REVIEW ON THE POSITIVE INFLUENCE OF INTERCROPPING SYSTEMS FOR ORGANIC VEGETABLE GROWING

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Abstract

Intercropping is considered to be a fundamental tool for ensuring agricultural sustainability and productivity, a matter of major importance in the specific context of the last decades and, mainly, the last two years.

Within European agriculture, conventional advantages of intercropping system following laborious experiments were disregarded by farmers because of the justified goal of maximizig profits using affordable pesticides on the market. This determines farmers to focus on increasing the size of their farms, replacing manual labor with a mechanized one, resulting a technological specialization of a few crops at the expense of biodiversity.

However, nowadays, following the Covid-19 pandemic and the entire chain of effects it generated, agriculture was directly affected due to the limitation of worldwide transport amplitude and the scarcity of products and raw materials that arose, the price for some of them becoming trully prohibitive (to be seen the case of chemical fertilizers at the end of year 2021).

The present paper aims to highligh some paramount matters of using intercropping systems in vegetable crop practice, regarding the perspective of soil, environment, ecosystem biodiversity and economical sustainability.

Key words: intercropping, organic farming, environmental sustainability, GHG emissions, cover crops.

INTRODUCTION

Probably never before in the history of mankind emerged the need of revolutionizing the way we practice agriculture, adopting a new perspective in contrast with the conventional one, which is based on an impressive number of inputs, intensely promoted after the Second World War, alongside the far advertised "Green Revolution". Nowadays, on the background of increasing climate changes, it becomes imperative to find solutions to minimize the impact that agriculture has on the environment. One cannot argue about sustainability in the true sense of the word from an environmental point of view if we refer strictly to the management of intensive farming systems because the enhancement of agriculture has, among other things, several unfavorable effects, such as: soil erosion, decreased biodiversity, nutrient loss and reduced soil fertility (Islam et al., 2016, cited by Diacono et al., 2021).

Therefore, the environmental challenges attributed to agriculture are primarily related to the reduction of soil, water and air quality, which are often resulting from the application of inappropriate nutrient management strategies. Farmers are typically using intensive chemicalization practices to maintain soil productivity, alongside management, which reduces organic soil matter (SOM) and at the same time increases erosion, acidification and salinisation (Dumanski et al., 1986, cited by Chapagain and Riseman, 2014).

Organic agriculture becomes more relevant than ever, the example in this respect being the policies adopted at the European Community level, which aims that 25% of all agricultural operations should respect the rigors of this type of agriculture by 2030.

One of the main aspects that ensures the sustainability of organic farming is related to the judicious use of land. If we refer strictly to plant production, this goal is mainly achieved by adopting intercropping systems. According to Vandermeer (1989), they involve "the cultivation of two or more plant species in a way that enables them interact agronomically". Intercropping is considered to be a fundamental means of ensuring agricultural sustainability

and productivity (Brooker et al., 2015). Regarding organic vegetable production, Shanmugam et al., (2021) shows that intercropping systems can improve both yield and the efficiency of the nitrogen use by mixing complementary species in terms of resource use. Overall, the benefits identified from intercropping two or more plant species higher productivity include and high profitability per unit area (Yildirim and Guvence, 2005), improved soil fertility by nitrogen fixing (Hauggaard-Nielsen et al., 2001, 2009), increased resource efficiency (Knudsen et al., 2004), limited damage caused by disease and pest attack (Banik et al., 2006; Sekamatte et al., 2003), improved fodder quality (Bingol et al., 2007; Ross et al., 2004), as well as improving the carbon and nitrogen dynamics (Oelbermann and Echarte, 2011; Dver et al., 2012).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Data source and selection criteria

Data have been collected from an impressive number of scientific studies, mostly up-to-date, especially from the last 15 years. However, given the importance of the topic and the relevance of the studies conducted by the promoters of this vegetable growing system in the second half of the last century, some of the results of their research were briefly presented.

The main advantages of adopting the intercropping system for vegetable growing have been identified, classified and rated.

The database from Google Academic, ScienceDirect, Springer.com has been reviewed using keywords such as "intercropping", "organic farming", "environmental and soil sustainability".

