

Chapter 12

Role of Plantation Crops in Climate Change Mitigation: Special Reference to Natural Rubber

K. Annamalainathan, P.R. Satheesh and James Jacob

*Rubber Research Institute of India,
Kottayam – 686 009, Kerala, India*

Climate is changing in the plantation crop tracts of India. The progress of climate warming profoundly impacts on the growth and yield of plantation crops and spices. Perennial plantation crops sequester significant quantities of atmospheric CO₂ into plant biomass and soil organic carbon and therefore, involved in mitigation of greenhouse gas (GHG) emission. Though rubber like plantation crops themselves prone to changing climate they can be effectively used in tree planting programmes to ameliorate, at least partially, the CO₂ emissions. Measurement of Net ecosystem exchange (NEE) of CO₂ by eddy covariance method and estimation of carbon sequestration by biomass inventory method indicated that rubber plantation is a potential sink for atmospheric CO₂. The estimated CO₂ sequestration in different plantation crops indicated that plantations in India can play an important role in offsetting considerable level of emissions to atmosphere. Climate change in the plantation tracts of India, carbon sequestration potential of various plantation crops and payment for ecosystem services etc. are discussed in this review article.

Keywords: Carbon sequestration, Ecosystem service, Net ecosystem exchange, Plantation crops.

Introduction

Contribution of greenhouse gases (GHG) to the atmosphere is mainly responsible for changing climate. The major GHG includes carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide and other oxides of nitrogen. While anthropogenic emission of all GHGs has been increasing over the years, atmospheric CO_2 concentration has registered the highest increase in terms of the absolute amount and thus contributed the maximum to global warming and climate change. Fossil fuel combustion and cement production are which dramatically increased with industrialization were responsible for about 75 per cent of the increase in atmospheric CO_2 concentration. A high accumulation of GHGs in atmosphere would result in unfavourable weather conditions such as a rise in temperature, floods and drought. This would adversely affect crop production, especially in countries with fragile economy.

Climate change is perhaps the single most important factor that will adversely affect the growth and productivity of crops in the years to come (Cynthia *et al.*, 2001). Changes in temperature, changes in the quantum and distribution of rainfall leading to drought, decrease in soil moisture content etc. are some factors that may have a significant impact on crops (Ainsworth and Ort, 2010). Spices and plantation crops are mostly grown in Western Ghats and their foot hills along the Malabar coast, packets of Western Ghats and parts of sub-Himalayan regions in North Eastern India. Climate change in these regions have undergone remarkable changes starting from plantation crops initiated in these regions (Satheesh and Jacob, 2011). Unlike other annual crops, spices and plantation crops are perennial in nature, once planted will continue to grow and changes happening to the climate for several years or decades ahead. The deficit with concomitant occurrence of high light and temperature during drought in the field and it may be the most important environmental factor that could occur in the plantation tracts of India as a result of climate change.

Climate change mitigation is defined as various actions taken to reduce the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere thereby protecting the global ecosystems from the adverse effects of climate change. Most often climate change mitigation scenarios involve reductions in emissions of greenhouse gases, either by reducing emission from sources or by increasing their sinks (Molina *et al.*, 2009). Trees are considered to be major terrestrial sinks. Forests play a vital role in regulating the greenhouse gases, particularly carbon dioxide (CO_2), hence afforestation has been identified as one of the most available to mitigate the effects of climate change (Houghton, 2005). Rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*) is a multipurpose tree which provides economically viable products of both latex and timber production and socially acceptable system. Unlike plantation crops themselves prone to changing climate they can be used in tree planting programmes to ameliorate, at least partially, the adverse effects. Although the availability of carbon in rubber trees has been assessed (Sinha *et al.*, 2005), the potential capacity of sequestering atmospheric CO_2 in rubber trees has not been quantified. Managed forests and plantation crops store carbon both in biomass and soil. In this review article, climate change in the Indian plantation sector and possible mitigation potentials of plantation crops are discussed with a special emphasis on the role of rubber

2. Climate Change in the Plantation Tracts of India

Plantation crops, mainly coconut, rubber, tea, coffee, oil palm, areca and cocoa, are grown in ecologically sensitive areas such as coastal belt and areas with high rainfall and high humidity. Among these tea, coffee and areca were introduced into India by the erstwhile colonial rulers. Plantation crops like cocoa, oil palm and vanilla etc. were newly introduced into India. Plantation crops are mostly rainfed crops vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change. Many of the spices and plantation crops are generally cultivated in regions where the average rainfall ranges from 1000-4000 mm year⁻¹. The requirements also vary for different plantation crops. For instance tea requires a temperature with a high annual rainfall but rubber needs a well distributed rainfall with temperature ranging from 20-35°C. The general increase in temperature, (both T_{max} and T_{min}) has changed in the plantations belt. Prolonged drought associated with lengthy periods of high temperature during monsoon and summer season affecting growth and productivity of all plantation crops.

India is one of the countries that are more vulnerable to climate change. Plantation crops are not remain immune to the adverse effects of global warming associated climate change. Temperature has been warming and rainfall is changing in unprecedented way in the plantations and spices belts (Shamiraj *et al.*, 2011; Satheesh and Jacob, 2011). These changes have a profound impact on crop growth, flowering behaviour, productivity and spread of pest and diseases etc. In most of the spices and plantation belts, the monsoon (SWM) contributes close to 70 per cent of the annual rainfall (Sinha *et al.*, 2009). There was a significant reduction of 233 mm in SWM and 94 mm NEM during the last 135 years in traditional plantation crops in India. The annual rainfall had a positive trend over central India and a decreasing trend over some parts of eastern India for the period 1901-1960 (Parthasarathy and Dhar, 1974). There was an increasing trend in mean annual SWM rainfall in Haryana, West Rajasthan and West MP and a significant decrease in Jharkhand, Chattisgarh and Kerala during the period 1901-1982. There was an increasing trend in extreme rain events over central India during monsoon at the same time a significant decreasing trend in the frequency of moderate rain events during the same period (Goswamy *et al.*, 2006). Mean annual temperature was increasing in all India basis during the period 1901-1982 (Hingane *et al.*, 1997) and Kumar (1997) reported that a significant warming trend of 0.57°C in India. The magnitude of warming was higher in the post monsoon seasons. There was an increase of 0.92°C in the mean T_{max} over the last century that a rise of 1.1°C in mean winter temperature and 0.94°C in mean summer temperature were reported by Arora *et al.* (2005).

