

1 **SPATIO-TEMPORAL DYNAMICS OF DIVERSITY OF**
2 **TRADITIONAL GRAIN LEGUMES OF CENTRAL HIMALAYA**

3
4 **Divya Dangwal¹, R.K. Maikhuri^{1*}, L.S. Rawat¹, V.S. Negi¹**

5 ¹G.B.Pant Institute of Himalayan Environment and Development, Garhwal Unit, Srinagar Garhwal, P.O.
6 Box-92, Uttarakhand, India.

7 *Corresponding author: Ph-01346-252603, Fax No. 01346-252603, rkmaikhuri@rediffmail.com,
8 divyadangwal@gmail.com

9
10 **Abstract:**

11 Legume fixes atmospheric nitrogen and hence plays a fundamental role in every
12 agrarian ecosystem. In Central Himalayan region where local economy is agriculture
13 based and more than 85 % agricultural land is rainfed and practiced on slopes of hilly
14 terrains, importance of legume crops as a “Soil Fertility Maintainer” cannot be ignored.
15 But changes in food habit, socio-economic and cultural transformation has led to
16 reduction in area under cultivation, crop intensity and erosion in legume crop diversity. A
17 recent in-depth survey and field experiment conducted in different villages of the
18 Mandakini valley of Central Himalaya reveals 35 % decline in area under traditional
19 legume crop cultivation over a period of more than two decades (from 1980-2005).
20 Among all the studied crops, the area under cultivation of Glycine max (Black soyabean)
21 has reduced to a large extent due to its replacement by another Glycine max variety viz
22 White soyabean. Substantial decline in legume grain yield (kg/ha/yr) has also been
23 noticed and prominent crops like Glycine max (Black soyabean), Macrotyloma
24 uniflorum, Vigna mungo, Vigna unguiculata, Cajanus cajan and Vigna angularis have
25 shown 58%, 36%, 28%, 27%, 25% and 16% reduction respectively in yield. The per
26 capita per year production has declined by 28 % and consumption has turned down from
27 70 gm/capita/day to 56 gm/capita/day. All this lead to an out source dependency for
28 pulses and about 2-3 kg pulses is purchased per capita per year.

29 The Central Himalayan farming communities are the one, which remained
30 predominantly rural despite of decades of modernization. Even today, every aspect of
31 economy, and day-to-day livelihood of the majority of its population are governed by
32 agriculture sector. The stability and sustainability of its agriculture is therefore of much
33 of significance. The decline in interest and reduction in area under cultivation of some of
34 the prominently cultivated legume crops in Himalayan agro-ecosystem are a major issue
35 of concern at local, regional, national and global level. This decline of legume crops is
36 likely to continue unless efforts are made to improve yield potential with low level of
37 inputs on one hand and on the other legume crop cultivation need to be linked with
38 market economy, while adding value locally. Therefore, present paper deals with the
39 status, changing scenario, yield assessment, factors involved in loss of legume crop
40 diversity and recommend strategies for their conservation and management.

41 Keywords: Central Himalaya, traditional legume crops, genetic erosion, ethno-
42 medicinal uses, organic farming, conservation.

43 **Introduction**

44 Like many mountain countries, the Indian Himalayan region is characterized by a
45 complex mosaic of distinct agro-ecosystems, differentiated by their climatic, edaphic, and
46 geological characters, vegetation and cropping patterns, crop rotations and other features.

47 Owing to diverse topography and climatic conditions, Himalaya represents different
48 agro-ecological zones and each of these zones in turn comprised of myriad microhabitats.
49 It is within this diversity of habitats that an amazing variety of legumes and other crops
50 have been developed over the millennia by the hill farmers and thus this region is
51 considered as an abode of rich agricultural crop diversity specifically the legume crops.
52 There are many species and varieties of legumes that are cultivated by the farming
53 communities like Macrotyloma uniflorum, Vigna radiata, V. mungo, V. angularis,
54 V. unguiculata, Pisum arvense, P. sativum, Glycine max , Lens esculenta, Vicia faba.
55 Besides, several species and varieties of Phaseolus are exclusive to higher Himalaya. This
56 diversity is neither accidental nor it is purely natural. It is the outcome of thousand of
57 years of crop selection and management practices experimented and implemented by the
58 hill farmers.

59 Legume crops are of multipurpose of paramount importance and play significant
60 role in providing agricultural, food, nutritional and livelihood security to the hill farmers.
61 They have been closely interlinked with cereals in a way that in agriculture legumes
62 complement cereals in terms of cropping pattern and crop cycle and provide rich protein
63 and a variety of minerals and nutrients to a cereal based diet (FAO, 1982). Often
64 described as “poor men’s meat” (FAO, 1982), pulses constitute the major protein source
65 in the diets of local hill communities in Himalaya. Some of the species are of immense
66 significance as providers of fuel, fodder and medicines to the farming communities and
67 other species have an important position in traditional rituals and ceremonies.

68 Legume fix atmospheric nitrogen and have enormous potential to fulfill the
69 nitrogen requirements of soil, associated and subsequent crops and hence are an eco
70 friendly option against inorganic fertilizer and organic manure. The later though has been
71 traditionally used in hill agro-ecosystem, are less available due to dwindling forest cover
72 and decrease in domesticated animal population (Semwal and Maikhuri, 1996). Many of
73 these Himalayan traditional legume crops have high ecological and economic potential
74 and thrive well in adverse environmental conditions with low external inputs (Maikhuri et
75 al., 1996).

76 However, during recent past, a decline in interest of local farming communities
77 towards traditional legume crop cultivation has been observed as a result of climatic,
78 cultural and socio-economic changes. This decline is perceived as a big threat to the
79 traditional legume crops and their wild relatives and consequently the subsistence
80 farming system of the region appears to be in jeopardy. Present paper is an attempt (i) to
81 understand the traditional Himalayan agro-ecosystem in general and legume crop
82 cultivation in particular (ii) to understand the current status and changing scenario of
83 prominent legume crops at two points of time (1980-2005) in terms of area under
84 cultivation and grain yield, (iii) to document ethno-medicinal uses, socio-economic,
85 cultural significance and religious believes of farming communities in relation to legume
86 crops, (iv) to assess the factors and processes involved in loss of legume crop diversity
87 and (v) discuss policy and suggest appropriate strategies for their conservation and
88 management.

89

90 **Study area and methodology**

91 Present study was carried out in the Central Himalaya (Uttarakhand) situated
92 between 20⁰31’9” to 31⁰ 26’5” N & 77⁰35’5” to 80⁰6’ E (Maikhuri et al., 2001) with

93 particular emphasis on Mandakini valley where a total of 10 villages, all falling in
94 Rudraprayag district (Fig.1) were selected. A brief description and profile of these
95 villages is given in Table1.

96 An extensive cross sectional survey of all the selected villages was carried out to
97 collect the baseline information which included per household land holding size and
98 based on this, households of each village were grouped into three categories viz
99 household below 0.2-hectare, between 0.2 to 1 hectare and above 1-hectare landholding.
100 About 60 % households were interviewed in each category.

101 A door-to-door survey was conducted in selected households of each village to
102 enumerate total landholding, area under cultivation of each crop, crop composition,
103 cropping pattern, crop rotation and commonly cultivated crops. The information was
104 collected through informal discussion with knowledgeable members of the families,
105 particularly with women folk, as they are actively involved in all agricultural activities.
106 Each family was visited 3-4 times during the cropping season so as to collect authentic
107 information.

108 Information about area under each crop in the past (1980) and at present (2005),
109 changes in landrace diversity of legume crops and changes in production, consumption
110 and marketing status was assessed by interviewing the head of each selected household.
111 Respondents, particularly the elder persons, were asked to prioritize the probable reasons
112 for change in legume crop diversity and cropping pattern in their own farm fields in
113 particular and in the village in general.