A number of 397 scientific papers were identified that we considered to be paramount and, consequently, were analyzed.

The studies selected for this synthesis met the following criteria: 1. many of them are relatively recent and, as such, the conclusions drawn may be immediately applicable; 2. they present in detail the advantages of using the intercropping system in organic farming; 3. the results drawn from researches are relevant or based on a sufficient number of scientific papers.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Intercropping implies the cultivation of two or more species simultaneously, on the same area of land, during a growing season (Ofori and Stern, 1987) and is considered to be an important strategy in the development of sustainable production systems, especially those aimed at limiting the use of raw materials of an external nature (Adesogan et al., 2002).

Embracing these organic farming practices increases the diversity and complexity of the agro-ecosystem, providing it long-term sustainability (Montemurro et al., 2018; Altieri and Koohafkan, 2013).

The use of agri-environmental practices also enhances the ability (sometimes called adaptive capacity) of a system to take over any disturbances without qualitatively altering the fundamental interactions that characterize it, and this ability can be defined as system resilience (Kaye and Quemada, 2017).

The role of intercropping on the rational use of land

Schröder and Köpke (2012) reiterated the positive value of the nitrogen land use rate in the case of intercropping broad bean and oilseeds (eg saffron and mustard) regardless of the type of soil they were grown in.

Intercropping barley and pea highlighted a number of real benefits, including higher land productivity (12-32% higher compared to the variant where barley was cultivated as a monoculture), an increased quality of biomass (high content of nitrogen and protein), a significant accumulation of carbon and nitrogen in the biomass of the soil surface, as well as a higher net exchange of CO2 and a gross rate of photosynthesis within ecosystem. However, the significance of using the intercropping system has varied greatly depending on the growing conditions and the proportion of species that have been used (Hauggaard-Nielsen et al., 2009; Jensen, 1996; Lauk and Lauk, 2008).

The agronomic parameters used to compare the yields of intercropping and monocropping systems are the land equivalent ratio (LER) (Mead & Willey, 1980) and the relative value total (RVT) (De Wit and van den Bergh, 1965; Schultz et al., 1982).

The land equivalent ratio represents the proportion of land needed to produce a certain amount of yield in the monoculture system as opposed to the intercropping system.

Overall, studies on the use of intercropping provide a conclusive reason to investigate the association between brassicas - pulses, given their potential to use less land in order to supply the same productive yield as monocultures (Shanmugam et al., 2021).

Relating intercropping with greenhouse gases (GHG)

In recent studies, both energy and carbon footprint analyzes have been used to determine crop production efficiency (Pratibha et al., 2015; Ozalp et al., 2018) and the sustainability of different soil fertilizer regimes (Pergola et al., 2018; Guardia et al., 2019).

Assessment of the carbon footprint is an important feature in rating the impact of a production system on global warming / climate change (Wiedmann and Minx, 2007). The higher the yield of crops, the lower the carbon footprint per kilogram (Pishgar-Komleh et al., 2017).

Worldwide, previous studies have demonstrated the impact of vegetable cultivation on global warming due to high emissions caused by energy consumption, agricultural works, use of fertilizers or irrigation (Torrellas et al., 2012; Khoshnevisan et al., 2014; Plawecki et al., 2014; Bartzas et al., 2015; Clavreul et al., 2017; Ntinas et al., 2017; Zarei et al., 2019).

The main greenhouse gases resulting from mismanagement of agricultural practices are carbon dioxide, methane and nitrogen oxide (IPCC, 2007).

The resulting carbon footprint of producing 1 kilogram of vegetables in the intercropping system is about one-fifth compared with monoculture, which highlights the importance of intercropping in terms of GHG mitigation and, consequently, environmental impact.

De Jesus Pereira et al. (2020) showed that greenhouse gas emissions were higher in the case of monoculture vegetable systems (25,273 kg CO_2 eq/ha), compared to the ones where intercropping has been chosen (16,368 kg CO_2 eq/ha).