Number of rainy days and cool nights per year showed a declining trend while that of hot days per year increased (Satheesh and Jacob, 2011). They have studied the direct impact of climate warming on rubber productivity. A multiple regression analysis (MLR) model indicated for 1°C rise in T_{max} and T_{min} the average yield depression would be around 7 per cent in traditional rubber

over, it is likely that new regions and countries could become suitable for on in future. For example, region where low temperature is presently a or for cultivating NR such as NE India could become more suitable for on in a warmer world.

al, SWM rainfall with a decreasing trend and pre and post monsoon an increasing trend have been reported in most of the spices and op cultivating areas of India (Satheesh and Jacob, 2011). Thus, there the normal rainfall pattern all over the plantation areas in recent past. of uncertain weather pattern will be more pronounced during the nt and early growth of spices and rubber like plantation crops. monsoon season is the ideal planting season of rubber in India. In uncertainty in rainfall and other weather factors is making the scheduling m operations like planting difficult even in traditional rubber growing urrence of unexpected dry spells and bright sunny days with warm even during the monsoon season increases casualty. Temperature is the main factors affecting the performance of perennial crops. A rise in affected black pepper, cocoa and cardamom in the absence of sufficient (Rao and Alexander, 2007). Every crop species has its own growing or its optimum growth and reproduction. If the temperature is increasing required growth degree-days will attain earlier and as a result flowering will happen unseasonal and abnormal. This can affect both productivity f the produce.

Carbon Sequestration by Plantation and Agricultural Systems

ic principle of carbon sequestration potential of any cropping system agroforestry systems is the difference between carbon gained by is and carbon lost or released through respiration and decomposition ents of the ecosystem. This overall gain or loss of carbon is usually y net ecosystem productivity. Mostly carbon enters the ecosystem via is in the leaves and accumulation is obvious when it occurs in l biomass. But around half of the assimilated carbon is eventually below ground via root growth, release of organic substances and litter herefore, soils contain the major stock of C in the ecosystem. The tree in agroforestry systems can be significant sinks of atmospheric C heir fast growth and long storage of biomass in their plant body (Nair, luding trees in agricultural production systems as agroforestry or ops that can eventually be increased the amount of carbon stored in d to agriculture (Kürsten, 2000). Recapturing atmospheric CO₂ can be changing carbon-poor ecosystems into carbon-rich ecosystems, for regeneration of grasslands into secondary tropical forests has been a way to recapture C through accumulation and long-term storage of nt biomass and soil organic matter (Houghton *et al.*, 1993).

an store around 20 to 50 times more carbon per hectare than agricultural and Meganck, 1994). Carbon is sequestered and stored in aboveground

biomass, roots, litter and soil in forest ecosystem. Most of this carbon forests are removed and replaced by other land-uses. Table 12.1 presents storage potential of various ecosystems and illustrates the significant tropical forests have on the global carbon cycle.

Table 12.1: Mean Carbon Storage of Various Ecosystems

Ecosystem	Ecosystem Carbon Storage (t C/ha)
Tropical forest	220
Temperate forest	150
Boreal forest	90
Grassland/savann	15
Agriculture	5

Source: Cairns and Meganck, 1994.

Generally during summer, the CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere reflecting the high rate of global sequestration through photosynthesis (1996). The low temperature during winter inhibits photosynthesis both in the oceans and this result in the atmospheric CO₂ concentration in winter. Thus, accumulation of CO₂ in the atmosphere is a dynamic balance between the amount of CO₂ emitted by the world and the total amount sequestered by the planet (through photosynthesis) during a given period.

$$\text{Atmospheric CO}_2 \text{ concentration} = \text{CO}_2 \text{ Emission} - \text{CO}_2 \text{ Sequestration}$$

From the above equation, it is evident that growing more trees reduces atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Globally, the rate of deforestation is much higher than that of reforestation. The rate of forest destruction in the Amazon, which has come down markedly in recent years is still as large as about 1 km² per year (Carrington, 2010). Recent studies estimated a net emission of 1.5 Gt CO₂ per year from the Mato Grosso region of Brazilian Amazon, ranging from 2.8 to 3.5 Gt CO₂ equivalents (CO₂-e) from 2006 to 2009 (Galford *et al.*, 2010). It was estimated that between 1996 and 2005, the Brazilian Amazon rainforest was deforested at a rate of 1 km² per year and converted to pastures and farmland releasing 0.7 to 1.0 Gt CO₂ year⁻¹ to the atmosphere (Daniel *et al.*, 2009). Avoided deforestation is the key strategy of afforestation, even as new and massive efforts at planting more trees are being undertaken in parallel strategy in order to reduce build-up of CO₂ in the atmosphere.

Niggli *et al.*, (2009) estimated the global average sequestration potential of croplands to be 0.9 to 2.4 Gt CO₂ year⁻¹, which is equivalent to an average potential of about 200 to 300 kg C per hectare per year for all croplands. The carbon sequestration potential of pastures with improved management was calculated as 0.22 t C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Watson *et al.*, 2000). Studies on various species with medicinal and economic importance have been reported offering opportunities for CO₂ mitigation by sequestering accumulated carbon in its vegetation. Studies on medicinally important tree species like Arjun, Bael, Bahera, Harar, Jamun, Neem and Reetha had shown that

sequestration potential in the range of 3.05 to 11.01 tons of CO₂ (Suresh, 2010). Recent study by Hooda *et al.*, (2005) on sequestration of three species planted on farm lands, viz., Poplar, *Eucalyptus* and Teak have carbon sequestration potential in the range of 1.42 to 2.85 tons of C ha⁻¹ (10.46 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). The same study has also reported the sequestration of Orchard species like Mango, Litchi and Citrus to be in the range of 0.20 to 1.42 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. In another study carried out on the farm lands of Punjab has reported that Poplar and *Eucalyptus* species have the capacity to sequester 1.42 to 2.85 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Gera *et al.*, 2006). Kraenzel *et al.*, (2003) measured above and below ground biomass and tissue carbon content of 20 year old teak (*Tectona grandis*) in plantations in Panama and estimated the carbon storage potential. They developed a regression model relating the diameter at the breast height (DBH) and the carbon stored in teak. From this model they calculated the plantation level carbon storage as 120 t C ha⁻¹.