114 To document ethno-medicinal, socio-cultural and religious knowledge pertaining
115 to legume crops, farmers of different age groups (18-30, 31-60 and above 60) were
116 interviewed. The first section of questionnaire focused on information concerning
117 medicinal properties, specific characteristics and mode of use of each legume crop.
118 Farmer's perception on issues like climate change, organic farming, major problems
119 related to farming, sustainable agriculture and challenges for sustainable management of
120 traditional agriculture were part of the other section of questionnaire.

121 Verification of grain yields reported by the respondents was done using actual
122 grain harvest values from random plots (5 replicates) for each of mix and mono cropping.
123 In these plots economic yield was assessed by laying 15 quadrates of 2 X 2 m size.
124

125 **Results and Discussion**

126 **Legume cropping in Central Himalaya**

127 The Central Himalayan farming communities practice low input agriculture with a
128 major concern for conserving crop diversity at both species and intraspecies level (Bisht
129 et al., 2006). The cropping pattern in this region is built around two main crop seasons
130 viz Rabi – the winter crop season (from October to March) and Kharif – the summer crop
131 season (from April to October). The predominant form of cultivated land is rainfed (85%)
132 and irrigated area contributes merely about 15 % (Maikhuri et al., 1996). The agricultural
133 operations and crop composition under both the system are exclusive. In irrigated land
134 wheat and paddy are the major crops whereas in rainfed agriculture different traditional
135 crops like Eleusine coracana, Amaranthus viridis, Hordeum vulgare, Panicum miliaceum,
136 Perilla frutescense, Secale cereale, Setaria italica and various legume crops like
137 Macrotyloma uniflorum, Vigna radiata, V. angularis, V. unguiculata, Pisum arvense,
138 Glycine max are cultivated and hence play a vital role in conserving hill crop diversity.

139 The cropped area under rainfed agriculture is generally divided into two almost equal
140 halves locally called as ‘Mullasari’ and ‘Mallasari’. Three crops in two years are
141 harvested in these areas and the crop sequences are maintained in a manner to have one
142 half of the rainfed area (Mullasari or Mallasari) under fallow phase during Rabi season
143 and either main cereal crop (paddy) or millet-legume mixture during Kharif season
144 (Figure 2). In irrigated agriculture 2 or 3 crops are cultivated per year.

145 Grain legumes are primarily rainfed, kharif season crops. However a few like pea
146 and lentil are cultivated during Rabi season. Some of them are cultivated on the bunds
147 (field margins) of paddy field in irrigated land whereas few are confined to small areas of
148 kitchen gardens. In Himalayan region legumes are customarily mixed cropped with
149 traditional non-legumes like Eleusine, Echinochloa, Maize and Amaranthus and this
150 practice is locally known as “Barahnaja”. Literally the term indicates that about 10-12
151 crops are grown together in combination so as to obtain maximum and diverse yield on
152 per unit area basis (Shiva and Vanaja, 1993; Ghosh and Dhyani, 2005). Growing non-
153 leguminous crops with legumes provide climbing support to the later, reduces disease
154 attack, facilitates weed management and reduces the harmful impacts of continuous and
155 intensive cereal cultivation on soil fertility.

156 Legume crop cultivation practices are simple and do not require much labour and
157 attention like other crops. When wheat is harvested, the field is ploughed only once and
158 seeds are sown while ploughing. Being a rainy season crop, it does not require irrigation
159 and rainwater fulfills the water requirement of the crop. After 20-25 days of germination,
160 when the crop roots grasp the soil firmly a local agriculture instrument called “Maaua” is
161 applied to the field to facilitate soil loosening. This is followed by first weeding. Second
162 weeding is performed 20-25 days after first weeding. With in five months the crop starts
163 maturing. Crop maturity time varies from crop-to-crop and generally large seeded crops
164 like Phaseolus and Glycine mature early. For use as vegetable, green and succulent pods
165 of some legumes like Phaseolus and Vigna are harvested early, but grains gets ready for
166 harvesting around 135 to 150 days.

167

168 **Crop diversity and genetic erosion**

169 Over centuries, the Himalayan traditional societies and farmers have continuously
170 adopted and modified the rich genetic material available to them from nature. They
171 further developed knowledge, skills and techniques (KST) to enrich their
172 natural/traditional crop treasure. The diversity of crops/legume crops is the consequence
173 of thousands of years of deliberate selection, planned exposure to a range of natural
174 conditions, adaptation to localized environments, field level cross breeding, and other
175 management systems which farmers have tried out. Within a village landscape of central
176 Himalaya, domesticated legume crop diversity can be spread over time and space over
177 vertical and horizontal layers within the agricultural field and within or between species
178 of plants. Apart from ecosystem characteristics, economic, cultural, religious and survival
179 factors have played a key role in this diversification (Maikhuri et al., 1996, 1997, 2001).

180 At a time when the world is looking for sustainable use of biodiversity,
181 Himalayan agro-ecosystem has great relevance. A variety of changes in traditional
182 Himalayan agro-ecosystem have emerged in the recent past in response to population
183 pressure, ineffective technological innovation, market forces, economic growth,
184 inappropriate social welfare and environment conservation policies (Maikhuri et al.,

185 2001). Negative trends in agro-ecosystem such as decline in crop yield, expansion of
186 agriculture on marginal land (Eckholm, 1975; Rao, 1997; Singh et al., 1984), declining
187 carrying capacity of the rangeland (Rao, 1997; Nautiyal et al., 2003; 2005;
188 Chandrasekhar et al., 2007), weed infestation (Saxena and Ramakrishnan, 1984), loss of
189 domesticated genetic diversity (Maikhuri, 1993), soil erosion (Sen et al., 1997; 2002),
190 social disintegration (Ramakrishnan, 1992) dominates the debate on sustainable
191 agriculture in Himalaya. A shift from traditional to modern, intensive agriculture system
192 has been observed in Himalayan region as a result of increasing market forces (Maikhuri
193 et al., 1996; Palini et al., 1998; Paroda, 1997). This result in major loss in crop diversity
194 and legumes being an important component of traditional hill cropping systems are also
195 affected. In spite of being an important component of hill agricultural system and
196 economy, legume production showed a stagnancy or decline since past few decades
197 (Maikhuri et al., 1997). Despite of being first, both in area under cultivation and gross
198 production of pulses, India stand at 118th position on account of productivity (Sirori,
199 2006). Substantial erosion in area under legume crop cultivation has been observed with
200 in a period of more than two decades (Table 2). On an average basis it was estimated that
201 about 12 hectare land per village was under legume crop cultivation in the study area
202 during 1980, however it has reduced to 9.6 hectare per village in 2005 with about 20%
203 reduction. Though the decline seems low but it is due to the introduction of Glycine max
204 (White soyabean). If as an introduced crop the area under cultivation of Glycine max
205 (White soyabean) is excluded, about 35% decline in area under traditional legume crops
206 cultivation has been noticed. Among the studied legume crops, the area under cultivation
207 of Glycine max (Black soyabean) has declined considerably, i.e. from 1.6 to 0.4ha
208 /village (75 % reduction) owing to its replacement by Glycine max (White soyabean).
209 Similarly other crops like Lens esculenta, Pisum sativum, Macrotyloma uniflorum, Vigna
210 angularis and Cajanus cajan have 70%, 60%, 44%, 16%, and 13% reduction in area under
211 cultivation, respectively. Similar trends have been reported by Maikhuri et al. (2001)
212 from central Himalaya when they observed about 72-95 % decline in area under
213 Macrotyloma uniflorum, Vigna species. Some important causes for decline in area under
214 legume crops are decline in mono cropping practice, reductions in legume crop
215 proportion/density under mixed cropping and shift towards cash and market oriented
216 introduced/traditional crops.