In terms of soil carbon stock, the intercropping system emitted less CO_2 into the atmosphere

(690 kg CO2 eq/ha) compared to the monocropping system (1,380 kg CO₂ eq/ha) over a twenty-year period, due to the fact that the area used in the case of the intercropping was smaller.

Several studies (Chirinda et al., 2010; Hwang et al., 2017) have shown that when nitrogen availability was increased, more N2O was produced by nitrification and denitrification processes due to the proliferation of However, a number microorganisms. of researchers have reported that the use of agroecological crops can reduce N2O emissions compared to systems without cover crops by increasing the consumption of nitrogen of the so called "catch crop", especially if non-pulses crops are used (Muhammad et al., 2019).

Effects of using the intercropping system in relieving salinization phenomena and nitrate accumulations of soil levels

Some previous studies have found that the stress caused by increased salinity could be alleviated by intercropping cash crops with some plant species capable of removing this excess (Aksoy et al., 2003).

Turfgrass represents a category of plant species with a higher tolerance to salinity because they had to adapt and survive into soils with a high degree of salinity during their phylogenetic development or to be irrigated with recycled / sewage water with a high salt content (Huang et al., 2014). Consequently, most turfgrass species are an excellent companion for the main horticultural crops, in order to alleviate the stress caused by the high salinity of the soils.

Turfgrasses constitutes the category of soilcovering plants, having a fibrous root system which are being distributed in the upper layer of soil, in the first 10 cm (Lyons et al., 2011). In contrast, most vegetables belong to the category of plants with a pivoting root system, with an overwhelming proportion of roots in the lower layer of the soil, up to a depth of 80 cm (Thorup-Kristensen and van den Boogaard, 1998; Vansteenkiste and et al., 2014).

Intercropping different species of turfgrasses with high-value vegetable crops is mainly based on the assumption that shallow rooting of turfgrass species does not lead to competition for nutrients *per se* but, on the contrary, could absorb salt ions that have accumulated on the soil surface and eliminate their negative effects into the vegetable production system (Hu et. al., 2020).

The degree of salinity tolerance and also salt absorption may vary depending on the species and varieties of turfgrass (Chavarria et al., 2019; Soliman et al., 2018; Uddin et al., 2012). Some Bermuda grass varieties (Cvnodon spp.) have been shown to be tolerant to a degree of salinity between 50-200 mM NaCl, without adversely affecting plant growth (Hu et al., 2012). Dong et al. (2019) showed that some species of turfgrass could excel in accumulating a higher amount of salt ions and heavy metals. Xia et al. (2019) highlighted the beneficial effect of intercropping with alfalfa (Medicago sativa) in inhibiting soil alkalization and salinization and improving its quality. Simpson et al. (2018) found that the association with purslane (Portulaca oleracea) could alleviate the salinity stress and could increase the productive yield and quality of watermelon fruits (Cucumis melo). Kilic et al. (2008) outlined a decrease in soil salt level and the elimination of the stress caused by it in an orchard where an intercropping system with purslane (Portulaca oleracea) was chosen.

About 80% of the amount of nitrates to which humans are exposed comes from vegetables (Rathod et al., 2016). Nitrates themselves are relatively harmless, but they have the ability to be reduced quite easily to nitrites, which can then be converted to nitrosamines, considered to have carcinogenic potential (Lundberg et al., 2008).

Therefore, the amount of nitrites and nitrates in vegetable products should be minimized in order to ensure a qualitatively safe vegetable production (Kalaycioglu and Erim, 2019). Nitrates can be absorbed directly by the roots of plants and can be transported to other organs through the nitrogen nutrition phenomenon (Wang et al., 2018). In plants, nitrates can be reduced to nitrites and further to ammonia by nitrogen reductase that occurs in plastids. Ammonia can be further assimilated in order to form amino acids through the synthesis of glutamine and glutamate (Coskun et al., 2017). Nitrate accumulation in vegetables is mainly correlated with nitrate soil level (Marousek et al., 2017).

It has been found that the use of green manure in intercropping systems reduces the risk of nitrate leaching both in the conventional system (Manevski et al., 2015; Mariotti et al., 2015) and also in the organic growing of cereals and vegetables (Whitmore and Schröder, 2007). Thorup-Kristensen et al., 2012).

