving soil health and diet of community in red and lateritic zone of West Bengal, India

Pinakesh Das, Pratap Kumar Dhara, Subhabrata Panda

Abstract— Fruit-based agroforestry systems (AFS) can assure food security towards Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and improvement in carbon sequestration, soil qualities of low-fertile degraded land. Those were revealed through observations on farmers' practices, literature reviews and results from different agroforestry arrangements of mango with *gamhar* and eucalyptus; and sweet orange with *gamhar* for two years (2017-18 to 2018-19) of alley cropping with pigeon pea, green gram, cowpea and toria in ongoing AF experiments at Regional Research Station (Red & Lateritic Zone), Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Jhargram, West Bengal, India. Total carbon stock as well as potential food energy production were higher in AFS than either in sole silvi tree, fruit tree or plots under alley crops, because of better performances of all tree and crop components in AFS. Mango with eucalyptus-based AFS gave higher carbon stock ($62.33 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) including improvement in degraded acidic soil pH (6.20%), SOC (11.86%), available N (9.09%), available P (13.97%), available K (11.64%) contents in soil. In that way, fruit-based agroforestry systems can be used as a viable alternative land use to improve soil health, diet and livelihood security even of resource-poor farm families throughout the year, especially during their impoverished needy times in a year.

Index Terms— agroforestry system, alley crop, carbon sequestration, food energy, livelihood, red and lateritic zone, SDGs, soil health

1. INTRODUCTION:

Fruit-based agroforestry is a suitable alternative land use to be successfully followed in agricultural system to make farming more profitable and a support for protection of agricultural lands from degradation and, thereby sustaining food production as well as securing suitable change in diet in farming community and the local population as a whole through food production from initially almost barren rainfed upland with low fertile soil in red and lateritic tract of West Bengal in India. Selecting the present study on suitability of fruit-based AFS was ascertained on the basis of i) observations on practices of AFS on farmers' land and ii) the literature survey, concerning (a) fruit-based agroforestry as the potential means for considerable carbon sequestration,

(b) improvement in soil physicochemical and soil fertility status through fruit-based AF, (c) fruit-based AF as a potential support to change the diet of the local people through production of pulses, oilseeds, fruits in contrast with a change from traditionally monocropped rainfed low and rice growing area and mostly barren upland lateritic tract, (d) potentiality of fruit-based AF for enhancing livelihoods of the farming community through production of timbers as enumerated in Background information.

1.1 Background information: This is based on (i) field surveys on farmers' practice and (ii) literature reviews

1.1. (i) From the field surveys on farmers' practices: Trees are still associated with modern farming community and civilisation as we see planting of trees by the road sides and along the boundary of farming plots. As the farming is extended around a tree, sometimes that tree is left out to grow bigger. Though except fruit trees farmers hardly prefer to plant trees within their agriculture plots. The Red and Laterite Agroclimatic Zone, selected for the present works, is predominantly under rice – fallow cropping pattern under rainfed condition on low land; and rice – vegetable cropping pattern with adequate irrigation facilities in medium to low

- Pinakesh Das, Department of Soil and Water Conservation, Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Mohanpur, Nadia -741 252, WB, India. Email: pinakeshpsb17@gmail.com
- Pratap Kumar Dhara, Department of Soil and Water Conservation, Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Mohanpur, Nadia -741 252, WB, India. Email: drpratapbckv@gmail.com
- Subhabrata Panda, AICRP on Agroforestry. RRS, BCKV, Jhargram – 721 507, WB, India & Department of Soil and Water Conservation, Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Mohanpur, Nadia -741 252, WB, India. Email: subhabratapanda@gmail.com

land situations. Uplands are mostly non-fertile and cultivated with pigeon pea, black gram and other pulses as rainfed crops. The multipurpose trees are found scattered in farmers' fields with greater concentration on the field bunds and boundaries. From the present investigation it has been observed that there was predominance of marginal category of farmers having fragmented landholdings with average farm size of less than 1 ha. In that agroclimatic zone, various agroforestry models with different silvi (i.e., wood producing) trees/ fruit tree - crop combinations were studied under rainfed conditions at the Regional Research Station of Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya at Jhargram, West Bengal, India. In that on-station research, various multipurpose silvi tree species such as lamboo (*Dysoxylum binectariferum*), kadam (*Neolamarckia cadamba*), eucalyptus (*Eucalyptus tereticornis*), akashmoni (*Acacia auriculiformis*), gamhar (*Gmelina arborea*), teak (*Tectona grandis*), sal (*Shorea robusta*), nim (*Azadirachta indica*), etc. have tremendous potential in those different agroforestry systems. Similarly, among fruit trees mango (*Mangifera indica*), guava (*Psidium guajava*), cashew (*Anacardium occidentale*), ber (*Ziziphus mauritiana*) and sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis*) were more successful in that zone. Moreover, agricultural inputs along with good planting materials of silvi and fruit trees are required to be made easily available to the farmers for successful adoption of agroforestry [1,2]

1.1. (ii) Literature Review: This is noted under sub-sections of (a), (b), (c) and (d).

1.1.(ii). (a) Fruit-based agroforestry - potential means for considerable carbon sequestration: Agroforestry (AF) is a desirable and promising option for carbon sequestration in agricultural soils, because it may retain substantial amounts of carbon as well as giving agricultural outputs [3]. Agroforestry is essential for reducing the atmospheric build-up of GHGs [4]. For complicated agroforestry, border planting, hedgerow intercropping, and home gardens (i.e., homestead agroforestry), carbon sequestration rates are highly encouraging [5,6]. Agroforestry systems including fuelwood, and fibre plantations, bioreserves, intercropping systems, and shelterbelts/ windbreaks are additional promising land-use systems and techniques that have been discovered to preserve and/ or temporarily store C [7]. Tree-based land-use systems have been recognized as an effective strategy across all ecological regions and farming situations and the most effective farmer-friendly technology to control greenhouse gas emissions [8]. The eucalyptus stands are also real carbon sinks, with the amount of carbon stored varied with the age of the parcels, 20 (+) year old stand of eucalyptus might store eight times the CO₂ emissions than from a degraded savannah [9]. Although agroforestry systems (AFS) are not

primarily designed for carbon sequestration, there are many recent studies to substantiate the evidence that agroforestry systems can play a major role in storing carbon in aboveground biomass [10] as well as in belowground biomass [11,12].

1.1.(ii). (b) Improvement in soil physicochemical and soil fertility status through fruit-based AF: Fruit-based agroforestry systems that were integrated with the growth of arable crops like pulses along with fruit trees, and silvi components, could preserve nutrients in soil and reduce the risks of soil erosion from crop fields with marginal soil fertility [13]. The cultivation of intercrops of sorghum, groundnut, and papaya along with teak (*Tectona grandis*) based agri-silviculture system in red gravely soils in Karnataka, India improved soil fertility over the years as well as increased soil bulk density, pH, soil organic carbon, (SOC), potassium, and phosphorus due to incorporation of leaf litterfall and subsequent decomposition of litter in soil [14]. Gamhar (*Gmelina arborea*) + sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis*) + groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea*) - based agroforestry model showed highest increases in nearly all the soil parameters like organic carbon percent, pH, available N and P after three cycles of cropping. Gamhar (*Gmelina arborea*) + guava (*Psidium guajava*) + groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea*)-based agroforestry model came in the second place for enhancing soil fertility caused by interactions between different tree species and intercrops [15]. From research at three locations in the southeastern U.S. it was reported that short-rotation woody and herbaceous crops have a significant potential to store carbon in their underground components when conventional agricultural areas were converted to their cultivation. For those perennial crops, crop cycles lasting for 5 to 20 years showed the ability to store soil carbon underground for a very long time. Large-scale perennial root systems and litter layers appeared to be the key contributors for increasing carbon sequestration [16]. In coconut (*Cocos nucifera*)-based gliricidia (*Gliricidia sepium*) systems, plots under gliricidia differed in their soil chemical attributes and showed added higher levels of soil nutrients when compared to plots under coconut monocrop at younger ages and that system was highly potential to improve poor soil characteristics particularly in drier agroecosystems [17]. Tree-based systems were highly potential to increase SOC stocks especially at deeper depths as well as in soils beneath the trees. SOC stocks within the 1.25 m depth of soil were observed to be 16 percent higher compared to the adjacent field [18]. Alley cropping deals with growing of crops on the same piece of land within the interspaces under the trees. One of the most important properties of alley cropping is that the addition of organic mulch, especially nutrient-rich mulch, has a favourable effect on the physical and chemical properties of soil and on crop productivity [19].

