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Carbon Sequestration Services of Fruit Trees in Institutional Landscapes: Implications for Urban Greening and Sustainable Home Garden Management

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ABSTRACT

This research was conducted to assess the carbon sequestration services of fruit trees within the Rivers State University campus, as a guide for institutional landscaping and home garden management. The random sampling technique was used to collect data on tree height and DBH using D-tape and clinometer. The allometric method was used to calculate the carbon sequestered from the above and below ground biomass estimated from tree height and DBH. *Terminalia catappa*, and *Persea gratissima* had the highest mean height of 35.14m, and 31.60m respectively, while *Cocos nucifera* and *Citrus sinensis* had the least height of 25.40m and 11.70m respectively. *Terminalia catappa*, *Persea gratissima*, and *Mangifera indica* had the highest mean diameters of 124.38cm, 106.26cm, and 106.42cm, respectively, while *Cocos nucifera* and *Citrus sinensis* recorded DBH of 63.44cm and 33.46cm. *Terminalia catappa*, *Persea gratissima* and *Mangifera indica* recorded below ground biomass of 16304.37 tons, 10801.56 tons and 10517.47 tons respectively. The above ground biomass was highest for *Terminalia catappa* (81521.87 tons), *Persea gratissima* (54007.79 tons) and *Mangifera indica* (52587.33 tons), while *Cocos nucifera* and *Citrus sinensis* recorded the lowest of 15740.22 tons and 2158.01 tons respectively. *Terminalia catappa*, *Persea gratissima*, and *Mangifera indica* sequestered the highest carbon (108454.65 tons, 71850.61 tons, and 69960.87 tons), respectively. This research has provided information on the mean height and diameter at breast height of fruit trees, and evidence of the fruit tree with the highest carbon sequestration potential on the Rivers State University Campus. Hence, it is recommended that *Terminalia catappa*, *Persea gratissima* and *Mangifera indica* be incorporated into campus home gardens to sustain the livelihood of residents as well as provide climate mitigation and beautification services.

INTRODUCTION

Increasing carbon emissions is of major global concern, as addressed in the Kyoto protocol (Chavan & Rasal 2010). Atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) has affected the global climate and has stirred the interest of researchers to carbon capture and sequestration technology (Anwar *et al.*, 2018). One of the best carbon capture systems exist in the forests as forests sequester or store carbon mainly in trees and soil. Forests capture and store different amounts of carbon at different speeds depending on several factors including age of trees. Young trees growing rapidly can sequester carbon quickly. Trees are regarded as one of the best carbon capture technologies available as during the process of photosynthesis, trees absorb carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and converts it to sugar necessary for wood growth and other physiological functions. About 50% of the wood in trees are composed of carbon and are locked up in the standing tree for several years (Stephenson, 2014). Annual rates of carbon sequestration largely depend on the tree size at maturity, life span and their growth rates (Nowak & Crane, 2002).

Carbon sequestration in terrestrial ecosystem is referred to as the absorption of CO₂ from the atmosphere by photosynthesis. Carbon sequestration is a mechanism for the removal of carbon from the atmosphere and storing in the biosphere (Chavan & Rasal, 2012). Carbon

sequestration in growing forests is known to be a cost-effective option for the mitigation of global warming and global climatic change (Green & Aklilu., 2016). Terrestrial vegetation and soil represent important sources and sinks of atmospheric carbon (Watson *et al.*, 2000).

Rising urbanization trends combined with the continuous increase in population have put pressure on cities, resulting in a continuous deterioration of air quality through the release of excessive greenhouse gas of which carbon dioxide is more predominant and is the primary cause of global temperature rise (WHO, 2019; Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005).

The environmental benefits of trees in campus ecosystems are numerous and well acknowledged in forestry benefit account (Nowak *et al.*, 2014; Nowak *et al.*, 2008; McPherson *et al.*, 2003). Campus trees improve air quality, cool local air temperatures, filter and retain storm water, functions as phytoremediation agent, sequester carbon, and provide food, fruit, vegetables, medicine for the inhabitants, improves social, cultural, and physical health as well as enhance mental health (Nowak *et al.*, 2008). According to Berto, (2005) exposure to nature and restorative environments increases sustained attentive capacity for learners. Easy access to green outdoor environments from workplaces has been found to significantly reduce work stress (Lottrup *et al.*, 2013).