Regarding the nitrate content, Hu et al. (2020) have shown that intercropping cauliflower with different species of turfgrass had a significant impact on it, both in the soil and in the rhizosphere area of cauliflower, compared to the control variant, as follows: 73.3% and 60.1% in the case of *Paspalum vaginatum*. 68.9% 52.7%. at Eremochloa and ophiuroidesde, succeeded by Festuca arundinacea (67.4% and 49%) and Cvnodon dactylon (65% and 44%). The lowest impact was recorded in the cauliflower - Kentucky bluegrass (Poa pratensis) association, both in the rhizosphere and in soil, with 30.7% and, respectively, 35.7%. Intercropping cauliflower with Paspalum vaginatum and Eremochloa ophiuroides also significantly reduced the nitrate content of young cauliflower shoots by 46.4% and 29%, compared to the control variant.

Hu et al. (2020) presents the current methods of mitigating the problems related to soil salinization and nitrate accumulation of the vegetable growing systems: i) use of water (from rainfall or irrigation) to remove salts accumulated in the soil surface layer (Du et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020); (ii) rational fertilization management programs to reduce the accumulation of soil salts (Machado and Serralheiro, 2017); (iii) applying amendments in order to absorb soil salts and reduce stress on vegetable crops (Fan et al., 2016).

The influence of intercropping on crop yields

In organic vegetable growing, adopting the intercropping system can improve both the yield and the efficiency of nitrogen use, by associating complementary species regarding the use of resources (Shanmugam et al., 2021). When two vegetable species are intercropped, the dominant ones can increase both their productive yield and nutrient uptake (Zhang & Li, 2003), while the production of the other

crop is reduced due to interspecific competition for nutrients.

The beneficial effect on the yield in the case of the intercropping system is shown in Table 1.

Intercropped species	The type of beneficial effect on yield	Author
Faba bean (<i>Vicia faba</i> L.) – White mustard	- Higher yields for the Brassicaceae	(Schröder & Köpke, 2012;
(Sinapis alba) and cabbage (Brassica oleracea	crops	Lepse et al., 2017;
L. var. <i>capitata</i>)		Shanmugam et al., 2021)
Faba bean (<i>Vicia faba</i> L.) – Garlic (<i>Allium</i>	- Nitrogen transfer to the cash crop	(Tang et al., 2018;
sativum L.)	Wildgen transfer to the cash crop	Thilakarathna et al., 2016)
Pea (Pisum sativum L.) – Wheat (Triticum	- Higher yields;	(Hauggaard-Nielsen et al.,
aestivum) / Barley (Hordeum vulgare)	- Improvement of grain and fodder	2009; Carr et al., 2004;
	quality	Lauk and Lauk, 2008)
Cucumbers (Cucumis sativus L.) – Lettuce	- Higher yields	(Rezende et al., 2010)
(Lactuca sativa L.)	8)	()
Tomatoes (Solanum lycopersicum L.) – Lettuce	- Higher yields	(Cecílio Filho et al., 2011)
(Lactuca sativa L.)		
Cauliflower (Brassica oleracea var. Botrytis) -	- Higher yields	(Hu et al., 2020)
Paspalum vaginatum/Festuca arundinacea		
Leek (Allium porum L.) – White clover	 Higher yields when clover was 	(Kolota and Adamczewski-
(Trifolium repens)	sowed after leek planting	Sowinska, 2004; den
		Hollander et al., 2007)
Leek (Allium porum L.) – Ryegrass (Lolium	 Higher yields when ryegrass was 	(Müller-Schärer, 1996)
spp.)	sowed six weeks after leek planting	
Maze (Zea mays L.) – Green manures spp.	- Increase of the dry matter content	(Uchino et al., 2009)
Tomates (Solanum lycopersicum L.) – Italian	in corn grains - Higher yields for the cash crop	(Diacono et al., 2021)
clover (<i>Trifolium incarnatum</i>)	- Higher yields for the cash crop	(Diacono et al., 2021)
Cabbage (Brassica oleracea L. var. capitata) –	- Higher yields	(Leong and Zaharah, 1991)
Chilli peppers (<i>Capsicum annuum</i> L.)	inghet yrends	(Loong and Lanaran, 1991)
Pulses – Grains	- Higher yields for cereals when	(Bedoussac and Justies,
	legumes are used as green manures	2010; Bedoussac et al.,
	0	2015)
Broccoli (Brassica oleracea var. italica) -	- Higher yields	(Santos et al., 2002)
Beans (Phaseolus vulgaris L.) / Potatoes		
(Solanum tuberosum L.)		
Cabbage (Brassica oleracea L. var. capitata) -	 Optimizes both yield and 	(Guvenc and Yildirim,
Romaine type lettuce (Lactuca sativa L. var.	profitability	2006)
longifoila), / Leaf lettuce (L. sativa L. var.		
<i>crispa</i>) / Onion (<i>Allium cepa</i> L.) / dwarf bean		
(Phaseolus vulgaris L. var. nanus)		
Faba bean (Vicia faba L.) - Wheat (Triticum	- The growth and yield of cereal crop	(Xiao et al., 2018).
aestivum L.)	increased by 19% -28% and,	
	respectively, 20% - 28%	