Thus, fruit-based AFS can perform a vital role in enhancing and maintaining soil fertility, assuring food security reducing poverty, preserving the environment, and sustainability in food production.

1.1.(ii). (c) Fruit-based AF as a potential support to change the diet of the local people through production of pulses, oilseeds, fruits in contrast with a change from traditionally monocropped rainfed low and land rice growing area and mostly barren upland lateritic tract:

Fruit-based agroforestry has an important role in production of vegetables, pulses with fruit, and providing nutritionally balanced diets rather than calories alone [20]. In the red and lateritic zone, marginal lands are not able to sustain arable crops particularly during the drought years with some kinds of land degradation. In such agricultural landscape under red and lateritic rainfed upland, integration of economic trees in agriculture on a massive scale would create an effective income generation and sustainable crop production year after year and could improve and maintain good health of human beings [21]. Under the fruit-based AF system, fruit trees could be grown successfully with legumes like pigeon pea, black gram and cowpea as bonus crops for marginal and sub marginal lands for providing an economic alternative system along with improvement of soil health [22]. Fruit trees serve the human beings with the supply of nutrients through production of fruits and also provide valuable by-products like fuel wood and fodder from their annual pruning. Yield of all intercrops were more in agroforestry systems as compared to sole crop cultivation. In red and lateritic tract of West Bengal in India, among all the intercrops cowpea showed better performance with production potentiality of 1.94 t ha⁻¹ under *gamhar* + sweet orange-based agroforestry systems as compared to *gamhar* (*Gmelina arborea*) + guava-based agroforestry system with 1.84 t ha⁻¹ production [23]. Yield of pigeon pea was slightly higher in sole cropping (1.65 t ha⁻¹) than under AF systems. Most of the growth parameters, yield attributes and yields of pigeon pea were higher under *karanj* (*Pongamia pinnata*) plantation as compared to under *neem* (*Azadirachta indica*) plantation [24]. Under agri-horti system at Barkachha, Mirzapur of U.P. in India, higher grain yield (0.92 t ha⁻¹), stover yield (1.86 t ha⁻¹) of green gram could be achieved by following conventional method of two hand weedings at 20 and 40 days after sowing (DAS) as compared to other intercultural techniques where labours are easily available [25]. Among the different models of agro-production system, yield of winter season crop like mustard showed better result (0.65 t ha⁻¹) under *gamhar* + mango – okra – mustard AFS, and yield of mango was higher (3.28 t ha⁻¹) when pigeon pea was cultivated with fruit and silvi species in rainfed uplands under red and laterite zone of West Bengal in India which were supposed to improve and maintain good health of the

local community through reducing the deficiency of nutrients by producing fruits, pulses and oilseeds [26]. It was also reported that growing of *gamhar* and mango trees with pigeon pea as intercrops resulted in higher fruit yield of mango and better growth characteristics of *gamhar* tree in red and lateritic zone of West Bengal [27]. Yield of sweet orange (994 dozen ha⁻¹) was maximum in *gamhar* + sweet orange + cowpea-toria combination under the humid and sub-humid zone (i.e., red and lateritic tract) of West Bengal in India [28]. Pulses are among the most widely used foods around the globe, and are considered as the power house of nutrients with rich source of dietary fibre, complex carbohydrates, starch, minerals such as potassium, iron, zinc. Consumption of half a cup of beans or peas per day can enhance diet quality and improve global nutrition [29]. Besides, the inclusion of mustard oil could improve digestive system and maintain the heart health [30]. Fruits and vegetables can also play a key role in diet by providing essential minerals, micronutrients and vitamins and dietary fibre required for the normal daily functionality of the body [31]. It is reported that calorific (or energy) values of 100g pulses like pigeon pea, cowpea, green gram and oilseed like mustard could provide 358, 320, 326 and 510 Kcal respectively for human body [32]. Besides the gross and digestible energies of 100g mango flesh (var. *Amrapali*) was 112.12 Kcal [33]; and 100g edible portion of sweet orange could provide 43 Kcal, making diet healthy for human beings [34].

So, the red and lateritic agroclimatic zone of West Bengal in India is characterised by most of the barren uplands, and lowland with rice cultivation in rainy season. Previous works in that agroclimatic zone has revealed that adoption of fruit-based agroforestry system can be successfully practised on uplands of that agroclimatic zone to meet the requirements of essential nutrients and calories due to changes in diet of local community of adjacent area through production of fruits, pulses and oilseeds from the same piece of primarily barren land.

1.1.(ii). (d) Potentiality of fruit-based AF for enhancing livelihoods of the farming community through production of timbers:

Out of various types of agroforestry systems, a fruit-based agroforestry system is regarded as a successful tactic for enhancing agricultural production, employment possibilities, economic and nutritional security [1, 2]. In that farming system, fruit production can supplement a farmer's income during a drought; and silvi tree plantation would prevent sand drift, supply animal feed, fuel, and timber (i.e., wood sale as a financial support in the emergent needy times for a family), as well as that AF farming would serve for creation of favourable microclimates that are conducive to agricultural growth. It is reported from the mid-west of the United States of America that the combinations of maize (*Zea mays*) with

other crops *viz.*, maize + soybean (*Glycine max*), and maize + soybean + wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) gave walnut (*Juglans nigra*) stands of highest net values. But pure walnut stands outperformed agroforestry systems based on walnut trees, with spacing of 8.5 m vs. 12.2 m between rows, essentially restricting yearly crop productivity [35]. From a field study during the years of 2014 – 15 and 2015 – 16 in the semi-arid region of Haryana in India, it was reported that among all the agricultural crops planted in eucalyptus plantations, oat crop had the highest net returns (Rs. 26,535 and 14,580 ha⁻¹ respectively in those two years), closely followed by berseem (Rs. 8693 and 7086 ha⁻¹ respectively in those two corresponding years). Thus, oat crop grown under eucalyptus plantation gave highest benefit followed by berseem [36]. A mango-based agri-horticulture system produced fruits with a B:C ratio of 2.85 or higher after 5 years of planting in Bhubaneswar, Odisha, India [37]. Adoption of agroforestry in any specific location are decided based on two factors *viz.* relative profitability compared to other existing cropping systems and securing livelihoods from price volatility of farm products by wood production, and for that reason farmers in many areas of India are growing trees in farm as a more profitable option in contrast with monocropping system [38]. Agroforestry increased farmers' incomes through production of cash crops and enhancement of the biomass of trees, which, in turn, helped to increase the standard of living, economic growth and development of farm families [39]. After reviewing the results from various long term field trials throughout the world, it has been found that in a same piece of land fruit-based agroforestry system could give good production of arable crops, wood and the production of fruits to make extra income for farmers even in severe climatic events, that helped the rural people to meet their family expenses [40].

From all those surveys from farmers' practices on AFS and review of research it can be conjectured that fruit-based AF can support sustainable food production and circular bioeconomy, thereby such farming is able to face threats and challenges in achieving SDGs in a transversal way towards attaining food security on a degraded low fertile lateritic area through rainfed farming. Those surveys have also revealed that such alternative farming like fruit-based AFS can be of help in sustainably improving livelihood support even in improving impoverished needy times of farming community in a year. Based on such background the aims of the current study are enumerated.