The perennial plantation crops have profound role in mitigating climate change through their C-sequestration potentials. Tea, coffee, coconut, rubber and oil palm can sequester considerable amount of atmospheric CO₂ into biomass and soil, thereby reducing net emission. There was no much interest shown among the scientists in researching with respect to plantation crops whereas forest system has been intensively studied with a strong belief that forest may have influence over carbon cycle. At present very few studies have been carried out in plantation crops. Steffan-Dewenter *et al.*, (2007; Li *et al.*, 2011). The carbon stored in above ground biomass of oil palm plantations ranges from 48 t C ha⁻¹ to 80 t C ha⁻¹ (Steffan-Dewenter *et al.*, 2007). Steffan-Dewenter *et al.*, (2007) have indicated that conversion of forest land into cocoa plantation reduced the total carbon stock in a tropical rain forest and they have estimated a range of 40 to 90 t C ha⁻¹ in a mature stand of cocoa (Table 12.2). Annual increment in biomass or net primary productivity ranged from 2.0-3.9 t C ha⁻¹ in cocoa and 3.34-7.0 t C ha⁻¹ in areca plantations was reported by Nareshkumar, (2013). They have worked out the CO₂ sequestration potential of 2.0-3.9 and 5.0-10.9 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ in cocoa and arecanut, respectively. Rubber is a perennial plantation cash crop, intensively managed and covers about 3 million hectares in the world's cultivable land (FAO, 2007). In a study with entire tea plantation and forest C storage in China indicated that the carbon storage of 316.2 Tg for which 26.3 per cent C was stored in plant biomass, 2.5 per cent in litter (8.0 Tg C) and 71 per cent in soil organic carbon (225 Tg C). The average ecosystem C density of tea plantation 193 t C ha⁻¹ is higher than that of forests (187 t C ha⁻¹) and grass lands (133 t C ha⁻¹) (Li *et al.*, 2008). Number of studies have investigated the carbon-stock of coffee bushes in different regions. Specifically, Suárez Pascua (2002) reported coffee carbon-stocks of 1 to 2.8 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. It has been reported that a carbon stock of 3.93 t C ha⁻¹ in coffee plants grown in association with other shade giving trees and 3.77 t C ha⁻¹ in coffee component in a study conducted in Guatemala (Marquez, 1997).

Table 12.2: Above Ground Carbon Storage of Mature Stand of various Plantation Crops

Plantations	Carbon Storage (t C ha ⁻¹)
Tea	30 - 50
Coffee	56 - 80
Cocoa	40 - 90
Coconut (15 years old)	50-100
Oil palm	48 - 80
Rubber	76 - 120

Source: Gibbs *et al.*, 2008; Steffan-Dewenter *et al.*, 2007; Suárez Pascua, 2002; Amburekar *et al.*, 2011; ISPC, 2009

The carbon sequestration potential of various plantation crops has been analyzed by scientists working in respective Research Institutes and Universities. It is projected that plantation crops are potential sinks for atmospheric CO₂. The estimated CO₂ sequestration in different plantation crops in India can play an important role in offsetting considerable amount of CO₂ build up from emissions (Table 12.3). Total estimated CO₂ sequestered by plantation crops in India is around 148 million t CO₂ year⁻¹. This may account for a considerable level of CO₂ in the atmosphere and provides a significant service. However, the magnitude of mitigation depends on age of the plantation, natural and social barrier and time frames.

Table 12.3: Estimated Carbon Dioxide Sequestration by Plantation Crops in India

Crop	Mean CO ₂ Sequestered (t ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	Total Area in India (million ha)	Estimated CO ₂ Sequestered (million t yr ⁻¹)
Arecanut	7.54	0.38	2.9
Cocoa	3.0	0.034	0.1
Coconut	50	1.9	95.0
Cashew	6.3	0.9	5.6
Oil palm	26	0.08	2.0
Coffee	21.5	0.34	7.3
Rubber	28.7	0.68	19.3
Tea	29	0.56	16.0
Total	173.3		148.0

Source: ISPC, 2009

4. Planting Trees and Climate Mitigation

A few reports are available from which it is understood that plantation crops are not sufficient to mitigate the entire emission globally. At the current rate of CO₂ sequestration by terrestrial vegetation, which is roughly 3303 million t

A study shows that we need an additional land area equivalent to more forests to sequester fully the present global CO₂ emission and thus offset the build-up of CO₂ in the atmosphere. Even if we take the sequestration with the land and ocean together, the analysis showed that we still need another planet to fix all the CO₂ that the world is presently emitting into the atmosphere. The study clearly demonstrates that build-up of CO₂ in the atmosphere is more by the amount of global CO₂ emission rather than the CO₂ absorbed by the planet. While planting trees is good for the environment, and is promoted for the various ecosystem services that they offer, including carbon sequestration, it should be borne in mind that trees are not adequate to fix the huge amount of CO₂ that the world emits today. Therefore, it has been suggested that other than growing more trees, deliberate reduction in emission of CO₂ from the atmosphere is also definitely required to reduce and stabilize the concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere.