Table 1. List of some intercropping types and their benefits on vegetable and non vegetable crop yields

The impact of intercropping system on diseases and pests control

Over the past decades, studying the intercropping system effects on diseases and pests has favored the accumulation of a considerable number of bibliographic data. The general effects of using intercropping system in

vegetable production are linked to the suppression of most pest and disease populations (Theunissen, 1994b).

Some of the intercropping scheme on which research has been conducted in terms of diseases and pests control are presented in Tables 2 and 3.

Table 2. List of some intercropping types and their benefits on vegetable pest control

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Intercropped species	Insect population assessment	Author
Bean (Phaseolus vulgaris L.) - winter wheat	- Empoasca fabae, Lygus lineolaris,	(Tingey and Lamont, 1988)
(Triticum aestivum L.)	Aphis fabae, Systena frontalis	
Brussels sprouts (Brassica oleracea var. gemmifera) – Spergula arvensis	- Mamestra brassicae, Evergestis forficalis, Brevicoryne brassicae	(Theunissen and Den Ouden, 1980)
Brussels sprouts (<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. gemmifera) – Tomatoes (Solanum lycopersicum L.)	- Phylotreta cruciferae, Plutella xylostella, Aleyrodes brassicae	(Tahvanainen and Root, 1972) Philips, 1977)
Cabbage (Brassica oleracea L. var. capitata) – Tomatoes (Solanum lycopersicum L.)	- Plutella xylostella	(Burandy and Raros,1975)
Beans (<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i> L.) – Grass weeds (<i>Eleusine</i> and / <i>Leptochloa</i>)	- Empoasca kraemeri	(Altieri et al.,1977)
Cabbage (Brassica oleracea L. var. capitata) – Living mulches (Agrostis stolonifera, Festuca rubra, Poa pratensis, Trifolium repens)	- Phylotreta cruciferae Brevicoryne brassicae	(Andow et al., 1986)
Cabbage (Brassica oleracea L. var. capitata) – Beans (Phaseolus vulgaris L.)	- Delia radicum, Delia floralis	(Hofsvang, 1991)
Cabbage (Brassica oleracea L. var. capitata) – Trifolium spp. (T. repens, T. subterraneum)	- Mamestra brassicae, Brevicoryne brassicae Delia brassicae	(Theunissen et al., 1995)
Carrot (<i>Daucus carota</i>) – Onion (Allium cepa L.)	- Psila rosae (carrot), Thrips tabaci (Onion), Cavariella aegopodii	(Uvah and Coaker, 1984)
Leek (Allium porum L.) – Trifolium subterraneum	- Thrips tabaci	(Theunissen and Schelling, 1993)

Table 3. List of some intercropping types and their benefits on vegetable disease control

