

International Journal of Environment and Climate Change

Volume 14, Issue 11, Page 1-13, 2024; Article no.IJECC.124969 ISSN: 2581-8627 (Past name: British Journal of Environment & Climate Change, Past ISSN: 2231–4784)

Green Solutions: The Impact of Agroforestry on Climate Change Resilience- A Review

Rajkumar Prajapati ^{a++}, Sahadeva Singh ^{b#}, Anjali Anand ^{c†}, Yalal Mallesh ^{d‡} and Shani Gulaiya ^{b^*}

^a ICAR -Central Agroforestry Research Institute (CAFRI), JHANSI (U.P), India.
^b SOAG, Galgotias University, Greater Noida (U.P.), India.
^c Department of Forestry, JNKVV, Jabalpur (M.P), India.
^d Rani Lakshmi Bai Central Agricultural University, Jhansi, India.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: https://doi.org/10.9734/ijecc/2024/v14i114522

Open Peer Review History:

This journal follows the Advanced Open Peer Review policy. Identity of the Reviewers, Editor(s) and additional Reviewers, peer review comments, different versions of the manuscript, comments of the editors, etc are available here: https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/124969

Review Article

Received: 13/08/2024 Accepted: 15/10/2024 Published: 18/10/2024

ABSTRACT

The effect of agroforestry systems on resilience to climate change, highlighting their function in improving biodiversity and reducing environmental degradation. Agroforestry offers creative ways to enhance soil health, trap carbon, and boost agricultural output while benefiting communities socioeconomically by incorporating trees into agricultural settings. Stakeholders may improve food security, rebuild ecosystems, and support the livelihoods of marginalized communities by

Cite as: Prajapati, Rajkumar, Sahadeva Singh, Anjali Anand, Yalal Mallesh, and Shani Gulaiya. 2024. "Green Solutions: The Impact of Agroforestry on Climate Change Resilience- A Review". International Journal of Environment and Climate Change 14 (11):1-13. https://doi.org/10.9734/ijecc/2024/v14i114522.

⁺⁺ Young Professional;

[#] Dean & Professor;

[†] Research Scholar (Silviculture and Agroforestry);

[‡] Ph.D Forestry (Silviculture and Agroforestry);

[^] Assistant Professor

^{*}Corresponding author: E-mail: shanigulaiya16@gmail.com;

supporting agroforestry techniques. This assessment promotes greater funding for agroforestry implementation and research, which may encourage international cooperation. Adopting ecofriendly solutions, such as agroforestry, will be essential to accomplishing sustainable development objectives and building a resilient future for the world community as climate threats worsen. Additionally, by maximising the use of natural resources, agroforestry practices lessen the burden on forests and aid in the restoration of damaged regions. Climate change poses tremendous difficulties to global agriculture, affecting livelihoods, food security, and ecosystem stability. Agroforestry practices to lessen the effects of climate change. This summary provides an overview of the vital roles that agroforestry plays in mitigating and adapting to climate change. In order to adapt to climate change, agroforestry offers several benefits, including increased agricultural productivity, improved soil fertility, and improved water retention

Keywords: Carbon sinks; Agro-forestry; climate resilience; climate change; biodiversity.

1. INTRODUCTION

It was first time defined by Bene et al. (1977) agroforestry is a sustainable method of land management that combines forestry and agriculture on the same plot of land. Agroforestry is a system that mixes agricultural crops, tree crops, and forest plants and/or animals either simultaneously or sequentially. This method tries to improve overall land production while harmonising with the customs of the local community. A revised definition was proposed by King and Chandler (1978), who emphasised sustainable land management as combining forest flora and/or animals with crop production, including tree crops, on the same land unit. Nair (1983) expanded on the idea, characterising agroforestry as the integration of trees, crops, and animals in farming systems that is supported by science, desirable from an ecological standpoint, practically achievable, and acceptable in society. Systems of agroforestry are important for capturing carbon. By effectively removing carbon dioxide from the atmosphere, trees lower the quantities of greenhouse gases. Agroforestry increases soil carbon storage through the addition of leaf litter and root