Annual agricultural crops also sequester large amounts of CO₂ from the atmosphere. Almost the entire amount of carbon stored in them is returned to the atmosphere at the end of the crop cycle when the crop is consumed by man or animal. Residues are used as cattle feed or they are incorporated into soil or compost. This is not so in forestry or plantation agriculture with perennial tree species. In a plantation like natural rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*) has an economic life span of 25-30 years and therefore, the carbon sequestered in rubber plantation will be long.

Carbon Sequestration Potential of Natural Rubber Plantations

Rubber plantations help to mitigate the atmospheric CO₂ concentration in several ways. First, it supplies natural rubber which can be used in place of plastics that are produced from petroleum stocks; therefore NR avoids huge CO₂. Secondly, natural rubber plantations have the capacity to sequester large quantities of CO₂ from the atmosphere. Several studies have been reported that rubber can sequester significant amount of carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. Published data shows that natural rubber plantation can sequester 139 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ over a life cycle of 27 to 29 years. The existing stands of rubber in the world have the capacity to absorb 90 million plus tons of carbon dioxide per year. Thus, a rubber plantation is nearly as effective as a virgin forest in absorbing carbon dioxide and giving out life sustaining oxygen (Sivakumaran and Ambily *et al.*, (2012) have reported that different clones of rubber plants have different biomass and carbon sequestration potential. They have compared the biomass of modern clones belong to RR II 400 series with the biomass of RR II 105, RR II 429 (114 t C ha⁻¹), RR II 414 (106 t C ha⁻¹) and RR II 417. RR II 105 showed a low carbon sequestration potentials of 60, 54 and 57 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ respectively. Chantuma *et al.*, (2005) had studied the wood production potential of RR II 600 in the non-traditional rubber cultivation area of North Eastern Nong Khai province a 15-year old plantation recorded wood volume of 188 m³ ha⁻¹. In Chachoengsao province, a plantation aged 19 had a moderate level

wood volume 188 m³ ha⁻¹. However, in a traditional rubber cultivation area of Nong Khai and Surat Thani in Southern Thailand, where plantations were 25 years old, the wood volume was 78 per cent and 83 per cent and wood volume recorded as 256 and 280 m³ ha⁻¹ respectively (Chantuma *et al.*, 2005).

Soil carbon sequestration is a complex process, affected by many factors such as vegetation type, climate, soil microbes, management, and land-use practices. The stock turn over in the soil over a period of time indicates the carbon sequestration potential of particular soil. Results from a few studies showed that rubber plantation decreased soil organic carbon (Jiao and Yang, 1999; Schroth *et al.*, 2002; Ahammad *et al.*, 2005). In contrast, a few studies have demonstrated that rubber plantation potentially enhance soil carbon sequestration (Wang and Li, 2003; Yang *et al.*, 2005).

Three approaches currently exist for measuring or estimating the carbon sequestration in woody plantation crops. The first is based on the use of volume estimates, which directly estimates biomass using existing biomass regression equations and the second is a more complex method, involves the collection of primary data measurements in order to develop site-specific regression equations. The third inventory method is the most easily available and commonly used method, which gives an estimate of the total amount of carbon stored in the various plantation crops over a period of time (Jacob and Mathew, 2004; Jacob, 2005). In this article, the carbon sequestration potential of rubber plantation is included as a case study. The carbon sequestration potential of rubber plantation. Various atmospheric parameters, carbon assimilation and storage into the biomass of rubber plantation are discussed in the following.

The experimental site was situated at the Central Experimental Station Rubber Research Institute of India (RRII) at Chethackal, Pathanamthitta, Kerala. The location is 9° 26' N and 76° 48' E. The study was carried out in a (five-six year old) rubber plantation, with different *Hevea* clones namely, RR II 260 and RR II 430 spread over more than five hectare area with almost uniform height. The average height of the trees was 10 m and girth was 35 cm at 150 cm above the ground level at the time of the studies began in March 2009.

6. Accounting of Tree Biomass

The dry weight of above ground rubber tree biomass was calculated using Shorrocks's regression model:

$$W = 0.002604 G^{2.7826} \quad (\text{Shorrocks } et al., 1965)$$

where, G is trunk girth (cm) at the height of 150 cm from bud union.

Generally the root biomass is 15-20 per cent of shoot biomass in natural rubber trees. The amount of carbon stored in the trees was estimated by multiplying the biomass calculated using the above formula by 0.15.

7. Eddy Covariance Technique for Atmospheric Flux

A state-of-the-art method known as eddy covariance (EC) technique is used for measuring CO₂ and water flux in a 5-7 year old natural rubber plantation.

for a period of two years at Rubber Research Institute of India, Kottayam, to understand the ecosystem and canopy level CO_2 and water exchange and sequestration potential of rubber plantation (Annamalainathan *et al.*, 2011). Instruments were commissioned on a flux tower of 18 m height and the sensors were fixed on the tower at 4 m above the canopy. Eddy covariance method is a micro-meteorological method in which the fluxes of CO_2 and water vapour are measured on real time basis (Massman, 2003). The EC system comprises of a three dimensional sonic anemometer (Campbell, USA) which is used together with an open path infra-red gas analyser (LI-7500, Li Cor, USA). Additionally the system is equipped with a net radiometer (LiCor-Lite, USA) and temperature and relative humidity (RH) sensors (HMP 35A, Finland). Carbon dioxide (F_c) and water vapour fluxes (ET) of the rubber plantation were continuously measured by eddy covariance technique (Massman, 2003).

CO_2 exchange obtained from the EC system is the difference between gross photosynthetic assimilation by the canopy and the total respiratory CO_2 efflux from the roots and soil (Lalrammawia and Paliwal, 2010). The diurnal pattern of net exchange of CO_2 (NEE) clearly indicates two phases namely, the net uptake during day time and net release of CO_2 from the system into the atmosphere during the night time. By default day time CO_2 fixation (net photosynthesis) is shown as negative flux and night time respiration is shown as positive flux which includes respiration from all living components and soil, collectively termed ecosystem respiration (Reco). The difference between the amount of net fixation during the day and the CO_2 lost as Reco during the night is the net fixation of CO_2 by the ecosystem for a given day. As sunlight increases, the net flux gradually becomes negative (indicating net photosynthesis or CO_2 sequestration into the ecosystem) and generally remains negative until sunset. In the evening as light intensity declines Reco becomes greater than net fixation (Figure 12.1).