1.2 Aims of the current study:

i) To establish that fruit-based AFS is the potential means for considerable carbon sequestration,

- ii) To show that soil physicochemical health and soil fertility status can be improved through fruit-based AFS,
- iii) To show that fruit-based AFS is a potential support to change diet through production of pulses, oilseeds, fruits in contrast with a change from traditionally monocropped rainfed low and land rice growing area and mostly barren upland lateritic tract.
- iv) To show the potentiality of fruit-based AFS for enhancing livelihoods of the farming community by AF produces including timbers from such farming.

2. Materials and methods:

A Field experiment was conducted during 2017-18 and 2018-19 under rainfed condition on upland of red and lateritic soil covered with established agroforestry plantations at the Regional Research Station of Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Jhargram, West Bengal, India. That research station is geographically situated at 22°27'23.22" N Lat. and 87°00'43.24" E Long. at an elevation of about 78.77 m above mean sea level.

Fruit-based AFS of ten years old stands of *Amrapali* var. of mango trees (*Mangifera indica*) with ten-year-old stands of eucalyptus trees (*Eucalyptus tereticornis*) and with ten-year-old *gamhar* trees (*Gmelina arborea*); and three years' stand of sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis*) with ten years old stand of *gamhar* were selected for the present study. Mango and sweet orange were planted at a spacing of 10 m × 10 m. However, *gamhar* or eucalyptus were planted in between two fruit trees in rows at 5 m spacing. The crops *viz.*, pigeon pea (*Cajanus cajan*) var. UPAS 120, green gram (*Vigna radiata*) var. *Samrat*, and cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata*) var. *Birsha Shweta* were cultivated during *kharif* season (i.e., monsoon season: mid-July to end of September), followed by toria (*Brassica campestris*, var. toria) var. B85 in *rabi* season (non-monsoon season: October to March) in the experimental plots after harvesting of green gram and cowpea. The experiment was laid out in a randomized block design (RBD) with twenty treatments with three replications as follows:

T₁: *Gamhar* + sweet orange + pigeon pea, T₂: *Gamhar* + sweet orange + green gram-toria, T₃: *Gamhar* + sweet orange + cowpea-toria, T₄: *Gamhar* + mango + pigeon pea, T₅: *Gamhar* + mango + green gram-toria, T₆: *Gamhar* + mango + cowpea-toria, T₇: Eucalyptus + mango + pigeon pea, T₈: Eucalyptus + mango + green gram-toria, T₉: Eucalyptus + mango + cowpea-toria, T₁₀: *Gamhar* + sweet orange, T₁₁: *Gamhar* + mango, T₁₂: Eucalyptus + mango, T₁₃: *Gamhar*, T₁₄: Eucalyptus, T₁₅: Mango, T₁₆: Sweet orange, T₁₇: pigeon pea, T₁₈: Green gram-toria, T₁₉: Cowpea-toria, T₂₀: Barren field (control).

2.1 Calculation of wood volume:

2.1.1 Calculation of wood volume of both silvi and mango fruit trees by allometric methods:

To estimate wood volume of the silvi trees and mango trees some tree growth parameters like height, bole height, diameter at breast height (DBH) were considered. Among those parameters DBH of the trees was measured at 137 cm above the tree-base at ground level with the help of a measuring tape [41,42,43].

2.1.2 Calculation of wood volume of sweet orange fruit trees:

Calculation of volume of standing sweet orange fruit trees was done by following the quarter girth formula as shown in Eq.1 [44].

$$\text{Volume of tree log, } V = (g/4)^2 \times L \quad (1)$$

where V is volume of the tree trunk, g is basal girth and L is the length of tree trunk.

2.2 Calculation of above ground biomass:

Total trunk or log biomass in kilograms was calculated by multiplying the volume of the log (V) by the wood density (WD) corresponding to each tree species as estimated through Eq. 2.

$$\text{Biomass} = V \times \text{WD} \times 1000 \quad (2)$$

For obtaining total above ground biomass of trees, the value of biomass from Eq. 2 was added with biomass of litter and biomass from necessary pruning of canopies. For estimating total above ground biomass of fruit trees, total biomass estimated from Eq. 2 was added with litter and biomass from necessary pruning of canopies of trees and fruit biomass.

2.3 Estimation of belowground biomass:

2.3.1 Estimation of root biomass:

Roots play an important role in the carbon cycle as they transfer considerable amounts of C to the ground and C remains there in soil for a relatively long period of time [45, 46, 47]. Generally, non-destructive (or, conservation) method was followed to calculate the belowground biomass by using the Eq. 3 [48].

$$\text{Belowground biomass} = \text{Aboveground biomass} \times 0.2. \quad (3)$$

2.4 Carbon stock as biomass:

To calculate the carbon stock as biomass, the Eq. 4 [49] was used, as generalized for conversions from biomass to carbon stock.

$$C = 0.50 \times \text{biomass} \quad (4)$$

2.4.1 Carbon stock as crop biomass:

To calculate the carbon stock as crop biomass, Eq. 5 [50] was used, as generalized for conversions from crop biomass to carbon stock.

$$C = \text{Crop biomass} \times 0.45 \quad (5)$$

2.4.2 Total carbon sequestration under AFS:

To estimate total C under fruit-based AFS, the carbon stock as total agroforestry biomass and soil organic carbon (here, SOC) present in soil were considered.

Estimation of SOC from percentage values to tonnes per hectare was computed by multiplying SOC (%) values with soil bulk density and the thickness of soil layer (here, 15 cm, considering crop root zone in soil) following Eq. 6.

$$\text{SOC (t/ha)} = \text{OC (\%)} \times \text{BD (g/cm}^3\text{)} \times \text{Depth (cm)} \times 100 \quad (6)$$

The total carbon stock for the present land use was calculated by using Eq. 7

$$\text{Carbon stock (total)} = C \text{ as total agroforestry biomass} + \text{SOC} \quad (7)$$

2.5 Soil analysis:

2.5.1 Collection and analysis of soil samples:

Soil samples were collected before experimentation and after every cropping season from soil depth of 0-15 cm (i.e., considering root zone of alley crops) with the help of soil auger. The collected soil samples were completely air-dried in the shade at room temperature and were ground by a wooden mortar to break the soil aggregates and were passed through 0.5 mm sieve for analysis of SOC and 2 mm sieve for other soil physicochemical parameters and then analysed [51].

Soil pH was measured by using a pH Meter [52]. Soil organic carbon (OC) was estimated by wet digestion method [53]. Estimation of available nitrogen in soil samples as mineralizable nitrogen [54] was performed by using nitrogen analyser. As soil pH was acidic, Bray No.1 method was used for analysis of available phosphorus in soil [55]. Soil available potassium was analysed by ammonium acetate method [56].

Increment in values of soil analysis (d %) from the control was computed through the Eq. 8 [57].

$$d = (y - c) / c \times 100 \quad (8)$$

The difference between soil data was recorded as initial (c) and end of experiment data (y).

2.6 Economic analysis of fruit-based AFS:

The economics of different treatments was worked out separately by taking into account of the existing local market price of various inputs and outputs for identifying

the most remunerative treatment. The investment on fertilizer, labour and power for various farming operations such as ploughing, weeding, irrigation, picking/ harvesting (in ₹ ha⁻¹) were considered. The cost of cultivation was calculated for finding out the economics of treatments and to work out the economic return per hectare (in ₹ ha⁻¹) and for estimation of benefit: cost ratio for each individual treatment.