217 Figure 3a, 3b, 3c and 3d represents the crop distribution pattern and proportion (in
218 percentage) of land, out of every one hectare, under each legume and associated non-
219 legume cultivation at two points of time during kharif and rabi season. Though, compared
220 to 1980, a decline in area under each crop has been noticed in 2005 in both the seasons,
221 but the most surprising result is that during 1980s all the agricultural land was under crop
222 cultivation but during 2005, out of every 1 hectare about 14% land is either left
223 abandoned or under grass cultivation in each cropping season. Also during 1980s only
224 1% land was under Glycine max (White soyabean) cultivation but in 2005, 11% land is
225 under White soyabean cultivation. The result explains mode of shifting agriculture and
226 pattern of land transformation from agriculture to barren/grassland with in the study area
227 due to lack of man-power or other constraints. Similar situation prevails in the other
228 villages also.

229
230

231 **Yield, consumption pattern and marketing**

232 Substantial decline in legume and associated crops per unit area grain yield
233 (kg/ha/yr) under various cropping patterns has been noticed over a period of more than
234 two decades (Table 3). About two decades back monocropping of legumes was common
235 but now only few areas or regions of higher altitude in the study area still practice
236 monocropping. Among various monocropped legumes, monocropping of Glycine max
237 (Black soyabean) has completely been replaced by Glycine max (White soyabean).
238 Though, the later is not new to the region, but owing to high market demand it is now
239 monocropped extensively. Under mixed cropping rabi season crops viz Lens esculenta
240 and Pisum sativum have shown 70 and 60 % reduction in per unit area grain yield
241 whereas kharif season legume crops such as Glycine max (Black soyabean),
242 Macrotyloma uniflorum, Vigna mungo, Vigna unguiculata, Cajanus cajan and Vigna
243 angularis have shown 58%, 36%, 28%, 27%, 25% and 16% reduction in grain yield,
244 respectively. Summing up, about 8% decline in per unit area legume grain yield under
245 mono cropping and about 23 % and 64 % decline in kharif and rabi season legume grain
246 yield under mixed cropping has been observed. If as an introduced crop production of
247 White soyabean is excluded about 34% decline in per unit area grain yield under mono
248 cropping and about 30 % decline in kharif season legume under mixed cropping has been
249 observed.

250 Considerable changes have been observed in per capita production, consumption
251 and marketing status of legume crops with in the studied villages (Figure 4). During
252 1980s legume crop production was sufficient to meet per capita needs. On an average
253 about 44 kg pulse was produced per capita/yr in 1980 which included all the prominent
254 pulses specific to that area but now it has reduced to 32 kg/capita/yr with about 28%
255 decline. Consequently the per capita consumption has declined sharply from 70
256 gm/capita/day to 56 gm/capita/day as against the WHO recommendation of 80
257 gm/capita/day (Sirori, 2006). Earlier, there was no dependency on market for pulses
258 however, now about 2-3 kg pulse per capita per year is purchased from market. Selling of
259 pulses in the local market has declined considerably i.e. about 39 %. The decline is not in
260 terms of quantity only but in terms of diversity also. Vigna angularis, Glycine max (Black
261 soyabean) and Cajanus cajan were the prominent crops that were exchanged or often
262 marketed in the past. However, now only Glycine max (soyabean) and a small proportion
263 of Cajanus cajan (about 3 kg/capita/yr) are exported to market. Though Vigna angularis
264 has higher per capita production compared to Cajanus cajan but due to high market prize
265 Cajanus cajan is preferred for selling.

266 The critical reason for decline in per capita production of pulses is due to decrease
267 in area under cultivation of pulses and per unit area grain yield. Though increase in
268 population in last 20 years could be a reason for this decline but here in past 10 years due
269 to high migration rate, the net population dependent on agriculture has either remained
270 constant or declined in many cases (Table 4). Also availability of government and private
271 jobs with in or surrounding the villages, further reduces the per capita dependency on
272 agriculture. So it can be concluded that the decline in per capita production and thus
273 consumption and selling is due to decline in area under cultivation and per unit area grain
274 yield as illustrated in Table 2, 3 and Figure 3a, 3b 3c, 3d.

275
276

277 **Ethno biological aspects**

278 Though, legumes build soil fertility and thus considered as an integral part of any
279 cropping system, but in central Himalayan region, these are also important as an essential
280 component of socio-economic, cultural and traditional life of the local communities.
281 Several varieties of legumes are grown in many parts of the Himalayan region for their
282 uses during festivals, marriages or other auspicious occasions, several others are grown
283 for their nutritional values, taste, colour or smell, yet other for their medicinal and soil
284 fertility enhancement characteristics (Table 5).

285 Most of these Himalayan legumes are used to prepare traditional dishes viz fana,
286 bhatwani, chainsa etc. But due to changing life styles the traditional cuisines/dishes are
287 loosing their identity. Important lessons on linking traditional food crops and dietary
288 diversity to rural, urban and semi-urban health care are emerging from research and
289 promotional activities (Maikhuri et al., 2001). Efforts are also made to make these foods
290 available at various fetes and festivals to make these healthy and traditional cuisines
291 familiar to people of other region. Such an effort will popularize local recipes and
292 increase their market demand. Market acts as powerful factor for determining the
293 transformation of food systems. Consumers demand for traditional foods will help in
294 conserving traditional knowledge systems associated with preparation of such food on
295 one hand and traditional agro-legume diversity on the other hand.

296

297 **Factor and processes responsible for decline of legume crop diversity**

298 As revealed by the farmers', the net decline in legume crop diversity is a
299 collective consequence of various factors and issues like environmental perturbations,
300 changed food habits, socioeconomic factors, ignorance towards rainfed agriculture,
301 unavailability of seeds, disease and pests attack etc.

302 About 90% respondents reveal that weather uncertainties and changes in food
303 habits are the two major reasons for decline in legume crop cultivation. Being a rainfed,
304 rainy season crop, the dependency of pulses on weather condition is very high and due to
305 their low yield performance, their production is affected much adversely compared to
306 cereals under unfavorable climatic conditions. Thus farmers give more emphasis to paddy
307 cultivation in irrigated/rainfed land since paddy depend less on rain and also even in
308 unfavorable condition farmers are not completely detriment because their yield is about 3
309 to 4 times higher than legumes. Also legumes are much susceptible to abiotic constraints
310 like water logging and frost compared to paddy. Secondly, changed food habits where
311 consumption of traditional crops is considered as a sign of backwardness lead to a decline
312 in interest towards legume and traditional crop cultivation. Similar results were obtained
313 by Maikhuri et al. (2001), when they observed replacement of Macrotyloma uniflorum by
314 kidney bean, wheat and potato owing to changed food habits and increased market
315 demand for potato and kidney bean. While providing energy, the later do not provide
316 enough proteins and micronutrients, leading to deficiency disease and lowering of health
317 status of the concern population (shiva and Vanaja, 1993). Loss by pests and wild
318 animals is high in pulses as compared to other crops and about 30 % respondent
319 considered it as a measure problem for growth in pulse production. Among some general
320 reasons, low profitability, traditional farmer's caution and conventional Indian food habit
321 where pulses are considered as associates of main food wheat and rice lead to reduced
322 pulse production. At management level unavailability of improved technology, lack of

323 hill suitable high yielding cultivars and unavailability of market are the major constrains
324 to legume production in Himalayan region.