During the study period, the daily NEE by the rubber ecosystem has ranged from -13.5 to $7.0 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$. Most of the days recorded CO_2 influx into the plantation; however, a few days recorded net carbon efflux from the plantation to atmosphere. On those days, $1-7 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ was released to atmosphere and during these days there was less sunshine hours. The net efflux values in certain days were due to the possible high rate of total soil respiration (Rs) both by autotrophic and heterotrophic (Rh) components of the soil in addition to the net CO_2 release from the canopy. The soil respiration rate generally depends on the soil moisture, soil temperature, organic composition, density of microbial population and rate of decomposition of organic contents (Stephen and Theodore, 1979). On an annual basis, the net CO_2 assimilation (Aeco) and net respiratory CO_2 efflux (Reco) were recorded for the entire year (Table 12.4). While the mean Reco was $2.5 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$, the net assimilation rate (Aeco) recorded was $13.5 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ (Figure 12.1). As there was considerable rate of ecosystem respiration at night, the CO_2 release during daytime was much higher in rubber plantation. In a study with

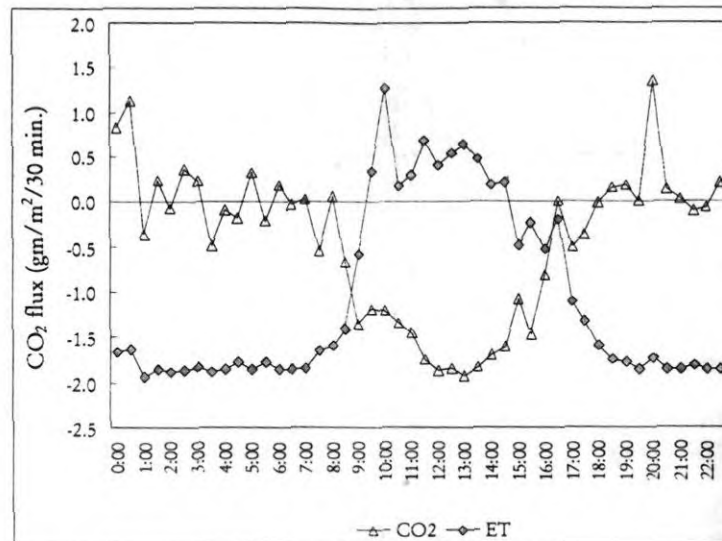
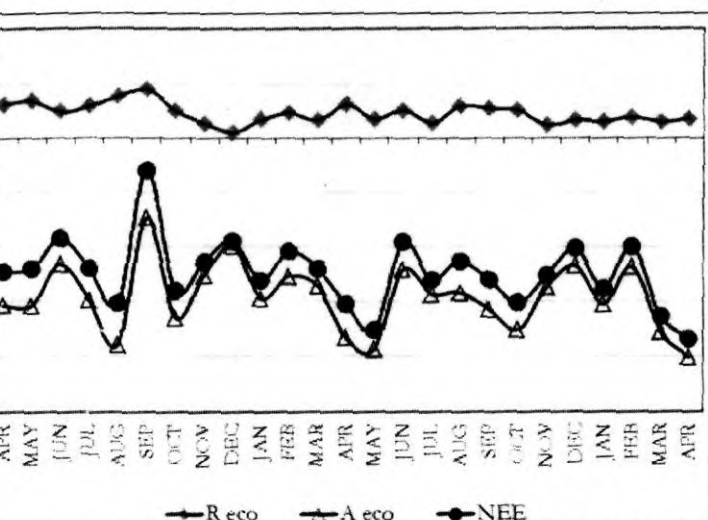


Figure 12.1: A Typical Diurnal CO_2 and Evapotranspiration of Water (ET) in Immature Rubber Plantation.

immature rubber plantation in Thailand, Thaler *et al.* (2008) have suggested that ecosystem level EC measurement of CO_2 and water fluxes could be used to estimate the net exchange of rubber plantation according to prevailing climate and environmental parameters.

Table 12.4: Daily Net Carbon Dioxide ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$) Assimilation in a Five-Year Old Immature Rubber Plantation in a Traditional Rubber Growing Belt

Monthly Mean	Carbon Dioxide Flux (Net carbon exchange NEE ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$))
April	12.6 ± 0.9
May	14.6 ± 1.0
June	9.6 ± 0.6
July	12 ± 1.2
August	11 ± 1.5
September	13 ± 1.1
October	15 ± 0.8
November	12.0 ± 0.9
December	10.2 ± 1.2
January	11.8 ± 1
February	9.4 ± 0.9
March	11.3 ± 1.2



Mean Monthly Net Ecosystem Exchange in Immature Rubber Plantation for the mean ecosystem respiration (Reco), ecosystem CO₂ assimilation (Aeco) and net ecosystem exchange (NEE) on per day basis.

with lengthy sunshine hours recorded high rate of net ecosystem exchange. In summer months sunlight was plenty but soil moisture deficit and high VPD restrict canopy photosynthesis and hence NEE. The NEE was higher during pre-monsoon period with fully recharged soil moisture after showers. During continuous cloudy and incessant rainy days either NEE was low or the net ecosystem respiration rate was higher than net assimilation.