Gross returns were obtained by converting the economic harvest into monetary values as per prevailing market price during the course of studies for every treatment. Net return was obtained by subtracting cost of cultivation from gross return and the benefit: cost ratio was calculated on the basis of net return per unit cost of cultivation by using Eq. 9.

$$B:C \text{ ratio} = \frac{\text{Gross return/ha}}{\text{Cost of cultivation/ha}} \quad (9)$$

2.7 Statistical analysis:

Critical differences were calculated from data assembled from each observation and were analysed for assessing the significance of treatment means considering F-values being significant at 5% level of probability [58]. Data processing was carried out with OPSTAT software [59].

3. Results and discussion:

3. (i) Fruit-based AFS – the potential means for carbon sequestration in red and lateritic zone: Fruit-based AFS plots of sweet orange-*gamhar*, mango-*gamhar* and mango-eucalyptus intercropped with green gram – toria showed higher carbon sequestrations than in plots under sole fruit trees, sole silvi and sole crops. After the analysis of total carbon stock in different fruit-based AFS, it was found that mango-eucalyptus based AFS sequestered higher carbon as compared to both the mango-*gamhar* and sweet orange-*gamhar* based AFS (Table 1).

3. (ii) Fruit-based AFS – the potential means for improvement of soil physicochemical status, soil health and fertility in red and lateritic zone: The agroforestry system showed increase in soil pH as compared to sole experimental crop plots, whereas barren land of red and laterite soil on upland was unaffected or continued with decreasing trend in soil degradation (Figure 1). Mango with *gamhar*-based agroforestry systems showed higher soil pH, as compared to sweet orange with *gamhar* and mango with eucalyptus-based AF systems. Among the three legumes, pigeon pea played a vital role in increasing soil pH in fruit-based agroforestry systems. The mango and sweet orange-based agroforestry systems enhanced the status of SOC (Table 1, Figure 2) and major available soil nutrients i.e., N, P and K, as compared to the sole tree and sole crop experimental plots. Soil under mango with *gamhar* AFS

showed improved SOC and available N, P, K contents than plots under sweet orange with *gamhar* and mango with eucalyptus-based agroforestry systems. Soils under cowpea showed improved SOC content, whereas available N and K was improved in soils under green gram and soils under pigeon pea showed higher values of available K contents (Table 1, Figures 3, 4, 5).

Table 1 Carbon sequestration of different fruit-based AF systems during the years of 2017-18 and 2018-19

(After attaining the ages of 10th, 11th year of *gamhar*, eucalyptus, mango and 3rd, 4th year of sweet orange in the corresponding cropping years of 2017-18 and 2018-19)

Treatments	Carbon stock as trees and fruit trees biomass (t ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)		Crop carbon stock (t ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)		SOC (t ha ⁻¹)		Carbon stock (total) (t ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	
	Cropping years		Cropping years		Cropping years		Cropping years	
	2017-18	2018-19	2017-18	2018-19	2017-18	2018-19	2017-18	2018-19
T1	2.11	2.19	13.77	14.23	7.98	8.54	23.86	24.96
T2	2.16	2.28	38.73	41.37	7.84	8.12	48.73	51.77
T3	2.18	2.30	11.24	12.37	8.12	8.68	21.54	23.35
T4	3.07	3.32	14.51	15.05	8.54	8.96	26.12	27.33
T5	3.12	3.45	41.19	44.23	8.26	8.68	52.57	56.36
T6	3.14	3.50	11.64	12.99	8.82	9.24	23.60	25.73
T7	15.84	16.94	12.59	12.90	7.7	8.12	36.13	37.96
T8	15.60	16.69	36.63	37.80	7.56	7.84	59.79	62.33
T9	15.51	16.34	10.69	11.61	7.84	8.12	34.04	36.07
T10	2.00	2.08	-	-	7.14	7.42	9.14	9.50
T11	2.77	2.96	-	-	7.42	7.7	10.19	10.66
T12	14.34	14.74	-	-	7.01	7.28	21.35	22.02
T13	0.98	1.01	-	-	6.72	7.00	7.70	8.01
T14	10.20	10.25	-	-	6.58	6.86	16.78	17.11
T15	1.39	1.51	-	-	6.72	6.86	8.11	8.37
T16	0.52	0.54	-	-	6.44	6.72	6.96	7.26
T17	-	-	10.62	10.86	6.02	6.16	16.64	17.02
T18	-	-	29.90	30.51	6.16	6.3	36.06	36.81
T19	-	-	8.47	8.90	6.30	6.44	14.77	15.34
SEM (±)	0.03	0.05	0.23	0.28	0.06	0.13	0.96	1.31
CD (0.05)	0.09	0.14	0.66	0.79	0.18	0.37	2.71	3.70

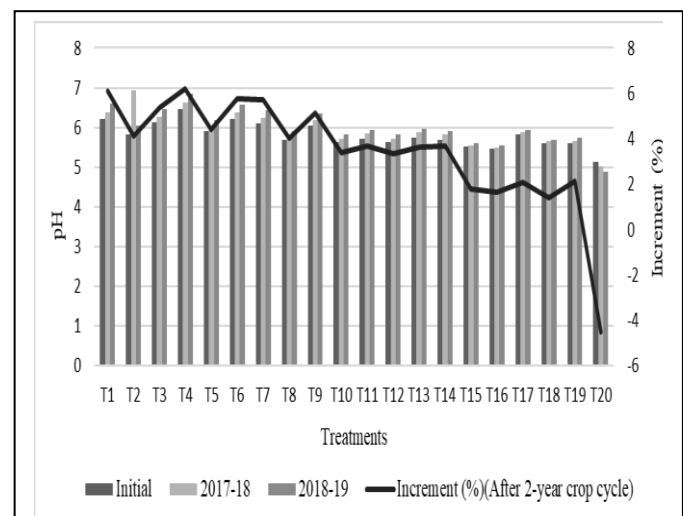


Figure 1 Fluctuation of soil pH under agroforestry and sole cropping systems during study period (2017-18 and 2018-19)

3. (iii) Fruit-based AFS - the potential means for change in diet in red and lateritic zone: Fruit-based agroforestry systems considerably increased the yield of fruits as compared to sole plots under fruit trees (Table 2). Maximum fruit yield from fruit-based AFS was obtained from plots grown with cowpea followed by toria, while the lowest values were observed from sole fruit plots. Mango-gamhar based AFS produced more fruits than the sole mango plots and the AFS based on mango-eucalyptus. Higher yields of arable crops were obtained from plots under the fruit-based agroforestry systems as compared to the sole cropping, with better results from mango-gamhar based agroforestry system (Table 3). Food energy production was higher in fruit-based agroforestry systems as compared to sole fruit and crop cultures. Higher food energy from fruit, pulses and oilseed was recorded from mango-gamhar based AFS with cowpea – toria as compared to other food growing systems in the experiment. Among the three fruit-based agroforestry systems, total food energy production was higher in mango-gamhar based AFS (Table 4).