Intercropped species	Disease assessment	Author
Leek (Allium porum L.) – Trifolium subterraneum	- Puccinia allii	(Theunissen et al., 1996)
Barley (Hordeum vulgare) – Pea (Pisum sativum),	 Pyrenophora teres, Puccinia 	(Hauggaard-Nielsen et al.,
Lupin (Lupinus L.), Faba bean (Vicia faba)	hordei	2008)
Wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) - Faba bean (Vicia faba)	 Wheat powderly mildeaw 	(Chen et al., 2007)
Barley (Hordeum vulgare) – Wheat (Triticum aestivum L.)	 Seed head disease 	(Naudin et al., 2009)
Barley (Hordeum vulgare) – Lupin (Lupinus L.)	- Pleiochaeta setosa	(Hauggaard-Nielsen et al., 2008)
Tomatoes (Solanum lycopersicum L.) – Kale (Brassica	- Tomato spotted wilt virus (TSWV)	(Ramkat et al., 2008)
oleracea L. var. acephala), Onion (Allium cepa L.)	^	
Potato (Solanum tuberosum L.) - Grass-Clover	- Phytophtora infestans	(Bouws and Finckh,
		2008)
Potato (Solanum tuberosum L.) - Faba bean (Vicia faba)	- Phytophtora infestans	(Garrett et al., 2001)
Cabbage (Brassica oleracea L. var. capitata) – Garlic (Allium	- Sclerotium cepivorum	(Zewde et al., 2007)
sativum L.)		
Tomatoes (Solanum lycopersicum L.) - Cucumbers (Cucumis	- Yellow leaf curl	(Al-Musa, 1982)
sativus L.)		
Tomatoes (Solanum lycopersicum L.) - Cowpea (Vigna	- Pseudomonas solana-	(Michel et al., 1997)
unguiculata L.)	cearum	
Chilli peppers (Capsicum annuum) – Maize (Zea mays L.)	- Phytophtora capsici	(Sun et al., 2006; Zu et
		al., 2008)
Watermelon (Citrullus lanatus) - Rice (Oryza sativa)	- Fusarium oxysporum	(Su et al., 2008)

Some effects of the intercropping system on weed management

The intercropping system can represent a technological link in weed suppression, although the results obtained so far are variable (Vandermeer, 1989, Stefan et al., 2021). The positive effects on weed suppression have been shown in a wide range of crops, including maize, rye, soybeans, zucchini, summer cabbage, dwarf beans and tomatoes (Ilnicky &

Enache, 1992). Furthermore, some clover species such as *Trifolium repens, T. pratense, T. fragiferum* and *T. dubium* turned out to be suitable for use in combination with a main crop / cash crop for the same purpose. If the crops are set up on rows, mowing the secondary associated crop can represent a suitable way to prevent tall weeds from flowering and seeding.

When the role of intercropping is to suppress weeds, its effects are expressed according to the savings made in terms of control measures. Stefan et al., (2021) show that even if intercropping does not necessarily reduce biomass or weed diversity, using cereals in association can play a pivotal role in reducing the pressure the weeds exert on cash crops. Therefore, it is preferable for intercropping systems to include cereals if weed control is one of the objectives.

CONCLUSIONS

The results obtained so far suggest that the intercropping systems could represent an approach of interest in all types of agriculture, but that it could be ideal for organic farming practice.

Embracing the intercropping system is more expensive, requires a high level of managerial skills, but, more importantly, a different philosophy on the part of the farmer, focusing on an ecosystem-oriented agriculture.

As long as cheap pesticides will not constitute a limiting factor for conventional farmers, by adopting a sets of environmental laws, they will be advantaged from production costs point of view.

There is an inverse relationship between the carbon footprint and crop yields.

Growing vegetables in an intercropping system increases productivity, maximizes the use of environmental resources and optimizes the use of inputs, balancing the system from an ecological point of view.

The restrictions on the use of pesticides and certain fertilizers that characterize organic farming make it suitable for enacting the intercropping system, as it corresponds exactly to its philosophy, patterns and methods. The small scale, as well as the biological and ecological diversity of farms in the unconventional growing systems makes them liable for intercropping as it does not require a completely different crop management.

Root system interactions can play an important role regarding the relationships between crops within intercropping (beneficial or competing) and nutrients. Thus, the complementary use of resources under the intercropping system improves the nitrogen content.

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