Amount of carbon sequestered by the rubber plantation was estimated during the period by estimating the annual shoot biomass increment during this period using the allometric method. From the shoot biomass estimation, the amount of CO₂ sequestered was calculated as 20 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ which does not include root biomass, litter decomposition and sequestration by weeds and cover crops. Carbon stock in rubber plantations was worked out by many workers by biomass estimation methods (Jacob and Mathew, 2004, Wauters *et al.*, 2008). Total carbon sequestered by rubber plantations under Kerala (South India) conditions for a 21 year old stand was estimated to be 67 t C acre⁻¹ and it was reported that the sequestration rate in rubber plantation is much higher than most other terrestrial ecosystems (Mathew, 2004). A 14 year old rubber stand has a carbon stock of 76 t C ha⁻¹ in above ground biomass whereas the contribution of the soil organic carbon amounted to 135 t C ha⁻¹ (Wauters *et al.*, 2008). In a report from Sri Lanka it was found that on average, mature rubber is capable of sequestering 81 MT of CO₂ annually and, within the 24 years of mature phase, 1,296 MT of CO₂ is sequestered in a hectare of rubber (Munasinghe *et al.*, 2011). Our studies

showed that natural rubber plants are good sink for atmospheric CO₂. The NEE values are good indicator of net carbon movement in rubber ecosystem.

8. Payment for Ecosystem Services

The Kyoto Protocol triggered a strong increase in investment in planting tree crops for carbon trading. carbon sinks, although the legal and policy instruments and governance mechanisms are still debated (FAO, 2001). A number of countries have prepared themselves for the additional funding for the establishment of new forests. In an initiative claimed to be the first of its kind, in 1997 Costa Rica issued tradable securities of carbon sinks that could be used to offset emissions. It also utilized independent certification insurance. According to a FAO report, the gas mitigation funding covered about 4 million hectares of forest land worldwide (FAO, 2001). The recognition of afforestation and reforestation as eligible land use under the CDM of the Kyoto Protocol is expected to lead to an increase in forest plantation establishment in developing countries. The development Mechanism of the protocol allows developing countries to earn credits in planting tree crops for carbon trading.

The potential of fixing atmospheric CO₂ in rubber trees is over 45 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ in addition to that rubber trees add 84 MT ha⁻¹ of CO₂ to the soil through the root fall and litter (Munasinghe *et al.*, 2011). Further cover crops and intercropping add huge amounts of organic matter to the soil and enhance soil properties. In the afforestation and/reforestation projects targeting direct sale of carbon credits, based CDM projects could be built up. Biogas generated from rubber factories could be used as a replacement for fossil fuel and emission reduction. In rubber cultivation project has so far been marketed under CDM or carbon credits. But new forestry projects have been registered in CDM. Even rubber plantations satisfying all the criteria given by UNFCCC for a forest ecosystem, the services by world NR plantations go unappreciated in negotiations on mechanisms to address climate change in a post Kyoto regime, in the UNFCCC's Doha climate summit during December 2012. The reasons for ignored acknowledgement in the negotiations are due to the CDM rules of the Kyoto Protocol (KP). These rules are more difficult to consider the carbon credits from afforestation/reforestation (A/R) sector than credits from other sectors. As on 22nd December, 2012, out of 6202 registered CDM projects A/R projects were only 41. That itself means the authorities are not giving much importance to these projects and there are no serious buyers for the credits from this sector.

The only way forward to this issue is to set up a domestic carbon trading mechanism for rubber or any other plantation sector independent of CDM. To create a market for these credits nationally. Payment for ecosystem (environmental) services (PES), in which a voluntary agreement that offering financial supports are made to an environmental service (ES) provider. It is a transparent system for the provision of environmental services through conditional payments to service providers (Tacconi, 2012). To assess the state of the world's ecosystems, the 2005 designed a Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA) report in which it identified and identified twenty four ecosystem services. However there is a

Among these 24 services which are climate change mitigation, watershed and biodiversity conservation. These three services are now getting more money and interest worldwide. The ecosystem services are representing a total economic value of the world by contributing to human welfare directly and indirectly. It was reported from a study that an average of US\$ 33 trillion year⁻¹ (trillion year⁻¹) were estimated as the economic value of 17 ecosystem services in 16 biomes. This is equal to almost double of the global gross national product (GDP) of US\$ 18 trillion/year (Costanza *et al.*, 1997). The advantage of PES is that it considers standing forests and allows the community to enter into partnership with formal institution like Government.

Conclusion

Like perennial plantation crops sequester vast amount of atmospheric carbon in biomass. Cultivation of rubber trees on non-forested land could directly act as a carbon sink by sequestering carbon in biomass and indirectly as organic carbon in soil. However, it is understood that planting trees alone cannot sequester all the carbon into the atmosphere though it is a good option to curb emission at some extent. Under Kyoto protocol, forestry or plantation sector activities can be used to offset credits that could further help in reduction of fossil fuel use (Suruchi *et al.*, 2002). However, no plantation crop cultivation has so far been registered in India. The alternate funding sources like voluntary environmental protection fund and government institutions may be explored for the ecosystem services provided by the perennial plantation crops.

References

Ulaganathan, K., Satheesh, P.R and Jacob, J. 2011. Ecosystem flux measurements in rubber plantations. *Natural Rubber Res.* 24 (1): 28-37.

Ulaganathan, K.K., Meenkumari, T., Jessy, M.D., Ulaganathan, A. and Nair, N.U. 2012. Carbon sequestration potential of RR11 400 series clones of *Hevea brasiliensis*. *Sci. 25*(2): 233-240.

North, E.A. and Ort, D.R. 2010. How do we improve crop production in a changing world? *Plant Physiol.* 154: 526-530.

Q.R., Comerford, N.B., Ogram, A.V., Al-Agely, A., Santos, L.P. and Santos, L.P. 2005. Soil carbon and physical property changes in Brazilian coastal tableland soils with land use following tableland soils with land use following tableland. *Agroforest. Sys.* 63: 193-198.

M., Goel, N.K. and Singh, P. 2005. Evaluation of temperature trends over the last century. *Hydro. Sci. J.* 50: 81-93.

Naresh Kumar, S. 2013. Net primary productivity, carbon sequestration and carbon stocks in areca-cocoa mixed crop system. *J Plant. Crops.* 32: 1-13.

Costanza, R. 2003. Assessing ecosystem carbon balance. Problems and prospects of the eddy covariance technique. *Glob. Change Bio.* 9: 476-492.