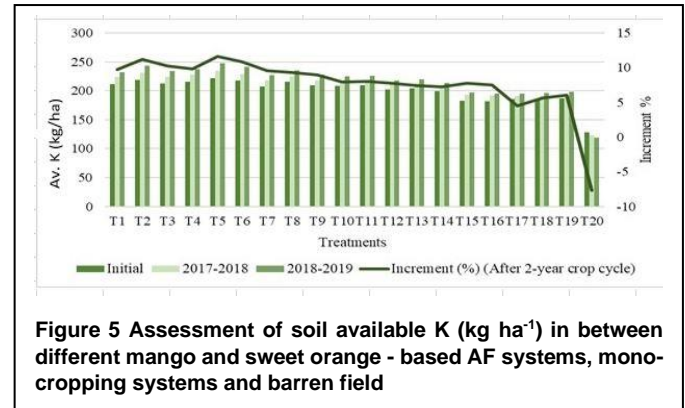


Figure 5 Assessment of soil available K (kg ha⁻¹) in between different mango and sweet orange - based AF systems, mono-cropping systems and barren field

Table 2 Yield of sweet orange and mango fruits under different fruit-based agroforestry systems

(After attaining the ages of 10th, 11th year of gamhar, eucalyptus, mango and 3rd, 4th year of sweet orange in the corresponding cropping years of 2017-18 and 2018-19)

Treatments	Sweet orange (<i>Citrus sinensis</i>) fruit yield (Dz ha ⁻¹)		Mango (<i>Mangifera indica</i>) fruit yield (t ha ⁻¹)	
	Cropping years		Cropping years	
	2017-18	2018-19	2017-18	2018-19
T ₁	965	985	-	-
T ₂	950	981	-	-
T ₃	975	995	-	-
T ₄	-	-	6.46	7.98
T ₅	-	-	6.71	8.36
T ₆	-	-	6.89	8.65
T ₇	-	-	5.82	7.14
T ₈	-	-	5.94	7.32
T ₉	-	-	6.14	7.64
T ₁₀	904	935	-	-
T ₁₁	-	-	5.35	6.41
T ₁₂	-	-	5.07	6.12
T ₁₅	-	-	4.94	5.75
T ₁₆	803	833	-	-
SEm (±)	0.55	0.59	0.19	0.28
CD (0.05)	1.66	1.79	0.54	0.81

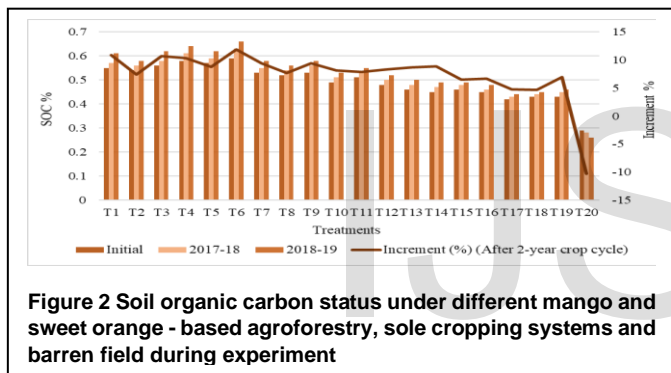


Figure 2 Soil organic carbon status under different mango and sweet orange - based agroforestry, sole cropping systems and barren field during experiment

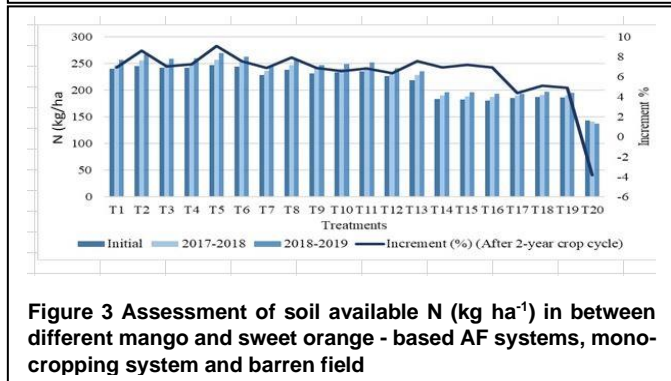


Figure 3 Assessment of soil available N (kg ha⁻¹) in between different mango and sweet orange - based AF systems, mono-cropping system and barren field

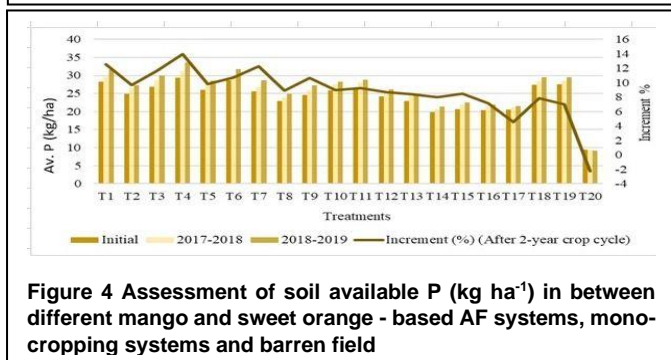


Figure 4 Assessment of soil available P (kg ha⁻¹) in between different mango and sweet orange - based AF systems, mono-cropping systems and barren field

3.(iv) Fruit-based AFS – the potential means for enhancing livelihoods in red and lateritic zone: The production and productivity of mango, sweet orange and silvi trees (gamhar and eucalyptus) were significantly improved with intercropping as compared to sole plantations. Financial achievements based on B: C ratio were better under AFS, whereas mango-eucalyptus with cowpea followed by toria system was observed with best performance, whereas poorest results were obtained from all sorts of sole plots either under fruit trees or silvi trees or crops (Table 5). Out of the three fruit-based agroforestry systems, mango-eucalyptus based AFS achieved a higher B: C ratio due to higher wood volume productivity of eucalyptus than gamhar trees.

Table 3 Effect of different agroforestry systems on yield of kharif and rabi season crops

(After attaining the ages of 10th, 11th year of gamhar, eucalyptus, mango and 3rd, 4th year of sweet orange in the corresponding cropping years of 2017-18 and 2018-19)

a) Kharif (Rainy season)					
Treatments	Pigeon pea (q. ha ⁻¹)			POOLED	MEAN
	Cropping years		POOLED		
	2017-18	2018-19			
T ₁	7.72	7.90	7.81	7.44	
T ₄	7.85	8.05	7.95		
T ₇	7.46	7.61	7.53		
T ₁₇	6.42	6.54	6.48		
SEm (±)	0.24	0.30	0.28		
CD (0.05)	0.76	0.95	0.87		
Green gram (q. ha ⁻¹)					
Treatments	Cropping years		POOLED	MEAN	
	2017-18	2018-19			
	T ₂	6.64	6.82		6.73
T ₅	6.72	6.90	6.81		
T ₈	6.26	6.41	6.33		
T ₁₈	5.24	5.35	5.29		
SEm (±)	0.23	0.30	0.26		
CD (0.05)	0.70	0.93	0.81		
Cowpea (q. ha ⁻¹)					
Treatments	Cropping years		POOLED	MEAN	
	2017-18	2018-19			
	T ₃	14.48	15.02		14.75
T ₆	14.65	15.21	14.93		
T ₉	14.20	14.68	14.44		
T ₁₉	12.82	13.15	12.98		
SEm (±)	0.27	0.33	0.31		
CD (0.05)	0.84	1.04	0.98		
b) Rabi (Non-monsoon season)					
Treatments	Torina (q. ha ⁻¹)			POOLED	MEAN
	Cropping years		POOLED		
	2017-18	2018-19			
T ₂	3.54	3.69	3.61	3.34	
T ₃	3.64	3.82	3.73		
T ₅	3.65	3.80	3.72		
T ₆	3.72	3.91	3.81		
T ₈	3.26	3.38	3.32		
T ₉	3.29	3.45	3.37		
T ₁₈	2.52	2.58	2.55		
T ₁₉	2.55	2.65	2.60		
SEm (±)	0.18	0.24	0.21		
CD (0.05)	0.54	0.72	0.61		

Table 4 Potentiality of food energy production from ten-eleven years old silvi and mango tree plantations and three-four years old sweet orange orchard with alle crops (i.e., arable crops of pigeon pea, green gram, cowpea and toria) grown during 2017-18 and 2018-19 in Agroforestry Systems (AFS) raised on rainfed and initially degraded upland with red and lateritic soil of Jhargram, West Bengal, India