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More importantly, academic institutions and hospitals have noted that nature and trees result in quantifiably positive impacts on students' and patients' well-being (Alvarsson *et al.*, 2014).

The term urban forest and urban green space includes trees in gardens, parks, and along the streets, roads, canal, etc., which contribute to verdancy in the city (Ugle, *et al.*, 2010). These spaces provide a variety of ecosystem services such as improving air quality (Singh, *et al.*, 2017), buffering of noise pollution, biodiversity conservation, mitigating urban heat island effect, micro-climate regulation, stabilization of soil, ground water recharge, prevention of soil erosion, and carbon sequestration (Sharma, 2020). Studies conducted by several scientists have claimed that urban green spaces can play a very important role in limiting the city's carbon footprint (Strohbach, 2012). Such areas also provide an array of cultural services, including spiritual and religious, recreational, ecotourism, and aesthetic (Chang *et al.*, 2017). The maximum benefit of these spaces largely depends on judicious selection of an appropriate and diverse mix of tree species and their proper management in the urban areas (Bala, *et al.*, 2015, Singh, *et al.*, 2017). According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (2006), the major five carbon pools of a terrestrial ecosystem involving biomass are above-ground biomass, below-ground biomass, dead wood, litter, and soil organic matter (IPCC, 2006).

University campuses provide extensive spaces for urban trees, offering significant potential for mitigating climate change impacts. Understanding the carbon sequestration capacity of urban tree species is essential for institutions and organizations to make informed decisions regarding climate mitigation and sustainable land-use planning. This study therefore aims to quantify the biomass and carbon sequestered by selected home-garden fruit trees on the Rivers State University campus, with the objective of generating evidence that can be integrated into campus planning, landscape beautification, urban greening strategies, and sustainable home management practices.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study was conducted in the Rivers State University Campus, Rivers State University is in Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, Port Harcourt, the capital city of Rivers State and a major oil-producing hub in the Niger Delta. It is situated in a highly urbanized and industrial environment with latitude 4.51°N and longitude 7.01°E at an altitude of 223 above sea level (Uko & Tamunobereton-Ari, 1991). The average rainfall of the area ranges between 200mm and 2600mm per annum. The area is marked with two distinct seasons: the wet and dry seasons. The wet season begins in March and ends in November while the dry season begins in December and ends in February. Five fruit tree species (*Persea gratissima*, *Mangifera indica*, *cocus nucifera*, *citrus sinensis* and *Psidium guajava*) were selected for the study using simple random sampling technique, data were collected in five replicates. Tree

diameter at breast height (1.3m above ground level) were taken in centimetres using 800-647-5368 diameter/Linear tape by Forestry Suppliers Inc. On trees with buttress, bulge, canker or branch whorl, diameter measurements were taken above the deformity where it occurs at 1.3m above ground level. Tree terminal height measurements were taken in meters using digital clinometer by Haglof Sweden. The GPS coordinates of each tree location was taken using the GPS test App.

A non-destructive approach using the allometric equation by Brown (1997) was used for above-ground biomass (AGB) and below-ground biomass (BGB) estimation. BGB was estimated from AGB as developed by Ponce-Hernandez *et al.* (2004) for non-destructive below-ground biomass value of vegetation as 20% of the AGB. Biomass data was used to quantify carbon stock which was used to estimate the amount of carbon sequestered with field measurements of height and diameter at breast height. The algorithm functions of Clark *et al.* (1986) was used to determine the above-ground green weight of the trees expressed as:

$AGW = 0.25D^2H$: For trees with $D \leq 28\text{cm}$

$AGW = 0.15 D^2H$: For trees with $D \geq 28\text{cm}$

Where AGW =Above-ground green weight(ton)

D =Stem diameter(cm), H =Total height of tree (m)

The root system weight was estimated at 20% of the above-ground weight. Therefore, the total green weight of the tree was determined by multiplying the above ground weight by 1.2

The above-ground biomass of each standing tree was determined using the functions of Chavan and Rasal (2010) which states that the average tree is 72.5% dry matter and 27.5% moisture. The function therefore was expressed as:

$DW = AGW \times 0.725 = 0.25D^2H \times 0.725$ for trees with $D \leq 28\text{cm}$

$DW = AGW \times 0.15D^2H = 0.15 D^2H \times 0.725$ for trees with $D \geq 28\text{cm}$

Where DW =Above ground dry weight(ton), D =Stem diameter(cm), H =Total height of tree (m)

The content of carbon in woody biomass is generally 50% of the dry weight (Paladinic, *et al.*, 2009; Afzal and Akhtar, 2013; Eneji, *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, the weight of carbon in sampled trees was determined by multiplying the dry weights by the factor of 0.5.

The atomic weight of carbon is 12, the atomic weight of oxygen is 16. The weight of carbon dioxide in a tree is determined by the ratio of CO_2 to C ($44/12 = 3.67$). The weight of carbon dioxide in the sampled trees was therefore, determined by multiplying the weight of carbon in the trees by 3.67.

Data collected were subjected to descriptive statistical analysis. The one-way analysis of variance was used to test the significant differences of carbon sequestered by different tree species using IBM SPSS statistics 27. Means were separated using the Turkey B at a probability of 0.05%.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results on tree height and diameter at breast height of fruit trees within the Rivers State University Campus are presented in Table 1. The result showed that *Terminalia catappa* had the highest mean height (35.14m) followed by *Persea gratissima* (31.60m), while *Cocos nucifera* and *Citrus sinensis* recorded the least mean heights of 25.40m and 11.70.49m respectively at $P \leq 0.05$ using Turkey B. Significant differences in mean DBH sizes were observed as *Terminalia catappa* recorded the highest mean DBH (124.38cm) followed by *Persea gratissima* and *Mangifera indica* (106.26cm and 106.42cm) respectively. The least

DBH was observed in *Cocos nucifera* and *Citrus sinensis* (63.44cm and 33.46cm) respectively.

Results on Table 2 shows *Terminalia catappa* had the highest mean above ground biomass (81521.87 tons) followed by *Persea gratissima* and *Mangifera indica* (54007.79 ton and 52587.33 tons) respectively, while *Cocos nucifera* and *Citrus sinensis* recorded the least AGB (15740.22 tons and 2158.01 tons) respectively. *Terminalia catappa* also recorded the highest mean BGB (16304.37 tons) while *Cocos nucifera* and *Citrus sinensis* recorded the least (3148.04 tons and 431.60 tons) respectively at $P \leq 0.05$ using Turkey B.

Table 1: Mean Height and Diameter at Breast Height

Species	Mean Height (m) $\pm$ SD	Mean DBH (cm) $\pm$ SD
<i>Citrus sinensis</i>	11.70d $\pm$ 1.22	33.46 d $\pm$ 5.36
<i>Cocos nucifera</i>	25.40 c $\pm$ 2.31	63.44 c $\pm$ 7.83
<i>Mangifera indica</i>	30.58 b $\pm$ 2.59	106.42 b $\pm$ 7.82
<i>Persea gratissima</i>	31.60 ab $\pm$ 3.17	106.26 b $\pm$ 7.19
<i>Terminalia catappa</i>	35.14 a $\pm$ 1.76	124.38 a $\pm$ 8.21

Within columns means with different superscript are significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$ using Turkey B

Table 2: Mean Above and Below Ground Biomass

Species	Mean AGB (tons) $\pm$ SD	Mean BGB (tons) $\pm$ SD
<i>Citrus sinensis</i>	2158.01 c $\pm$ 461.16	431.60 c $\pm$ 92.23
<i>Cocos nucifera</i>	15740.22 c $\pm$ 5147.13	3148.04 c $\pm$ 1029.42
<i>Mangifera indica</i>	52587.33 b $\pm$ 11917.10	10517.47 b $\pm$ 2383.60
<i>Persea gratissima</i>	54007.79 b $\pm$ 11081.49	10801.56 b $\pm$ 2216.29
<i>Terminalia catappa</i>	81521.87 a $\pm$ 8414.69	16304.37 a $\pm$ 1682.94

Within columns means with different superscript are significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$ using Turkey B

Terminalia catappa had the highest carbon stock (29551.68 ton) and sequestered the highest CO₂ (108454.65 tons), followed by *Persea gratissima* and *Mangifera indica* having carbon stock of (19577.82 tons and 19062.91 tons) respectively and sequestered CO₂ (71850.61 ton and 69960.87 tons) respectively. *Cocos nucifera* and *Citrus sinensis* ((5705.83 tons and 782.28 tons) recorded the least carbon stock and least CO₂ sequestered (20940.39 tons and 2870.95 tons) respectively at $P \leq 0.05$ using Turkey B (Fig 1 and 2).