systems, which increase soil organic matter. Additionally, less reliance on chemical pesticides and fertilizers can result from varied cropping systems, which will lessen overall emissions from agricultural activities (Jose, 2009). Agroforestry increases soil quality, increases water retention, and decreases erosion to improve resistance to climate unpredictability. Trees may produce microclimates, buffer harsh temperatures, and give livestock and crops shade. Increased ecological stability brought about by diverse plantings makes agricultural systems more resilient to pests and diseases. An increased frequency of extreme weather events and rising global temperatures necessitate the use of adaptable agriculture practices. Reports from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) show that there are growing threats to food security, especially in weaker areas. Agroforestry presents a viable approach that is in line with international initiatives to cut carbon emissions and prepare for the effects of climate change. The necessity of sustainable land-use techniques is being acknowledged by nations across the globe, and agroforestry is becoming more popular as one of these tactics.



Fig. 1. Agroforestry significance in combating climate change

Agro-forestry: By offering several benefits to the environment, society, and economy, it makes a substantial contribution to the fight against climate change. Research studies and expert perspectives emphasise its significance in climate change adaptation and mitigation methods.

Carbon Sequestration: Carbon sequestration (CS) is the process of taking carbon dioxide out of the atmosphere and storing it (Lal, 2004). The objective is to stabilize carbon in both its dissolved and solid forms so as to stop it from warming the climate. To delay or halt the growth in the concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, long-term carbon storage (CS) is by the earth's biosphere, provided the subsurface, or the oceans (Lal, 1995). It lowers the quantity of carbon dioxide released into the atmosphere from various sources, including burning fossil fuels, deforestation, and forest fires. Another name for this procedure is carbon capture. The process of removing CO2 from sources of emission and storing it in the ocean, on land (in soils, plants). This process can be either natural or intentional. Carbon dioxide levels in the atmosphere have significantly increased as a result of human activity, particularly the combustion of fossil fuels like coal, oil, and gas (Jenkinson and Rayners, 1977). Global warming is being observed as a result of the rise in atmospheric CO₂ during the past 250 years, from around 280 to more than 400 parts per million (ppm). Potential negative impacts include an increase in sea level, a rise in the frequency and intensity of wildfires, floods, droughts, and tropical storms, changes in the quantity, timing, and distribution of rain, snow, and runoff, and the disruption of coastal marine and other ecosystems. A more acidic ocean could have negative impacts on marine plankton and coral reefs due to rising oceanic CO₂ levels and increased CO₂ absorption by seawater. To lessen the effects of rising atmospheric CO₂, technically sound and economically viable measures are required. In order to minimize human caused CO₂ emissions and remove CO₂ from the atmosphere (Wilson et al., 2009). By absorbing CO_2 from the atmosphere, agroforestry systems act as carbon sinks. Trees and other vegetation store carbon, lowering greenhouse gas emissions (Nair, 2018). This process lowers atmospheric carbon levels, which aids in the mitigation of climate change.

Biodiversity: By establishing a variety of ecosystems, agroforestry promotes biodiversity.

According to Montagnini (2007), biodiverse systems are resistant to climate change, maintaining genetic diversity and the stability of ecosystems. The preservation of biodiversity makes ecosystems more resilient and adaptable to shifting environmental circumstances. Improved soil fertility and structure are the results of agroforestry practices. Healthy soils absorb carbon and withstand harsh weather conditions better (Jose, 2009). Improved soil health guarantees long-term agricultural productivity even in the face of climate-related problems.

Water Management: Agroforestry helps to preserve available water supplies. In order to maintain a steady supply of water during dry spells, trees and other vegetation control water flow, reduce erosion, and enhance water infiltration (Nair, 2018). The agricultural sector depends on effective water management in light of shifting precipitation patterns.

Economic Resilience: Water resources are preserved by agroforestry. In order to maintain a steady supply of water during dry spells, trees and other vegetation control water flow, reduce erosion, and enhance water infiltration (Nair, 2018). Agriculture needs to effectively manage its water resources in light of shifting precipitation patterns.

Erosion Control: The use of agroforestry systems aids in preventing soil erosion. According to Montagnini (2007), the root systems of trees and shrubs stabilise the soil, halting erosion and the loss of valuable topsoil. It's vital to control erosion, particularly in places where landslides and soil erosion are common.