Treatments	Potentiality of food energy production from AFS (MMKcal ha ⁻¹)							
	*Fruits (mango, sweet orange)		*Pulses (pigeon pea, green gram, cowpea)		*Oilseed (toria, considered as mustard)		Total	
	Cropping years		Cropping years		Cropping years		Cropping years	
	2017-18	2018-19	2017-18	2018-19	2017-18	2018-19	2017-18	2018-19
T ₁	1.245	1.271	2.764	2.828	-	-	4.009	5.371
T ₂	1.226	1.265	2.165	2.223	1.805	1.882	5.196	8.038
T ₃	1.258	1.284	4.634	4.806	1.856	1.948	7.748	11.820
T ₄	7.235	8.938	2.810	2.882	-	-	10.046	13.551
T ₅	7.515	9.363	2.191	2.249	1.862	1.938	11.567	16.549
T ₆	7.717	9.688	4.688	4.867	1.897	1.994	14.302	10.721
T ₇	6.518	7.997	2.671	2.724	-	-	9.189	12.012
T ₈	6.653	8.198	2.041	2.090	1.663	1.724	10.356	15.014
T ₉	6.877	8.557	4.544	4.698	1.678	1.760	13.099	1.206
T ₁₀	1.166	1.206	-	-	-	-	1.166	7.179
T ₁₁	5.992	7.179	-	-	-	-	5.992	6.854
T ₁₂	5.678	6.854	-	-	-	-	5.678	6.440
T ₁₃	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
T ₁₄	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
T ₁₅	5.533	6.440	-	-	-	-	5.533	1.075
T ₁₆	1.036	1.075	-	-	-	-	1.036	2.341
T ₁₇	-	-	2.298	2.341	-	-	2.298	3.060
T ₁₈	-	-	1.708	1.744	1.285	1.316	2.993	5.560
T ₁₉	-	-	4.102	4.208	1.301	1.352	5.403	5.371

*Conversions from yield data to Kcal from Tables 2 and 3:

- i) Fruits: a) Mango: 112 Kcal 100g⁻¹ [33];
b) Sweet orange: 3kg dozen⁻¹ (Experimental data) and 43 Kcal 100g⁻¹ [34]
- ii) Pulses: a) Pigeon pea: 358 Kcal 100g⁻¹ [32]; b) Green gram: 326 Kcal 100g⁻¹ [32]; c) Cowpea: 320 Kcal 100g⁻¹ [32]
- iii) Oilseeds: Toria (considered as mustard): 510 Kcal 100g⁻¹ [32]
1 kcal = 1.0E-6 MMKcal

Treatments: T₁: Gamhar + sweet orange + pigeon pea, T₂: Gamhar + sweet orange + green gram-toria, T₃: Gamhar + sweet orange +cowpea-toria, T₄: Gamhar + mango + pigeon pea, T₅: Gamhar + mango + green gram-toria, T₆: Gamhar + mango + cowpea-toria, T₇: Eucalyptus + mango + pigeon pea, T₈: Eucalyptus + mango + green gram-toria, T₉: Eucalyptus + mango +cowpea-toria, T₁₀: Gamhar + sweet orange, T₁₁: Gamhar + mango, T₁₂: Eucalyptus + mango, T₁₃: Gamhar, T₁₄: Eucalyptus, T₁₅: Mango, T₁₆: Sweet orange, T₁₇: pigeon pea, T₁₈: Green gram-toria, T₁₉: Cowpea-toria, T₂₀: Barren field (control).

Table 5 Benefit: cost analysis of different mango and sweet orange-based AF systems, sole cropping and sole tree culture during 2017 -18 and 2018 – 19

(After attaining the ages of 10th, 11th year of gamhar, eucalyptus, mango and 3rd, 4th year of sweet orange in the corresponding cropping years of 2017-18 and 2018-19)

Treatments	Cost of cultivation (Rs ha ⁻¹)		Gross return (Rs ha ⁻¹)		Net Return (Rs ha ⁻¹)		B:C	
	Cropping years		Cropping years		Cropping years		Cropping years	
	2017-18	2018-19	2017-18	2018-19	2017-18	2018-19	2017-18	2018-19
T ₁	66651	66651	95517	103849	28866	37198	1.43	1.55
T ₂	66537	66537	99462	110458	32925	43921	1.49	1.66
T ₃	66889	66889	107263	118601	40374	51712	1.60	1.77
T ₄	66651	66651	201342	283382.5	134691	216731.5	3.02	4.25
T ₅	66537	66537	211168	299891	144631	233354	3.17	4.50
T ₆	66889	66889	221171	313946.5	154282	247057.5	3.30	4.69
T ₇	66651	66651	259884	342368.5	193233	275717.5	3.89	5.13
T ₈	66537	66537	264066	344362.5	197529	277825.5	3.96	5.17
T ₉	66889	66889	272638	355610	205749	288721	4.07	5.31
T ₁₀	58620	58620	81308	88536	22688	29916	1.38	1.51
T ₁₁	58620	58620	161734	221980	103114	163360	2.75	3.78
T ₁₂	58620	58620	221556	284736	162936	226116	3.77	4.85
T ₁₃	25970	25970	19716	20034	-6254	-5936	0.75	0.77
T ₁₄	25970	25970	78154	81984	52184	56014	3.00	3.15
T ₁₅	32650	32650	121000	156300	88350	123650	3.70	4.78
T ₁₆	32650	32650	44165	49980	11515	17330	1.35	1.53
T ₁₇	8031	8031	7740	8112.5	-291	81.5	0.96	1.01
T ₁₈	7912	7912	8768	9487.5	856	1575.5	1.10	1.19
T ₁₉	8269	8269	14595	16021	6326	7752	1.76	1.93

4. Conclusions:

1) Fruit-based agroforestry systems were with high potentiality for carbon sequestration as compared to either sole trees or crop cultures. Mango-eucalyptus based agroforestry system could stock higher carbon than other AF and cropping systems

2) Physicochemical properties of the soil were improved under fruit-based agroforestry as compared to sole tree and crop cultures, in contrast with the degraded barren plot. Mango-gamhar based AFS could store higher SOC and available soil nutrients than other AF systems.

3) The yield of fruits and arable crops were higher under fruit-based agroforestry systems as compared to sole cropping. Fruit-based agroforestry systems could potentially generate food energy, and, thus potential enough to change diet of the farming community and a potential support for health of community members as a whole through assuring food security towards achieving SDGs.

4) The B: C ratio was higher in fruit-based agroforestry systems, as compared to mono tree and crop cultivations. Because such fruit-based AFS could generate sustainable income sources as well as employment covering all the year-round as compared to mono-cropping systems, and thus, such AFS were very effective to improve living standards even of the marginal and resource-poor farm families, if owning only the traditionally barren rainfed uplands.

5) In such multiple ways fruit-based agroforestry systems could reduce the risk of crop failures and were proved to be potential means in achieving multiple SDGs in Red and Laterite Agroclimatic Zone of West Bengal in India.

Acknowledgement: The authors are very much grateful to the ICAR - Central Agroforestry Research Institute, Jhansi, UP for providing support towards creation of agroforestry systems necessary for the present study through the AICRP on Agroforestry, RRS, BCKV, Jhargram, West Bengal, India. Special indebtedness is acknowledged here to the Hon'ble Vice-Chancellor, the Director of research, BCKV, the In-Charge, RRS, BCKV, Jhargram; the OIC, AICRP on Agroforestry, Jhargram Centre, BCKV and the Farm Manager, BCKV Farm, Jhargram, West Bengal, India for providing all the infrastructural facilities to carry out this experiment smoothly.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflicts of interest

References

- [1]. Panda, S.; Dhara, P.K.; Sarkar, S.; Das, N.C. Agroforestry: A Multipurpose Multi – Storeyed Renewable Plant Treasure with Medicinal Values Giving Multi – Returns for Livelihood and Benefits Over Climate Change. In *Climate Change and Agroforestry: Adaptation, Mitigation and Livelihood Security*, Pandey, C.B.; Gaur, M. K.; Goyal, R.K., Eds.; New India Publishing Agency; New Delhi, India, 2018; pp. 627–637.
- [2]. Dhara, P.K. Humid and Sub Humid Region – BCKV, Jhargram (West Bengal). In *Agroforestry Technologies for Different Agro-climatic Zones of the Country*, Chaturvedi, O.P.; Sikka, A.K.; Handa, A.K.; Bajpai, C.K., Eds.; All India Coordinated Research project on Agroforestry, Jhansi: ICAR-Central Agroforestry Research Institute, 2016; pp. 27-28.
- [3]. Montagnini, F.; Nair, P.K.R. Carbon sequestration: an underexploited environmental benefit of agroforestry systems. *Agroforestry System* **2004**, 61, 281-95.
- [4]. IPCC. *Climate change: impact, adaption and vulnerability*, Report of the working group II. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK, 2001; p.93.
- [5]. Albrecht, A.; Kandji, S.T. Carbon sequestration in tropical agroforestry systems. *Agriculture, ecosystems & environment* **2003**, 99,15-27, doi:10.1016/S0167-8809(03)00138-5.
- [6]. Calfapietr, C.; Gielen, B.; Karnosky, D.; Ceulemans, R.; Mugnoz, G.S. Response and potential of agroforestry crops under global change. *Environmental pollution* **2010**, 158 (4), 1095-1104, doi: 10.1016/j.envpol.2009.09.008.