Terminalia catappa recorded the highest mean height among the species studied. This agrees with documented botanical descriptions that identify *T. catappa* as a fast-growing deciduous or semi-evergreen tree commonly attaining about 15 m in height, with some individuals reaching up to 40 m (Useful Tropical Plants, 2024). *Persea*

gratissima and *Mangifera indica* also exhibited relatively high mean heights in the study area. The growth pattern of *P. gratissima* is consistent with reports describing the species as characterised by rapid vertical and canopy expansion (Elena *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, *M. indica* is widely recognised as a large and fast-growing tropical tree capable of attaining heights of approximately 30 m ($\approx$ 100 ft) under favourable conditions (Mango Tree Information, 2013).

The estimation of above-ground biomass (AGB), below-ground biomass (BGB), carbon stock and carbon dioxide sequestration revealed substantial variation among the tree species sampled. The observed differences were primarily influenced by stem diameter (DBH) and tree height, which are recognised as the most reliable predictors of tree biomass in tropical ecosystems (Brown, 1997; Chave

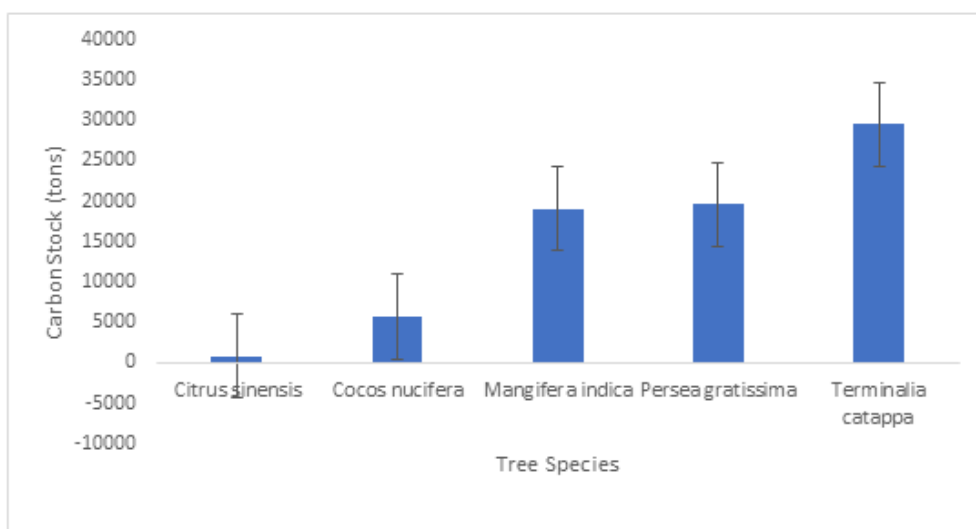


Figure 1: Mean carbon Stock

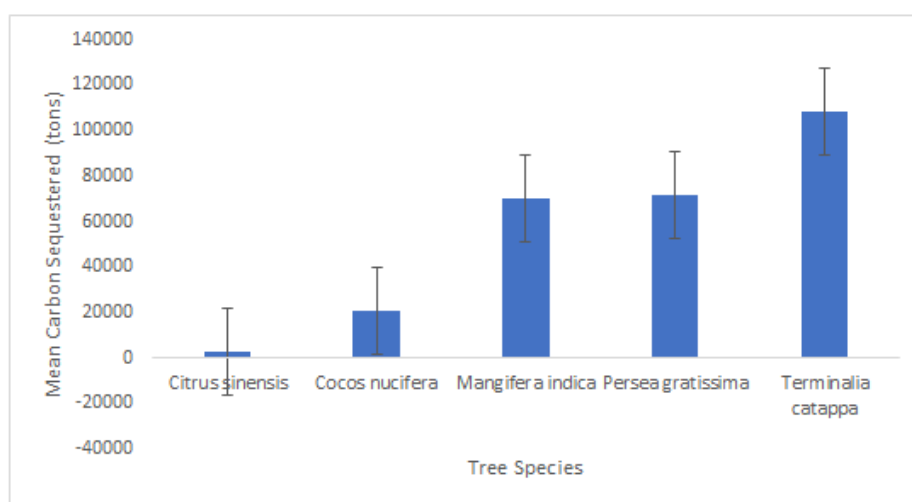


Figure 2: Mean carbon Sequestered

et al., 2005). Because biomass is proportional to the diameter squared multiplied by height (D^2H), trees with larger diameters contributed disproportionately greater biomass and carbon storage than smaller individuals (IPCC, 2006). This supports the principle that biomass accumulation determines carbon sequestration potential (Simbi-Wellington, *et al.*, 2025); Aladesanmi & Jonathan, (2020).

The very high above-ground green weight recorded in *Terminalia catappa* and *Mangifera indica* indicates that large canopy perennial tree species function as dominant carbon pools within urban vegetation. Mature hardwood trees accumulate biomass rapidly due to extensive secondary woody growth and larger stem volume (Brown, 1997; Chave *et al.*, 2014). This observation agrees with Eneji *et al.* (2014), who reported that trees with dense foliage, broad crowns and clustered leaves generally possess higher carbon sequestration capacity. Similarly, *Terminalia catappa* has been identified as one of the tree species with high biomass and carbon content. Ramanan, (2024) indicated that *terminalia catappa* is a large tropical

tree species with significant biomass and ecosystem function potential, commonly included in assessments of carbon sequestration and urban forestry planning due to its size and growth characteristics.