Climate Modification: Agroforestry provides natural defences against climate-related calamities. Shade trees lessen heat stress on plants and animals during heat waves, and windbreaks and shelterbelts protect crops and cattle from strong winds and storms (Jose, 2009). The resilience of agriculture to climate extremes is enhanced by these adaptive traits.

Social Involvement: Agroforestry promotes information exchange and community involvement. Indigenous and traditional knowledge of agroforestry techniques is crucial for adjusting to the climate in the area (Garrity et al., 2010). Participation in the community increases resilience and adaptive capacity locally.

Agriculture and Global Climate Change: Global climate change refers to significant and lasting changes in the Earth's climate, primarily driven by human activities, such as burning fossil fuels, deforestation, and industrial processes. changes impact weather patterns, These ecosystems, and sea levels, posing threats to both the environment and human societies. Climate change has major effects on agriculture, including crop yields, water availability, soil health, and the incidence of pests and diseases (IPCC, 2022). The complex interactions between agriculture and climate change present serious obstacles to livelihoods, food security, and international economies. Here are some significant facets of the connection between agriculture and climate change:

2. MAJOR CAUSES

Greenhouse Gas Emissions:

Carbon Dioxide (CO2): Major emissions come from fossil fuel combustion (electricity generation, transportation) and deforestation.

Methane (CH4): Emitted from agriculture (especially livestock), landfills, and natural gas production.

Nitrous Oxide (N2O): Released from agricultural practices and industrial activities.

Fluorinated Gases: Synthetic gases used in various industrial applications, known for their high global warming potential.

Deforestation and Land Use Changes: Clearing forests for agriculture or urban development reduces the number of trees that can absorb CO2, contributing to higher atmospheric concentrations. Key Impacts:

Temperature Rise: Global average temperatures have increased, leading to more frequent and severe heatwaves.

Extreme Weather Events: Increased intensity and frequency of storms, floods, droughts, and wildfires affect communities and ecosystems.

Melting Ice Caps and Glaciers: Polar ice sheets and glaciers are shrinking, contributing to rising sea levels and threatening coastal regions.

Sea Level Rise: Rising sea levels due to melting ice and thermal expansion threaten coastal cities and ecosystems.

Ocean Acidification: Increased CO2 absorption by oceans leads to acidification, impacting marine life, especially coral reefs.

Biodiversity Loss: Changing climates threaten habitats and species, leading to increased extinction risks and reduced biodiversity.

Water shortage: In many places, the lack of water is made worse by altered rainfall patterns and greater evaporation as temperatures rise. Lack of water has an impact on livestock, irrigation, and overall agricultural productivity. Adapting water availability requires the use of effective water management techniques.

Agriculture Production: Crop yields may be positively or negatively impacted by climate change. Certain crops may benefit from increased temperatures and carbon dioxide levels, but others may suffer from heat stress and shifting insect dynamics. Overall, especially in sensitive areas, negative effects on agricultural productivity are anticipated to outweigh positive ones.

Soil Quality: Temperature and moisture variations brought about by climate change have an impact on soil health. Variations in soil moisture content can affect soil structure and nutrient availability. Severe weather conditions worsen soil erosion and deterioration, which further reduces agricultural output.

Dynamics of Pests and Diseases: The distribution and prevalence of pests and diseases are impacted by climate change. Crops, livestock, and aquaculture are all at risk from pests and illnesses that proliferate due to warmer temperatures and changing precipitation patterns.

Resilience Approaches: In order to adapt to shifting weather patterns, farmers and agricultural systems must alter. Crop types that are robust to climate change are planted; effective water management strategies are put into place; sustainable soil conservation methods are encouraged; and agroforestry and diversified cropping systems are combined. Climate-smart agricultural practises are designed to minimise environmental impact and increase resilience. World Food Security: The ability of agriculture to supply the world's growing food needs is threatened by climate change. Vulnerable populations, especially those in developing nations, are more likely to experience food insecurity as a result of climate-related disruptions to agricultural productivity and food supply systems.

Effects of Agroforestry on climate change: Agroforestry, the practice of integrating trees into agricultural landscapes, offers numerous environmental, social, and economic benefits that directly address the challenges posed by climate change. As global temperatures rise and weather patterns become increasingly erratic, agroforestry systems demonstrate resilience and sustainability, making them an essential component of climate change mitigation and adaptation strategies.