325

326 **Priority intervention for conservation and management**

327 Though, not exactly considering the declining status and conservation/
328 management view in mind, but various plans and strategies to enhance the production,
329 per unit area productivity, distribution facility and availability of market for legume
330 crops, has been proposed in Uttarakhand state agriculture policy 2001. The important
331 focus of the policy is on (i) to increase research work on legume crops like Vigna mungo,
332 Vigna radiata, Glycine max (Black soyabean), Glycine max (White soyabean) and
333 Macrotyloma uniflorum and (ii) to develop proper techniques to increase productivity
334 and decrease the cost of production of White soyabean. Also to maintain continuity in
335 production, proper storage and distribution facility for White soyabean has to be raised
336 and made available. Though, the proposed steps to improve legume crop cultivation and
337 production in the policy are effective ones but the only short coming is that as compared
338 to other traditional legumes, White soyabean has been given much emphasis. The
339 government must take steps towards enhancing the production of other traditional legume
340 crops also and should make available proper storage, distribution and market facility for
341 other legumes also as it is available for white soyabean. In addition to this few other steps
342 that can enhance legume crop cultivation are: At village level attempts, the
343 farmers/villages that have continued and maintained, traditional farming systems in
344 remote/ isolated and marginal areas need to be benefited with viable incentives, which
345 could be either monetary or non monetary (Nautiyal et al., 2005) which may help in
346 conservation of traditional legume crop diversity. Besides there is a strong need to
347 reorient agricultural research and development and related practices in tune with the
348 changing scenario of socioeconomic conditions, agro ecological situations and
349 environmental conditions of the region. In-depth research need to be focused on yield
350 enhancement attributes while making use of locally available natural resources. Also the
351 possibility of marketing of traditional pulses needs to be explored as it is available for
352 Glycine max (Black soyabean). In addition, proper campaigning of traditional pulse in
353 urban market is essential. The government must incorporate the traditional legumes and
354 other crops in public distribution systems (PDS), which will increase the interest of the
355 people towards these crops and will help to counter the bias towards wheat and rice in
356 both domestic consumption and production. This will require awareness among the
357 people about the potential and value of these crops since they are tasty, rich in nutrition
358 and also possesses medicinal properties. Village or community level small co-operatives
359 where collection and processing of raw pulses from a particular area/region can be done
360 and which can make a direct approach to market is need to be encouraged. This will
361 provide a supplementary job and bonus income to villagers. Since hill economy and
362 agriculture is women folk based, the action to empower them through training in
363 technical, leadership and organization skills can led to successful outcomes from
364 implemented strategies, individual household food security and conserving agriculture
365 diversity.

366 Owing to diverse ecology, in-situ conservation is the most appropriate measure
367 for legume/agro biodiversity conservation in Himalayan region. For this, suitable regions,
368 which are rich in traditional varieties of legumes and other crops, are required to be

369 identified immediately. A similar step was taken few years back by a team of scientists
370 when they selected few pockets and valleys in the Central Himalaya, which were the hot
371 spots of agro biodiversity. They emphasized on conservation of traditional crops in their
372 natural habitat (Maikhuri et al., 1996; Nautiyal et al., 2005). Central Himalaya represents
373 a strong network of protected areas, (Sanctuary, National parks and Biosphere reserves)
374 many of which are reservoir of cultivated and wild relatives of diverse traditional crops
375 and could be a viable option for in-situ conservation and management of legume and
376 other traditional crops. One possibility is to declare some of them as a legume or agro
377 biodiversity heritage sites under the Biological Diversity Act (Anonymous, 2002).

378

379 **Future prospects of traditional legume crops for sustainable agriculture and** 380 **livelihood**

381 As per Uttarakhand state agriculture policy 2001, promotion of organic
382 agriculture is in priority. To enhance organic cultivation the government has planned to
383 take many revolutionary steps like enhancing use of biofertilizers, green manure and
384 vermiculture and collection and nuclearization of waste to produce compost. To achieve
385 the goal establishment of laboratories and research centers has also been proposed.
386 Identification of regions where agriculture is purely organic and declaring them as
387 “Organic Farming Region” is also in the proposal. Legume crops by fixing atmospheric
388 nitrogen improve soil nitrogen and hence can ensure organic farming while meeting the
389 state’s food security needs. As a small step toward this the government has planned to
390 provide Rhizobium inoculation facility to the farmers to increase soil nitrogen content.
391 Legumes also led subsequent crop to grow organically by increasing the soil fertility.
392 Thus involving legumes in agriculture will have twin benefits i.e. improve soil fertility
393 and provide good quality organic food, which will provide good monetary returns as
394 organic foods are highly demanded in market at increased price (Bose, 2006). To ensure
395 organic farming, besides legume cultivation, there is also a strong need to ban the use of
396 chemical fertilizers, high yielding varieties and promote indigenous seed saving, mixed
397 cropping, reduce emphasis on just two crops i.e. wheat and paddy, enlarging the public
398 distribution system (PDS) basket to include legumes and its associated non-legume crops
399 and local sourcing of PDS stocks to ensure that farmers are given a good prize for their
400 products.

401 Farmyard manure, which is derived mainly from forest and livestock component,
402 contributes more than 50 % of energy input into hill agro-ecosystems (Semwal and
403 Maikhuri, 1996). But owing to depletion of forest area as well as quality of forest, it has
404 become difficult to collect required amount of organic material (leaf litter) from the
405 forests, which in turn lead to nutrient loss and soil degradation. As far as quality is
406 concern, the partially decomposed material does add more humus to soil than nutrition.
407 So under such circumstances incorporating pulses in agriculture can help to some extent
408 in maintaining soil fertility and would also minimize pressure on existing forest
409 resources.

410

411 **Conclusion:**

412 Garhwal Himalaya is a hub of complex diversity of plants and crop species, which
413 confer the inhabitants with a multiplicity of food. However, as modern cultivation
414 technologies and concern for monetary gain develops, farmers are focused on only few

415 crop species. The “More Production” approach has amplified the productivity of few
416 crops and breeds and resulted in decline in the status of many other local crops. The
417 “homogenous cultivation and maximum production” approach imperils the traditional
418 crop diversity of Central Himalaya. Some of the hill crops, which are now ignored and
419 neglected among the farmers, are Eleusine coracana, Echinochloa frumentacea, Setaria
420 italica and pulses like Glycine spp. (kalabhatt), Macrotyloma uniflorum, Vigna angularis,
421 Vigna unguiculata etc.

422 Traditional Himalayan pulses are rich in nutrition and show most promise for
423 providing the increased demand of vegetable proteins that the world will need in the near
424 future (Maikhuri et. al, 1996). Still these crops are never been exposed and disseminated
425 outside their indigenous areas, where they can be cashed. Present study discloses that the
426 status of pulses is declining to such a fast rate that their long-term survival is in doubt and
427 a time will come when the region would loss the traditional knowledge of cultivation and
428 uses of pulses forever and also would loss the opportunity of being a hub of legume crop
429 diversity. This is not the case in Central Himalaya but in international scenario there are
430 many promising pulse crops, which are almost unknown to science (NAS, 1984).

431 Being a complex interlinked production system of crops, forest and animal
432 husbandry, agriculture in hill area is not adapted to new industrialized techniques. The
433 reasons are topography as well as socio-economic conditions (Maikhuri et. al, 1996). So
434 to restore the sustainability of agriculture and legume crop production a natural resource
435 management based approach has to be developed. The conservation policies suggested in
436 this paper could succeed only if linked with the socio economy of the farmers. Pragmatic
437 multidisciplinary approach is needed, to evolve a sustainable and efficiently productive
438 farming system, which can provide food and economic security to the people without
439 harming traditional knowledge, crop wealth and environment.

440

441 **Acknowledgement**

442 The authors are grateful to the Director, G.B. Pant Institute for Himalayan
443 Environment and Development for providing facilities and to TSBF/GEF/UNEP for
444 providing financial support.