- [7]. Dixon, R.K.; Winjum, J.K.; Andrasko, K.J.; Lee, J.J.; Schroeder, P.E. Integrated land-use systems: assessment of promising agroforest and alternative land-use practices to enhance carbon conservation and sequestration. *Climatic change* 1994, 27 (1), 71-92, doi.org/10.1007/BF01098474.
- [8]. Doddabasawa; Chittapur, B.M.; Mahadeva Murthy, M. Comparison of carbon footprint of traditional agroforestry systems under rainfed and irrigated ecosystems. *Agroforestry System* 2020, 94, 465-475, doi.org/10.1007/s10457-019-00413-4.
- [9]. Noiha Noumi, V.; Zapfack, L.; Hamadou, M.R.; Awe Djongmo, V.; Witanou, N.; Nyeck, B.; Ngossomo, J.D.; Tabue Mbobda, R.B.; Mapongmetsem, P.M. Floristic Diversity, Carbon Storage and Ecological Services of Eucalyptus Agrosystems in Cameroon. *Agroforestry Systems* 2017. doi.org/10.1007/s10457-017-0130-5.
- [10]. K Murthy, I. Carbon Sequestration Potential of Agroforestry Systems in India. *Journal of Earth Science & Climatic Change* 2013, 04 (01). doi.org/10.4172/2157-7617.1000131.
- [11]. Nair, P.K.R.; Mohan Kumar, B.; Nair, V.D. Agroforestry as a Strategy for Carbon Sequestration. *Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil Science* 2009, 172 (1), 10-23. doi.org/10.1002/jpln.200800030.
- [12]. Dhyani, S.K.; Ram, A.; Dev, I. Potential of agroforestry systems in carbon sequestration in India. *Indian J. Agric. Sci* 2016, 86, 1103-1112.
- [13]. Singh, R.P. Alternate land use system for sustaining development. *Range Management Agroforestry* 1996, 17 (2), 155-178.
- [14]. Mutanal, S.M.; Patil, S.J.; Patil, H.Y.; Madiwalal S.L. Agroforestry Model: Teak based Agrisilvicultural System. In *Successful Agroforestry Models for Different Agro-Ecological Regions in India*, Handa, A K.; Dev, I.; Rizvi, R.H.; Kumar, N.; Ram, A.; Kumar, D.; Kumar, A.; Bhaskar, S.; Dhyani, S.K.; Rizvi, J., Eds.; Central Agroforestry Research Institute (CAFRI): Jhansi, Uttar Pradesh, India, 2019; pp. 44 - 47.
- [15]. Biswas, S.; Ghoshal, S.K.; Shoo, S.S.; Mukherjee, D. Some soil properties under agroforestry in Gangetic alluvial tract of West Bengal. *Environment and Ecology* 2003, 21 (3), 562-567.
- [16]. Tolbert, V.R.; Joslin, J.D.; Thornton, F.C.; Bock, B.R.; Pettry, D.E.; Bandaranayake, W.; Tyler, D.; Houston, A.; Schoenholtz, S. Biomass Crop Production: Benefits for Soil Quality and Carbon Sequestration. Research Report, the Biofuels Systems Division, U.S. Department of Energy, under contract DE-AC05-96OR22464 with Lockheed Martin Energy Research Corporation, 1999.
- [17]. Raveendra, S.A.S.T.; Nissanka, S.P.; Somasundaram, D.; Atapattu, A.J.; Mensah, S. Coconut-Gliricidia Mixed Cropping Systems Improve Soil Nutrients in Dry and Wet Regions of Sri Lanka. *Agroforestry Systems* 2021, 95 (2), 307-319. doi.org/10.1007/s10457-020-00587-2.
- [18]. Khaleel, A.A.; Sauer, T.J.; Tyndall, J.C. Changes in Deep Soil Organic Carbon and Soil Properties beneath Tree Windbreak Plantings in the U.S. Great Plains. *Agroforestry Systems* 2019, 94 (2), 565-581. doi.org/10.1007/s10457-019-00425-0.
- [19]. Nair, P. K. R. *An Introduction to Agroforestry*, Springer: New Delhi, 1993.
- [20]. Susila, A.D.; Purwoko, B.S.; Roshetko, J.M.; Palada, M.C.; Kartika, J.G.; Dahlia, L.; Wijaya, K.; Rahmanulloh, A.; Raimadoya, M.; Koesoemaningtyas, T.; Puspitawati, H.; Prasetyo, T.; Budidarsono, S.; Manue, I.K.; Roshetko, J.M. Vegetable agroforestry systems in Indonesia. Bangkok, World Association of Soil and Water Conservation (WASWAC): Beijing, China and World Agroforestry Centre (WAC-ICRAF): Nairobi, Kenya, 2012.
- [21]. Dhanushkodi, V.; Easwaran, S.; Amuthaselvi, G. Agroforestry: A novel techniques to enhance farmers' income under changing climate. *Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry* 2019, 8 (2S), 204-206.
- [22]. Singh, A.; Toky, O.P.; Dhillon, G.P.S. Variation in growth traits of Eucalyptus tereticornis at juvenile stage. *Annals of Agri-Bio Research* 2006, 11 (1), 57-62.
- [23]. Banerjee, H.; Dhara, P.K. Evaluation of fruit-based agroforestry model for rainfed upland under red & lateritic tract of West Bengal. *Crop Research (Hisar)* 2010, 39 (1/2/3), 200-206.
- [24]. Banerjee, H.; Dhara, P.K.; Mazumdar, D.; Alipatra, A. Development of tree borne oilseeds (TBOs) plantation and scope of intercropping on degraded lands. *Indian J Agric Res* 2013, 47, 453-456.
- [25]. Kumar, U.; Singh, S.P.; Raj, R.; Agnihotri, D. Evaluation of intercropping techniques on nutrient content, uptake and yield by grain and stover of rainfed green gram (*Vigna radiata* L.) under Agri-horti system. *The Pharma Innovation Journal* 2021, 10 (7), 1707-1710.
- [26]. Das, R.; Dhara, P.K.; Mandal, A.R.; Dutta Ray, S.K. Agri-Silvi-Fruit-Vegetable based agroproduction system-suitable models for sustainable land use and conservation in Red-Laterite and Semi-Arid Tracts. *Eco. Ecology, Environment and Conservation* 2014, 20, S7-S13.
- [27]. Saha, S.; Dhara, P.; Patra, P. Agri-Horti-Silviculture-An Alternative Land Use System for Rainfed Lands in Red and Laterite Zone of West Bengal, 2014
- [28]. ICAR - CAFRI. Annual report 2021, All India Coordinated Research Project on Agroforestry, ICAR-Central Agroforestry Research Institute: Jhansi, Uttar Pradesh, India, 2021; p - 42
- [29]. Mukherjee, A.K.; Naorem, A.; Udayana, S.K. NUTRITIONAL VALUE OF PULSES AND THEIR IMPORTANCE IN HUMAN LIFE. *Inno. Farm* 2019, 2 (1), 57-62, 2017
- [30]. Kaur, R.; Sharma, A.K.; Rani, R.; Mawlong, I.; Rai, P. Medicinal Qualities of Mustard Oil and Its Role in Human Health against Chronic Diseases: A Review. *Asian Journal of Dairy and Food Research* 2019, doi.org/10.18805/ajdfr. dr-1443.
- [31]. Khokhar, A.; Singh, S.K.; Bharti, A.; Sharma, M.; Mishra, S. Study on Pattern of Consumption of Fruits and Vegetables and Associated Factors among Medical Students of Delhi. *International Journal of Research in Medical Sciences* 2021, 9 (6), 1667, doi.org/10.18203/2320-6012.ijrms20212234.
- [32]. Longvah, T.; Anantan, I.; Bhaskarachary, K.; Venkaiah, K. *Indian food composition tables*, National Institute of Nutrition: Hyderabad, Indian Council of Medical Research, 2017; pp. 2-58
- [33]. Ara, R.; Motalab, M.; Uddin, M.N.; Fakhruddin, A.N.M.; Saha, B.K. Nutritional evaluation of different mango varieties available in Bangladesh. *International Food Research Journal* 2014, 21 (6), 2169-2174
- [34]. Abobata, W.F. Nutritional benefits of citrus fruits. *Am. J. Biomed. Sci. Res* 2019, 3, 303-306.
- [35]. Benjamin, T.; Hoover, W.; Seifert, J.; Gillespie, A. Defining competition vectors in a temperate alley cropping system in the Midwestern USA: 4. The economic return of ecological knowledge. *Agroforestry System* 2000, 48, 79-93, doi.org/10.1023/A:1006367303800.