In contrast, *Cocos nucifera* showed comparatively lower biomass values. This agrees with findings that palms typically possess lower wood density and smaller bole volume than hardwood shade trees (Hairiah *et al.*, 2011). Palms store less biomass because they lack true secondary thickening and therefore accumulate less structural carbon compared to dicotyledonous woody species (Tomlinson, 2006).

Terminalia catappa recorded the highest carbon sequestration value, followed by *Persea gratissima* and *Mangifera indica*. This agrees with Eneji *et al.* (2014), who reported that *Persea gratissima* exhibited the highest CO₂ sequestration potential (125,916.7 kg) among selected urban trees in Benue State, Nigeria. The higher sequestration capacity may be attributed to the plant morphology, particularly dense foliage and wide canopy structure which enhance photosynthetic carbon fixation.

Furthermore, *Mangifera indica* has been recognised as an effective carbon-sequestering species in urban environments (Jasmin & Brundage, 2011). Similarly, Ishaq *et al.* (2014) reported that species such as *Azadirachta indica*, *Elaeis guineensis* and *Mangifera indica* accumulated substantial carbon stocks within township areas, with *Mangifera indica* recording the highest carbon storage along Gboko Road, Benue State.

CONCLUSION

Overall, the findings confirm that tree size, species morphology and wood structure strongly influence biomass accumulation and carbon sequestration potential. Large-diameter hardwood trees contribute more significantly to atmospheric carbon removal than smaller or monocotyledonous species, highlighting the importance of conserving mature trees in urban climate-mitigation strategies.

The CO₂ sequestration values obtained demonstrate that urban and peri-urban trees act as significant climate regulation agents. The study demonstrates that tree diameter and species type significantly influence biomass accumulation and carbon sequestration capacity. Large, mature hardwood species serve as major carbon reservoirs and should be prioritized in environmental management and urban planning programs aimed at climate change mitigation.

Large trees such as *Terminalia catappa* contributed the highest CO₂ removal capacity, highlighting their significance in climate change mitigation strategies. Smaller species like *Citrus sinensis* contributed less carbon per individual but may provide meaningful cumulative sequestration when planted in large numbers (Nowak & Crane, 2002).

The study confirms that tree diameter and species composition significantly influence biomass accumulation and carbon sequestration capacity. Mature hardwood species act as major carbon reservoirs and should be prioritised in environmental management strategies aimed at mitigating climate change.

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