445

446 **References**

- 447 Anonymous, 2002. Publication of the Biological Diversity Act, 2002, No. 18 of 2003.
448 Ministry of law and justice (Legislative department), Govt. of India, New Delhi.
- 449 Bisht, I.S., Rao, K.S., Bhandari, D.C., Nautiyal, Sunil, Maikhuri, R.K. and Dhillon, B.S.,
450 2006. A sustainable site for in situ (on-farm) management of plant diversity in
451 traditional argoecosystems of western Himalaya in Uttaranchal state: a case study.
452 Genetic resources and crop evolution 53, 1333-1350.
- 453 Bose Sushmita. India Organic. Sunday Hindustan Times, New Delhi February, 26, 2006.
- 454 Chandrasekhar, K., Rao, K.S., Maikhuri, R.K. and Saxena, K.G., 2006. Ecological
455 implications of traditional livestock husbandry and associated land use practices:
456 A case study from the Trans Himalaya, India. Journal of arid Environment. 69,
457 299-314.
- 458 Eckholm, E., 1975. The deterioration of mountain environments. Science 139, 764-70.
- 459 FAO, 1982. Legumes in Human Nutrition. FAO, Rome.

460 Ghosh, P. and Dhyani, P.P.,2004. Baranaaja: the traditional mixed cropping system of the
461 Central Himalaya. *Agriculture*. 33, (4), 261-266.

462 Gupta, P.K., 1986. *Pesticides in the Indian Environment*. Interprint, New Delhi.

463 Maikhuri, R.K., 1993. Mithun (*Bos frontalis*) a threatened semi domesticated cattle of
464 northeast India. *International journal of Ecology and Environment Science* 19, 39-
465 43.

466 Maikhuri, R.K., Rao, K.S. and Saxena, K.G. 1996. Traditional crop diversity for
467 sustainable development of Central Himalayan agroecosystem. *International*
468 *Journal of Sustainable Development and World Ecology* 3, 8-31.

469 Maikhuri, R.K., Semwal, R.L., Rao, K.S., Nautiyal, S. and Saxena, K.G. 1997. Eroding
470 traditional crop diversity imperils the sustainability of agriculture system in
471 Central Himalaya. *Research communication. Current science*. 73, 777-782.

472 Maikhuri, R.K., Rao, K. S. and Semwal, R.L., 2001. Changing scenario of Himalayan
473 agroecosystem: Loss of agrobiodiversity, an indicator of environmental change in
474 Central Himalaya, India. *The Environmentalist* 2, 23-39.

475 NAS, 1984. Introduction and Summary. In:*Tropical Legumes: Resources for the*
476 *future*.pp1-17.

477 Nautiyal, S., Rao, K.S., Maikhuri, R.K. and Saxena, K.G. 2003. Transhumant pastoralism
478 and sustainable development: a case study in the buffer zone of the Nanda Devi
479 Biosphere Reserve, India. *Mountain Research and Development*, 23 (3): 255-262.

480 Nautiyal, S., Shibasaki, R., rajan, K.S., Maikhuri, R.K. and Rao, K.S., 2005. Impact of
481 land use changes on subsidiary occupation: a case study from Himalayas of India.
482 *Environmental Information Archives*. 3, 14-23.

483 Palini, L.M.S., Maikhuri, R.K. and Rao, K.S., 1998. Conservation of the Himalayan agro
484 ecosystem: Issues and Priorities. Technical paper III. Himalayan Eco-regional
485 Cooperation Meeting, 16-18 February, Kathmandu, Nepal.

486 Paroda, R.S., 1997. Emerging concern for agro biodiversity in the Indian national
487 context: an introduction. Keynote address. Workshop on National Concern for
488 Agrobiodiversity Conservation, Management and Use. 15-16 October, Shimla,
489 India 15pp.

490 Ramakrishnan, P.S., 1992. Shifting agriculture and sustainable development: An
491 interdisciplinary study from northeastern India. *Man and Biosphere series* 10,
492 UNESCO, Paris. Carnforth, U.K., Parthenon Publication. 424 pp.

493 Rao, K.S., 1997. Natural resource management and development in Himalaya- a resource
494 to issues and strategies. ENVIS Monograph 1. (Almora, India; G.B.Pant Institute
495 of Himalayan Environment and Development.)

496 Saxena, K.G. and Ramakrishnan, P.S., 1984. Herbaceous vegetation development and
497 weed potential in slash and burn agriculture (jhum) in N.E. India. *Weed Research*
498 24, 135-42.

499 Semwal, R.L. and Maikhuri, R.K., 1996. Structure and functioning of traditional hill agro
500 ecosystems of Garhwal Himalaya. *Biological Agriculture and Horticulture*. 13,
501 267-289.

502 Sen et al., 1997

503 Sen, K.K., Semwal, R.L., Rana, U., Nautiyal, S., Maikhuri, R.K., Rao, K.S. and Saxena,
504 K.G. 2002. Patterns and implications of land use/cover change: a case study in

505 Pranmati watershed (Garhwal Himalaya, India). Mountain Research and
506 Development. 22 (1): 56-62.
507 Shiva, V. and Vanaja, R.P., 1993. Cultivating diversity: biodiversity conservation and
508 seed politics. Research foundation for Science Technology and Natural Resource
509 Policy, 130pp. Dehradun India: Natraj Publishers.
510 Singh, J.S., Pandey, U. and Tiwari, A.K., 1984. Man and forests: a Central Himalayan
511 case study. *Ambio* 13, 80-87.
512 Sirori, S.P.S., 2006. Malnutrition: Need to enhance pulse production. *Kurukshetra*. 54,
513 (5), 40-42.
514

514 **Table 1: General structure of the villages selected for present study in Mandakini**
 515 **valley of Central Himalaya.**
 516

Village name	Total population	Total Male Population	Total Female Population	Total geographical area (ha)	Total Agriculture land (ha)	Irrigated land (ha)	Rainfed land (ha)
Badeth	130	55	75	34	15.6	1.5	14.1
Bhatwari	234	99	135	84.3	47.4	1.6	45.8
Malkhi	317	144	173	68.1	38.1	-	38.1
Mandguh	679	306	373	262.7	91.6	0.4	91.2
Jagot	638	308	330	157.9	52.4	10.2	42.2
Kamsal	540	259	281	109.5	44.9	0.6	44.3
Silkote	55	28	27	45.4	7.9	2.7	5.2
Sauri	179	93	86	23.1	11.9	4.7	7.2
Dobha	307	157	150	26	21	0	21
Khaliyon	100	44	56	47	16	0	16

517 • Source: Population census 2001, Block office Agatsyamuny, District
 518 Rudraprayag, U.K. Govt.
 519

520 **Table 2: Area (hectare/village) under rainfed cultivation of some prominent**
 521 **cultivated legumes at two points of time (1980 and 2005).**
 522

Crop	Area under cultivation (ha/village) 1980	Area under cultivation (ha/village) 2005	% Decline/increase	Reasons for Decline/increase
<i>Macrotyloma uniflorum</i>	1.8 ±0.07	1±0.10	44	Decline in monoculture practice, Reduced proportion/density in mixed cropping.
<i>Vigna angularis</i>	2.5 ±0.14	2.1 ±0.11	16	Reduced proportion/density in mixed cropping, shift towards cash crops.
<i>Glycine spp.</i>	1.6 ±0.15	0.4 ±0.02	75	Replacement by soyabean.
<i>Glycine max*</i>	0.1±0.035	1.8 ±0.08	94	Legume introduced.
<i>Cajanus cajan</i>	2.2 ±0.13	1.9 ±0.1	13	Decline in monoculture practice, Replacement by stable crops and soyabean.
<i>Vigna mungo</i>	1.2 ±0.05	1 ±0.11	16	Reduced proportion/density in mixed cropping.
<i>Vigna unguiculata</i>	1 ±0.03	0.81 ±0.03	19	Reduced proportion/density in mixed cropping.
<i>Lens esculenta</i>	0.81 ±0.05	0.24 ±0.01	70	Replaced by high yielding varieties of wheat.