8. Cairns, M. and Meganck, R. 1994. Carbon sequestration, biological diversity and sustainable development: Integrated forest management. *Env. Res.* 18(1): 13-22.
9. Carrington, D. 2010. Amazon deforestation in dramatic decline, on track to show. Guardian Newspapers Ltd, United Kingdom, 23 July 2010.
10. Chantuma, A., Maenmeun, S., Chantuma, P. and Paechana, P. 2005. Rubber wood production and quality- Case productivity in the North Thailand rubber wood properties. Paper presented in "Rubber: Wood, Cropping and Processing" workshop. May 25.-27. 2005. Kasetsart University, Bangkok. pp7.
11. Costanza, R., Ralph, d'Arge, Rudolf, de G., Stephen, F., Monica, C., Karin, L., Shahid, N., Robert, V. O'Neill, Jose, P., Robert, G.R., Paul, S. and van den Belt. 1997. The value of world's ecosystem services and natural capital. *Nature*, 387: 253-260.
12. Cynthia, R., Iglesias, A., Yang, X.B., Epstein, P.R. and Chivian, E. 2009. Climate change and extreme weather events: Implications for food production and pests. *Glob. Change and Human Health* 2(2): 90-104.
13. Daniel, N., Britaldo, S. S., Frank, M., André, L., Paulo, M., John, C., Andrea, C., Hermann, R., Stephan, S., David, G. M., Claudia, M. S., Pedro, P., Sergio, R., Ane, A., Oriana, A., and Osvaldo, S. 2009. Deforestation in the Brazilian Amazon. *Science*. 326: 1350-1351.
14. FAO, 2001. Plantations and greenhouse gas mitigation: a short review. D.J. (ed.) Moura-Costa, P., Aukland, L., In: Forest Plantations Their Role in Greenhouse Gas Mitigation. Working Paper (FAO), no. FP/12/FAO, Rome (Italy). Forest Resources Department, P 18.
15. FAO, 2007. State of the world's Forest, 2007. *Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations*. UN. Rome.
16. Galford, G.L., Melillo, J.M., Kicklighter, D.W., Cronin, T.W., Cerri, E.F., J.F. and Cerri, C.C. 2010. Greenhouse gas emissions from alternative land uses: deforestation and agricultural management in the southern Amazon. *Nat. Acad. Sci.* 107 (46): 19649-19654.
17. Gera, M. and Suresh, C. 2010. Opportunities for carbon sequestration from growing trees of medicinal importance on farm lands of Haryana. *Fores.* 136 (3): 287-300.
18. Gera, M., Gireesh, M., Bisht, N.S. and Gera, N. (2006). Carbon sequestration potential under agroforestry in Rupnagar district of Punjab. *Indian J. Forest.* 543-555.
19. Gibbs, H.K., Johnston, M., Foley J.A., Holloway T., Monfreda C., Ray D., Zaks D. 2008. Carbon payback times for crop-based biofuel expansion in the tropics: the effects of changing yield and technology; *Environ. Res.* 118: 1-13.
20. Goswami, B.N., Venugopal, V., Sengupta, D., Madhusoodanan, M.S. and P.K. 2006. Increasing trends of extreme rain events over India in recent decades. *Science* 314: 1442-1445.

ane, L.S., Rupa Kumar, K. and Ramana Murthy Bh V. 1985. Long-term
s of surface air temperature in India. *Internation. J Climat*.5: 521-528.

la, N., Gera, M., Vasistha, H.B., Chandran, M. and Rassaily, S.S. 2005. Phase-
ort on Methodologies in Forestry Mitigation Project-case studies from
ital and Udham Singh Nagar Districts of Uttaranchal. ICFRE, Dehradun.

ghton, R.A., 2005. Above ground forest biomass and the global carbon
ce. *Glob. Change Bio*. 11, 945-958.

ghton, R.A., Unruh, J.D., Lefebvre, P.A. (1993). Current land cover in the
s and its potential for sequestering carbon; *Glob. Biogeochem. Cycles* 7:305-

Fourth Assessment Report (AR4), Climate Change 2007. The Physical
ce Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report
Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge University Press,
bridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2007.

2009. Report of the panel meeting on carbon sequestration in plantation
and trading under CDM. CPCRI, Kasargod, Kerala

J and Mathew, N.M. 2004. Eco-friendly NR plantations can tap vast global
ng. *Rubber Asia*. March-April 2004.

J. 2005. The science, politics and economics of global climate change:
ations for the carbon sink projects. *Current Sci*. 89 (3): 464-474.

R.Z. and Yang, C.D. 1999. The changes of the soil microorganism in
phere and outside in different developing stages of the Chinese fir
tion. *Sci. Silvae Sinic*. 35: 53-59.

g, C.D., Chin, J.F.S. and Whorf. T.P. 1996. Increased activity of northern
tion inferred from atmospheric CO₂ measurements. *Nature* 382: (6587) 146-

zel, M., Castillo, A., Moore, T. and Potvin, C. 2003. Carbon storage of
st-age teak (*Tectona grandis*) plantations, Panama. *Forest Eco. Manage*. 173,
5.

akumar, K.N., Rao, S.S.L.H.V.P. and Gopakumar, C.S. 2009. Rainfall trends
ntieth century over Kerala, India. *Atmos. Environ*. 43: 1940-1944.

n, E. 2000. Fuel wood production in agroforestry systems for sustainable
se and CO₂-mitigation. In: Forests in Focus, Proceedings Forum "Forests
nergy" 17-21 January 1998, NNA Reports, Vol. 12, Spl. Issue 1, 1999, 141-
ological Engineering 16, Supplement 1, (2000), pp 69-72.

amawia C and Paliwal K. 2010. Seasonal changes in net ecosystem
ge of CO₂ and respiration of *Cenchrus ciliaris* L. grassland ecosystem in
rid tropics: an eddy covariance measurement. *Current Sci*. 98 (9): 1211-

Wu X, Xue, H., Gu, B., Cheng, H., Zeng, J., Peng, C., Ge, Y. and Chang, J.
Quantifying carbon storage for tea plantations in China. *Agri. Ecosys*.
n. 141: 390-398.