- [36]. Ahlawat, K.S.; Daneva, V.; Sirohi, C.; Dalal, V. Production Potential of Agricultural Crops under Eucalyptus Tereticornis Based Agrisilviculture System in Semi-Arid Region of Haryana. *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences* **2019**, *8* (06), 2725–2731. doi.org/10.20546/ijcmas.2019.806.327.
- [37]. Mohapatra S.C.; Behera, S.; Mishra, P.; Behera, B.B. "Mango based Agrihorticulture System." In Successful Agroforestry Models for Different Agro-Ecological Regions in India, Handa, A.K.; Dev, I.; Rizvi, R.H. Kumar, N.; Ram, A.; Kumar, D.; Kumar, A.; Bhaskar, S.; Dhyani, S.K.; Rizvi, J., Eds.; Central Agroforestry Research Institute (CAFRI), Jhansi, Uttar Pradesh, India, 2019; Pp. 113 – 116.
- [38]. Singh, M.; Sridhar, K.B.; Kumar, D.; Uthappa, A.R.; Dwivedi, R.P.; Dev, I.; Rizvi, R.H.; Tewari, R.K.; Chaturvedi, O.P. Doubling farmers' income through agroforestry in north-western India: A policy perspective. *Indian Journal of Agroforestry* **2017**, *19* (2), 90-95.
- [39]. Julius, A.J.; Iluyomade, O.N.; Akinyemi, G.O.; Oniroko, N.S.; Onilude, Q.A.; Aderemi, A. M. Assessment of the Impact of Agroforestry Education on Biodiversity Conservation and Community Development. *International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary Subjects in Education* **2012**, *3* (4), 839–843. doi.org/10.20533/ijcdse.2042.6364.2012.0119.
- [40]. Ahmed, A.; Kumar, S.; Shukla, A.K. Effect of different soil moisture conservation techniques for establishment of Aonla based hortipasture systems in Bundelkhand region. In Proceedings of National Symposium on Climate Resilient Forage Production and its Utilization held at Bidhan Chandra Krishi Vishwavidyalaya, Kalyani, West Bengal, India (2014, November); p. 21.
- [41]. Condit, R. *Tropical Forest Census Plots*, Springer-Verlag, B. and R. G. Landes Company, Georgetown, Texas, 1998
- [42]. Brokawa, N.; Thompson, J. The H for DBH. *Forest Ecology and Management* **2000**, *129*, 89-91.
- [43]. Dahdouh-Guebas, F.; Koedam, N. Empirical estimate of the reliability of the use of the point-centred quarter method (PCQM): Solutions to ambiguous field situations and description of the PCQM + protocol. *Forest Ecology and Management* **2006**, *228* (1–3), 1-18.
- [44]. Ponce-Hernandez, R; Koohafkan, P.; Antoine, J. *Assessing carbon stocks and modelling win-win scenarios of carbon sequestration through land-use changes*. FAO, Rome, 2004; 3, 10 – 27.
- [45]. Böhm, W. *Methods of studying root systems*, Springer Science & Business Media, 2012
- [46]. Jackson, R.B.; Canadell, J.; Ehleringer, J.R.; Mooney, H. A.; Sala, O.E.; Schutze, E.D. A global analysis of root distributions for terrestrial biomes. *Oecologia* **1996**, *108*, 389–411.
- [47]. Richter, D.D.; Markenwitz, D.; Trembore, S.E.; Wells, C.G. Rapid accumulation and turnover of soil carbon in aggrading forests. *Nature* **1999**, *400*, 56–58.
- [48]. Santantonio, D.; Hermann, R.K.; Overton, W.S. Root biomass studies in forest ecosystems. *Pedobiologia* **1977**, *17*, 1–31.
- [49]. Winrock. *A guide to monitoring carbon storage in forestry and agroforestry projects*, International Institute for Agricultural Development, Forest Carbon Monitoring and Verification Services Winrock, USA, 1977
- [50]. Woome, P.L. Impact of cultivation of carbon fluxes in woody savannas of Southern Africa. *Water, Air and Soil Pollution* **1993**, *70* (1-4), 403-412.
- [51]. Singh, D.C.; Chonkar, P.K.; Pandey, R.N. *Soil Plant Water Analysis: A Methods Manual*, Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi, India, 1999
- [52]. Jackson, M.L. *Soil Chemical Analysis*, Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, India, 1973
- [53]. Walkley, A.J.; Black, I.A. Estimation of soil organic carbon by the chromic acid titration method. *Soil Science* **1934**, *37*, 29-38.
- [54]. Subbiah, B.V.; Asija, G.L. A rapid procedure for estimation of available nitrogen in soils. *Current Science* **1956**, *25*, 259-260.
- [55]. Bray, R.H.; Kurtz, L.T. Determination of total organic & available forms of phosphorus in soils. *Soil Science* **1945**, *59*, 34-39.
- [56]. Toth, S.J.; Prince, A.L. Estimation of carbon exchange capacity and exchangeable Ca, K and Na content of soils by flame photometric techniques. *Soil Sci.* **1949**, *67*, 439-435.
- [57]. Araya, A.; Stroosnijder, L. Effects of tied ridges and mulch on barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) rainwater use efficiency and production in Northern Ethiopia. *Agricultural Water Management* **2010**, *97*, 841–847.
- [58]. Gomez, K.A.; Gomez, A.A. *Statistical procedures for agricultural research*, 2nd edn; International Rice Research Institute. Hohn Willy and Sons: New York, Chicester, Brisbane, Toronto, Singapore, 1984; pp 120-134.
- [59]. Sheoran, O.P.; Tonk, D.S.; Kaushik, L.S.; Hasija, R.C.; Pannu, R.S. *Statistical Software Package for Agricultural Research Workers*. Recent Advances in information theory, Statistics & Computer Applications by D.S. Hooda & R.C. Hasija, Department of Mathematics Statistics, CCS HAU, Hisar, India, 1998; pp 139-143

IJSER