<i>Pisum sativum</i>	0.81 ±0.02	0.32 ±0.005	60	Replaced by high yielding varieties of wheat.
----------------------	------------	-------------	----	-----------------------------------------------

523 * The area has increased, ± indicates standard error (s.e.)

524

525

526

527

528

529 Table 3: Per unit area grain yield (kg/ha/year) of some prominent cultivated legumes and
 530 associated crops under mono and mixed cropping at two points of time (1980 and 2005) in
 531 Central Himalaya

(A) Kharif season legume crop grown under mono cropping	Grain yield (kg/ha/yr) 1980	Grain yield (kg/ha/yr) 2005
<i>Macrotyloma uniflorum</i> (LC)	900±47.0	740 ±41.2
<i>Vigna angularis</i> (LC)	1100 ±61.2	1020 ±57.9
<i>Glycine spp.</i> (LC)	1300 ±65.2	NC
<i>Glycine max*</i> (LC)	NC	1400 ±47.4
<i>Cajanus cajan</i> (LC)	1050 ±59.2	900 ±46.4
<i>Vigna mungo</i> (LC)	870 ±40.9	730 ±27.2
(B) Kharif season legume crop grown under mixed cropping		
1. <i>Macrotyloma uniflorum</i> (LC)	110 ±5.7	70 ±6.9
+ 2. <i>Vigna angularis</i> (LC)	190 ±3.5	160 ±6.3
+ 3. <i>Glycine spp.</i> (LC)	120 ±7.1	50 ±5.5
+ 4. <i>Glycine max*</i> (LC)	10 ±1.4	68 ±5.5
+ 5. <i>Cajanus cajan</i> (LC)	200 ±8.4	150 ±7.1
+ 6. <i>Vigna mungo</i> (LC)	140 ±11.4	100 ±6.9
+ 7. <i>Vigna unguiculata</i> (LC)	110 ±7.9	80 ±6.1
+ 8. <i>Amaranthus viridis</i> (NLC)	100 ±7.2	10 ±1.5
+ 9. <i>Eleusine coracana</i> (NLC)	2150 ±50.0	1750 ±80.6
+ 10. Others** (NLC)	32 ±2.2	15 ±1.4
Sum	3162	2453
(C) Rabi season legume crop grown under mixed cropping		
1. <i>Lens esculanta</i> (LC)	18 ±1.1	5.4 ±1.0
+ 2. <i>Pisum sativum</i> (LC)	23 ±0.7	9.2 ±1.1
+ 3. <i>Triticum aestivum</i> (NLC)	2200 ±68.9	1750 ±41.8
+ 4. <i>Brassica compestris</i> + <i>Hordeum vulgare</i> (NLC)	100 ±6.7	40 ±4.5
Sum	2341	1804.6

532 ± indicates standard error (s.e.) Do we have any scientific assessment of 1980 to give SE
 533 values ?
 534

535
536
537

Table4: Population census of studied villages during 1981, 2001 and approximate migration rate during 2001

Village	Population 1981*	Population 2001*	Approximate Migration %	Population 2001 (After migration)
Badeth	101	130	8	120
Bhatwari	215	234	44	103
Malkhi	271	317	23	243
Mandguh	632	679	14	584
Jagot	472	638	21	501
Kamsal	478	540	11	482
Silkote	43	55	18	45
Sauri	85	179	10	161
Dobha	238	307	28	222
Khaliyon	73	100	27	70

538
539
540
541
542
543
544

* Source: Population census 1981, 2001, Block office Agatsyamuny, District Rudraprayag, U.K. Govt.

Table 5: List of some important traditional legume crops of central Himalaya with their brief agronomic practices, uses and ethno medicinal properties.

Botanical, English, vernacular name and cultivation altitude	General description	agronomic	Uses and Ethno medicinal values
<i>Vigna mungo</i> (L.) Hepper Blackgram Urd or kali dhal 500-1750masl	Both mono as well as mixed cropped with other associated leguminous and non-leguminous crops in rainfed agriculture. In irrigated land it is grown on the bunds of paddy field.	seasonal	Grains are either cooked into dhal or grinded into powder to prepare a local dish called <i>chainsa</i> , usually served with cooked rice. Grain powder or boiled grains are used to prepare stuffed <i>paranthe</i> (a form of <i>chapatti</i>). Being considered sacred, <i>urd</i> has wide roles to play in prayers and other rituals. Overnight water soaked grains are processed into <i>pakodi</i> (a local dish), which is an important component of prayers in birthdays, marriages, festivals and other functions. When young child is weighed in birthday, raw <i>urd</i> is an important component of the material being offered against child weight. While fasting on

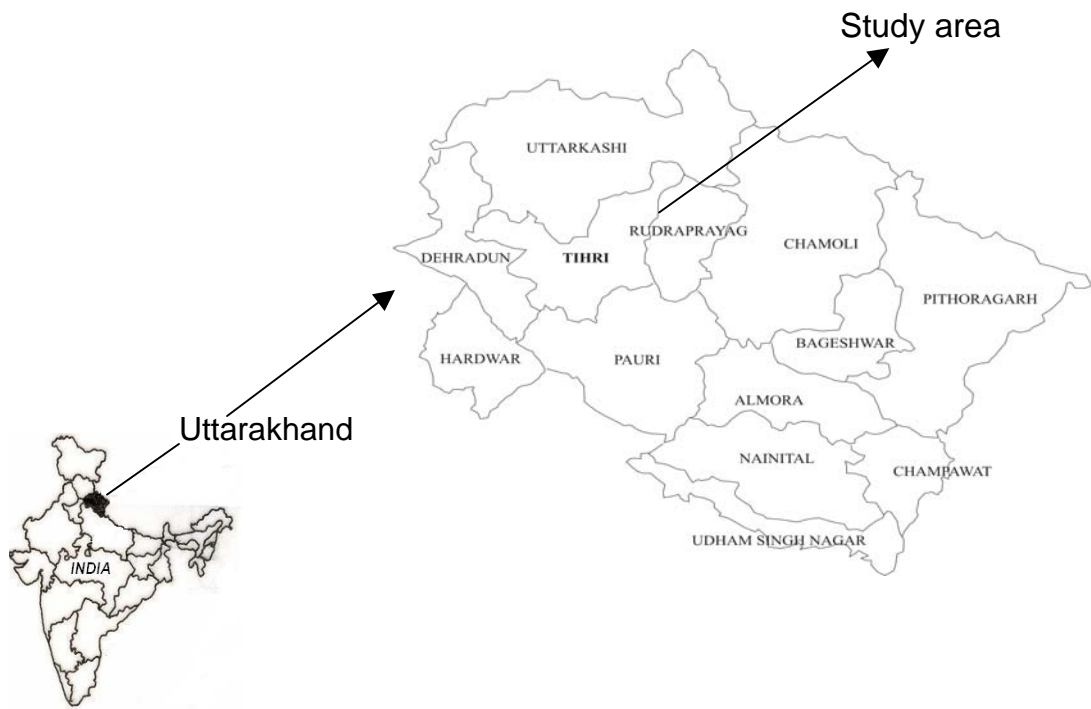
<p><i>Vigna angularis</i> (Willd.) Ohwi and Ohashi Adjuki bean Rains or nanni dhal 1000-2250masl</p>	<p>Primarily a rain fed crop but also cultivated on the bunds of irrigated land along with paddy. Monoculture is seldom practiced and generally cultivated in mixed form with other seasonal crops.</p>	<p>Saturday, <i>khichdi</i> is prepared which is a mixture of black gram and rice. When mixed with water, grain powder has a sticky property and forms hard covering when dry and thus was used to re-fix fractured bone by local medical practitioners earlier. Grain powder was also mixed with a locally available lime and other coloring and housing material as an adhesive in the past. The famous clock tower and floor of Royal court in Tehri are made of urd powder. After thrashing husk is given to cattle.</p>
<p><i>Glycine max</i> (L.) Merrill Black Soyabean Kalabhatt 1000-1600masl</p>	<p>Sown in late June and harvested in November. It is generally mixed crop. At some places it is also cultivated on the bunds of paddy field.</p>	<p>Young and succulent pods are eaten raw. Grains are consumed as dhal and used to prepare <i>paranthe</i> and <i>pakodi</i> in the same way as <i>urd</i>. The seed coat left after <i>pakodi</i> preparation is given to cattle. Boiled seeds are prescribed in jaundice. After thrashing, the plant husk is given to cattle.</p>
<p><i>Macrotyloma</i> <i>uniflorum</i> (Lam.) Verdc. Horsegram Gehet 600-2000masl</p>	<p>Both mixed and mono cropped in rainfed agriculture. Undergoes germination very easily under less availability of soil moisture. Grains are prone to insect attack when stored.</p>	<p>Consumption as dhal is very rare. Generally processed into <i>Bhatwani</i> a preparation from partially grinded grains and served with cooked rice. In winters roasted seeds are eaten to maintain body heat. Grains in the form of cattle feed is given to cattle which increases milk production. Mature plant after grain thrashing is considered as a nutritious fodder. Seed paste is applied on skin to cure skin infection.</p> <p>A delicious hill pulse. Grains are consumed as dhal or processed into "<i>fana</i>" a local preparation from overnight water soaked grains. Boiled grains are processed into stuffed <i>paranthe</i>. Generally consumed in winters as it provides heat and maintains body temperature. It provides high</p>