36. Márquez, L. 1997. Validación de Campo de los Méodos del Institu
para el Establecimiento de Parcelas Permanentes de Muestreo para
Carbono en Sistemas Agroforestales. Guatemala: Universidad d
Guatemala thesis.

37. Massman, W. J and Lee, X. 2002. Eddy covariance flux corre
uncertainties in long term studies of carbon and energy exchange. *A
meteorol*. 113: 121-144.

38. Molina, M., Zaelke, D., Sarmac, K. M., Andersen, S. O., Ramanat
Kaniaruf, D. 2009. "Reducing abrupt climate change risk using th
Protocol and other regulatory actions to complement cuts in CO₂
Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.106 (49): 20616-20621.

39. Munasinghe, E. S., Rodrigo, V. H. L., Karunathilake, P. K. W. 20
sequestration in mature rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis* Muell. Arg.) plan
genotypic comparison. *J. Rubber Res. Inst. Sri Lanka* 91: 36-48.

40. Nair P.K.R. 2001. Agroforestry. In: Our Fragile World: Chal
Opportunities for Sustainable Development, Forerunner to The Enc
Life Support Systems. UNESCO, Paris, France and EOLSS, UK. pp.

41. Niggli, U., Fliessbach, A., Hepperly, P. and Scialabba, N. 2009. Low
gas agriculture: mitigation and adaptation potential of sustaina
systems. FAO, April 2009, Rev. 2-2009.

42. Pant, G.B. and Kumar, K.R. 1997. *Climates of South Asia*, John Wiley,
UK.

43. Parthasarathy, B. and Dhar, O.N. 1974. Secular variations of regio
over India. *Quarterly J. Royal Meteorol Society*. 100: 245-257.

44. Rao, G.S.L.H.V.P and Alexander, D.2007. Impact of climate cha
agricultural sector in tropical countries. Proceedings of the WTC
Kochi, 14th Dec. 2007. Kerala Agricultural University. pp 80.

45. Satheesh, P.R. and James Jacob. 2011. Impact of climate warming
rubber productivity in different agro-climatic regions of India. *Nat*
24(1): 1-9.

46. Schroth, G., D'Angelo, S.A., Teixeira, W.G., Haag, D. and Lieber
Conversion of secondary forest into agroforestry and monoculture
in Amazonia: Consequences for biomass, litter and soil carbon st
years. *Forest Eco. Manage*. 163: 131-150.

47. Shammiraj, Satheesh, P.R. and James Jacob. 2011. Evidence for clima
in some natural rubber growing regions of South India. *Nat. Rubber R*
17.

48. Shorrocks, V.M.1965. Mineral nutrition, growth and nutritie
Heveabrasiliensis. Growth and nutrient content. *J. Rubber Res. Inst*.
32-47.

49. Sivakumaran, S. and Tee, N.K. 2010. Sustainable cultivation of rubber: A possible framework. *The Rubber International Magazine*, January 2010: 34-42.
50. Steffan-Dewenter, I., Kessler, M., Barkmann, J., Bos, M.M., Buchori, D., Erasmi, S., Faust, H., Gerold, G., Glenk, K., Gradstein, S.R., Guhardja, E., Harteveld, M., Hertel, D., Höhn, P., Kappas, M., Köhler, S., Leuschner, C., Maertens, M., Marggraf, R., Migge-Kleian, S., Mogea, J., Pitopang, R., Schaefer, M., Schwarze, S., Sporn, S.G., Steingrebe, A., Tjitrosoedirdjo, S.S., Tjitrosoemito, S., Twele, A., Weber, R., Woltmann, L., Zeller, M., Tschardtke, T., 2007. Tradeoffs between income, biodiversity, and ecosystem functioning during tropical rainforest conversion and agroforestry intensification. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 104, 4973-4978.
51. Stephen G. P and Theodore T. K (1979). Stomatal response of populus clones to light intensity and vapor pressure deficit. *Plant Physiol.* 64: 112-114.
52. Suárez Pascua, D. 2002. Cuntificación y Valoración Económica del Servicio Ambiental Almacenamiento de Carbono en Sistemas Agroforestales de Café en la Comarca Yassica Sur, Metagalpa, Nicaragua. Turrialba, Costa Rica: CATIE thesis.
53. Suruchi B and Singh R. 2002. Carbon sequestration estimates for forestry options under different land-use scenarios in India. *Current Sci.* 83: 1380-1386.
54. Tacconi, L. 2012. Redefining payments for environmental services. *Ecological Econ.* 73 (1): 29-36.
55. Thaler P., Siripornpakdeekul P., Kasemsap P., Kunjet S., Chairungsee N., Kositsup B., Rounsard O., Gay F., Chantuma A., Thanisawanyangkura S., Sangkhasila K., Sathornkich J., Bonnefond J.M. 2008. Rubberflux. Progress in CO₂ and water budget evaluation of rubber plantations in Thailand. AsiaFlux Workshop 2008, 17-19 November 2008, Seoul, Republic of Korea.
56. Wang, H.H. and Li, D.H. 2003. Effect of man-made rubber-tea community improving ecological condition of soil. *J. Mountain Sci.* 21: 318-323.
57. Watson R.T., Noble I.R., Bolin B., Ravindranath N.H., Verardo D.J. and Dokken D.J. (eds). 2000. Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), Special report. Cambridge Univ. Press. New York.
58. Wauters, J B., Coudert S., Grallien, E., Jonard, Mand Ponette, Q. 2008. Carbon stock in rubber plantation in Western Ghana and Mato Grosso (Brazil). *Forest Eco. manage.* 255 (7): 2347-2361.
59. Yang, J.C., J.H. Huang, J.W. Tang, Q.M. Pan and X.G. Han. 2005. Carbon sequestration in rubber tree plantations established on former arable lands in Xishuangbanna, SW China. *Acta Phytoeco. Sini.* 29: 296-303.