<p><i>Vigna unguiculata</i> (L.) Walpers Cow pea Sonta 500-1750masl</p>	<p>A rainfed, rainy season crop, mixed cropped with other associated seasonal crops. Monoculture is very rare.</p>	<p>calories and energy to people engage in physical work. In traditional therapeutic system dhal soup is consumed to dissolve kidney stone. Its potential can be assessed by the fact that in the past <i>Gehet</i> was boiled and its water was poured into huge stones with force to break them.</p> <p>Grains are consumed as dhal, or processed into stuffed <i>paranthe</i> and <i>pakodi</i> like <i>urd</i>. Boiled dhal without salt is used to treat chicken pox (<i>Dadra</i>).</p>
<p><i>Cajanus cajan</i> (L.) Huth Pigeon pea Tor 500-1650 masl</p>	<p>Both mixed and mono cropped in rainfed agriculture. In mixed cropping it is an important component as its strong stem provides support to other associated climbers. Due to good market demand, high yielding attributes and importance in ceremonies it is mono cropped to a large extent. The crop possesses good resistance against weather uncertainty and thrives well under drought as well as heavy rain conditions compared to other crops.</p>	<p>One of the most prolific cash crop. Its dhal is an important menu of marriages and other ceremonies. Also consumed in the form of <i>chainsa</i>, a preparation from partially grinded grains. After final harvesting the plant is given to cattle and the dried stem is used as fuel.</p>
<p><i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i> L. Rajma Chhemi 1500-2500masl</p>	<p>Essentially a crop of higher Himalayas where it is a prolific cash crop. Garhwal Himalaya particularly the Joshimath (Niti valley) and Harsil (Gangotri valley) regions are famous for its good quality and wide varieties of <i>P. vulgaris</i>. Generally mono cropped but mix cropping with potato and <i>Amaranthus</i> is also frequent. To provide support to the crop for</p>	<p>Very famous as dhal with in and outside the Himalayan region. Green pods are consumed as vegetable. Though it has medicinal uses in ayurveda but those are not known to villagers.</p>

	climbing, stem of Ringal (<i>Thamnocalamus</i>) is used at some places. The crop is prone to insect attack and ash spraying is locally practiced to protect crop.	
<i>Glycine max</i> (L.) Merrill White Soyabean Safed Bhatt 700-1700masl	An introduced cash crop and both mono and mixed cropped to a large extent owing to high market demand.	An important prolific cash crop. Either sold or exchanged with other food commodities. Consumed as dhal in combination with other pulses. Grain in the form of cattle feed is given to cattles.
<i>Pisum arvense</i> L. Wild pea Kong 2200-2642masl	A crop of higher altitudes, generally mixed cropped with cultivated pea. It is a wild relative of cultivated pea.	Grains are consumed as dhal.
<i>Pisum sativum</i> L. Cultivated pea Matar 500-2642masl	At low altitudes it is either confined to kitchen gardens or mixed cropped with wheat. At high altitudes it is mono cropped.	Green and succulent pods are either eaten raw or consumed as vegetable. Grains are consumed as dhal. It is an important cash crop of higher altitudes.
<i>Vicia faba</i> L. Broad bean <i>Shivchana</i> 500-1500masl	A rabi season vegetable pulse crop cultivated mainly in kitchen gardens as monocrop. Cultivation on the bunds of <i>Allium</i> field is also practiced at some places.	Young pods are processed into vegetable. Grains are consumed as dhal.
<i>Lens esculenta</i> Moench Lentil Masoor 500-1500masl	A rabi season crop, mixed cropped with wheat.	Grains are consumed as dhal.

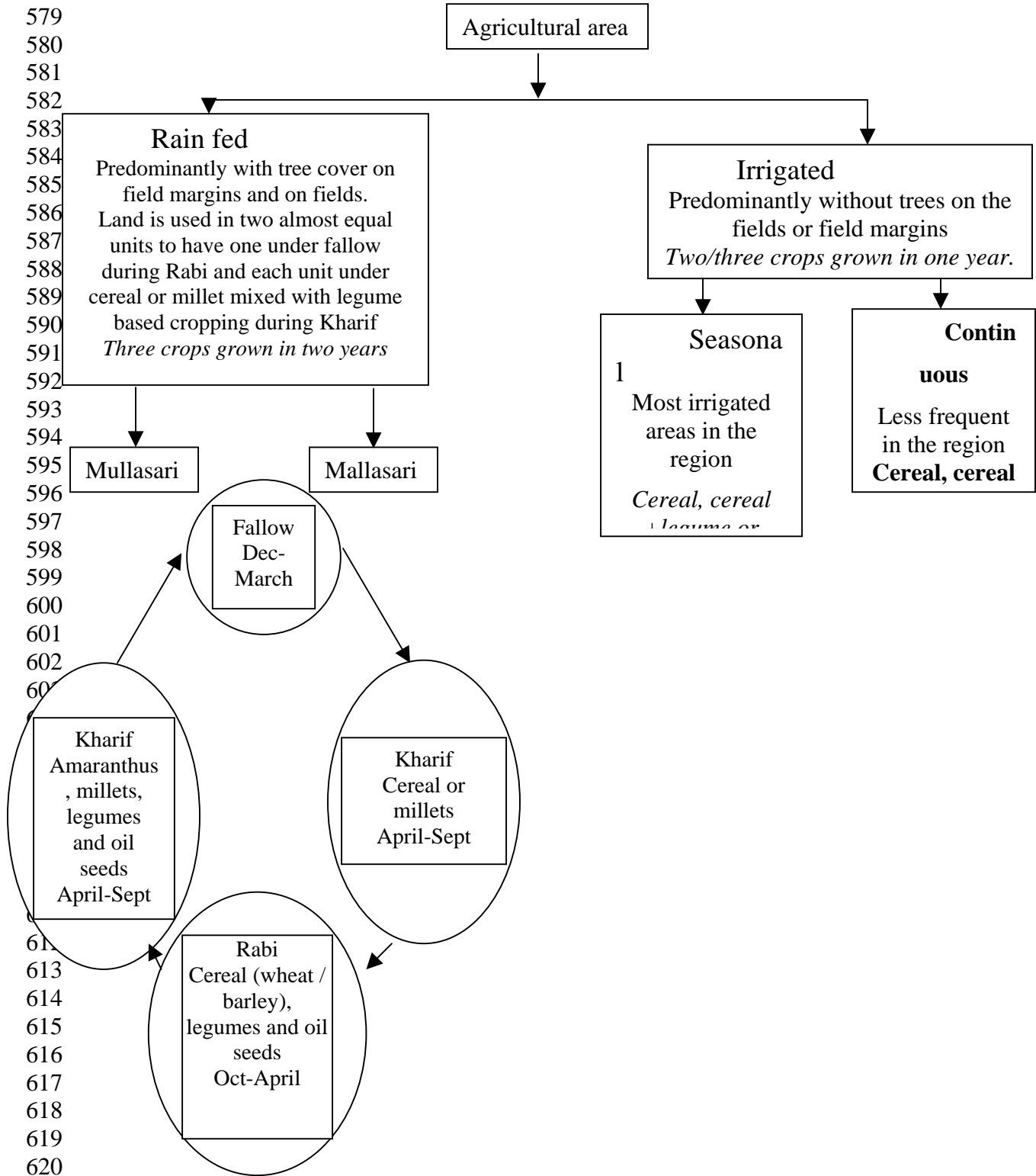
545

546



546
547
548
549
550
551
552
553
554
555
556
557
558
559
560
561
562
563
564
565
566
567
568
569
570
571
572
573
574
575
576
577
578

Figure 1: Outline map of The Central Himalayas and study area, India.



622 **Figure 2: Legume crop cultivation (cropping pattern, crop composition and crop**
623 **rotation) in the traditional Himalayan rainfed agro-ecosystem.**

624

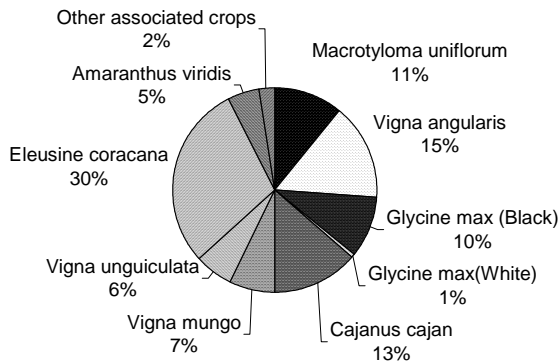


Fig 3a: Proportion of land under different crops in 1980

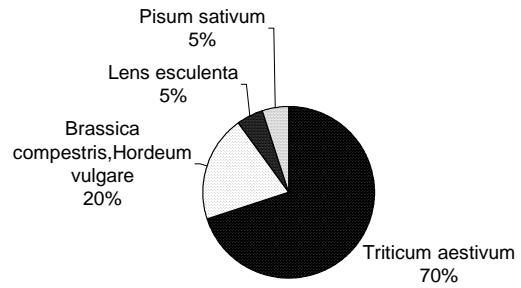


Fig 3c: Proportion of land under different crops in 1980

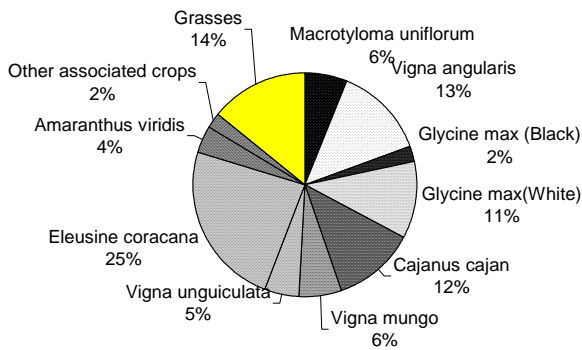


Fig 3b: Proportion of land under different crops in 2005

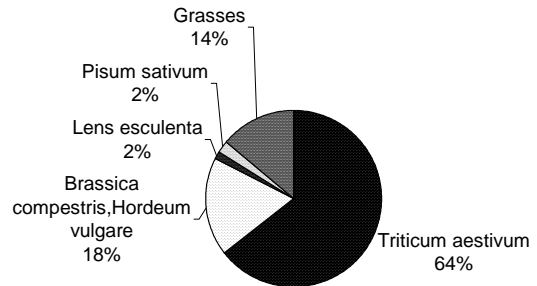


Fig 3d: Proportion of land under different crops in 2005

625

626

627

Figure 3a, 3b, 3c, 3d: Proportion of land under different crops (legumes and

628

associated non-legumes) at two points of time (1980 and 2005) during Kharif and

629

Rabi seasons in traditional agro-ecosystems of the Central Himalaya.

630

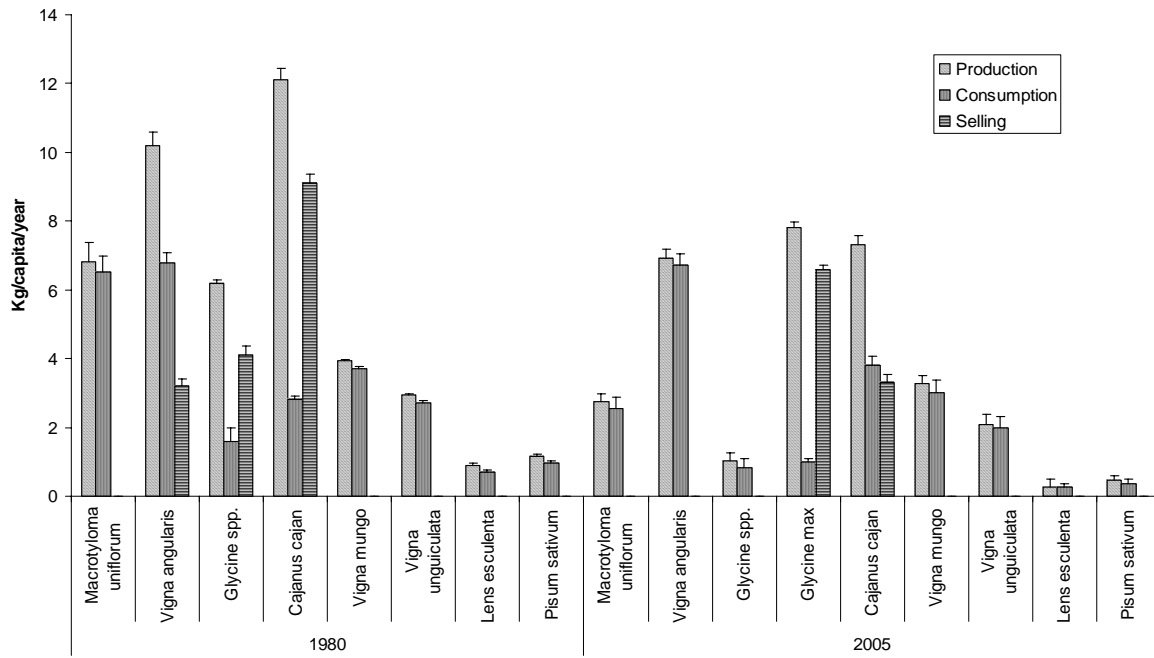
631

632

633

634

635



637

638 **Figure 4: Production, consumption and marketing (Kg/capita/year) of selected**
 639 **traditional legume crops at two points of time (1980 and 2005) in the studied villages**
 640 **of Central Himalaya**

641

642

643

644

645