Shifting planting periods: The growing season is shifting as a result of changing precipitation patterns and rising temperatures. Crop life cycles can be upset by warmer winters and earlier springs, which lower yields and quality.

Water Shortage and Deserts: As droughts become more regular and severe, many places are experiencing a shortage of water. A scarcity of irrigation water hinders crop development and yield.

Flooding and Waterlogged: Variations in precipitation patterns can result in flooding and heavy precipitation. Overabundance of water can result in waterlogging in fields, which can harm or destroy crops by depriving plant roots of oxygen.

Thermal Stress: Variations in precipitation patterns can lead to flooding and a lot of rain. Overabundance of water can lead to waterlogging in fields, which damages or destroys crops by depriving plant roots of oxygen.

Outbreaks of Disease and Pests: The spread of illnesses and pests is facilitated by changing weather patterns and rising temperatures. Pest infestations are a growing threat to agricultural crops and, if left unchecked, can cause substantial losses.

Soil Eroding: Severe weather conditions, such torrential downpours and thunderstorms, can

erode soil, causing rich topsoil to disappear. Both agricultural productivity and soil quality are negatively impacted by soil erosion.

Crop output declines are caused by a number of climate change-related variables, including heat stress, drought, and pest infestations. Soybeans, maize, wheat, and rice are some of the most susceptible crops.

Changes in Appropriate Agricultural Areas: Factors associated to climate change, such as heat stress, drought, and pest infestations, are the main causes of crop output losses. Soybeans, maize, wheat, and rice are some of the most susceptible crops.

Impact on cattle: Modifications in grazing patterns, water availability, and disease prevalence are some of the ways that climate change affects cattle. It has been demonstrated that heat stress lowers animal productivity, which has an impact on the production of dairy and meat.

Concerns about Food Security: The combination of these variables presents serious obstacles to global food security. Vulnerable groups, especially those in developing nations, are more likely to experience hunger and malnutrition as result agricultural а of disturbances brought on by climate change (FAO 2019).

Traditional farming systems are susceptible to a number of problems, most notably modernisation and climate change, despite the fact that they are frequently rich and diversified culturally. The following are some reasons that traditional farming systems are vulnerable:

Environmental Sensitivity: Climate change often has an impact on traditional farming methods. By changing temperature, precipitation patterns, and the frequency of extreme weather events, climate change has the potential to disrupt these long-standing customs and have an impact on animal production and agricultural yields.

Water Limited Supplies: Many traditional farming methods use rainfed agriculture. Water scarcity problems can arise from modifications in precipitation patterns that lead to droughts or lower the amount of water available for irrigation and crop production.

Diversity Changes: A large variety of unique, locally adapted animal breeds and crop kinds are routinely cultivated as part of traditional farming practices. Modern farming methods that reduce biodiversity and genetic resources include monoculture and the use of high-yielding varieties, which can lead to the extinction of native and traditional plant and animal species.

Soil Deterioration: Sustainable soil management practices are often included into traditional farming methods. On the other hand, deforestation, inappropriate land use, and agricultural intensification can result in soil deterioration, erosion, and loss of fertility, which lowers agricultural output.

Limited Access to Sources: In underdeveloped nations especially, traditional farmers may have restricted access to resources like irrigation systems, enhanced seeds, contemporary agricultural technologies, and financial support. This deficiency hinders their capacity to adjust to shifting environmental conditions.

Market Difficulties: It could be difficult for traditional farmers to get into markets and get reasonable pricing for their goods. Modern supply networks and globalisation have the potential to marginalise traditional farmers, making it harder for them to compete and make a living.

Cultural and Social Shifts: As a result of shifting social mores and financial strains, younger generations may decide to give up on traditional farming methods and relocate to urban areas. It's possible that this cultural change will cause important agricultural knowledge and skills to disappear.

Lack of Weather Resilience: It's possible that traditional farming methods lack the adaptability needed to cope with climate change. Although traditional wisdom holds significance, it might require reinforcement with contemporary climatesmart farming methods to enhance adaptability (IFAD 2022).

Agroforestry Systems Categorisation: Different agroforestry systems with varying structure, content, age, intensity, technology, and inputs have arisen in different places. These attributes allow for the grouping of related systems. Agroforestry systems are categorised to logically classify them based on the elements impacting their production, identify their management techniques, permit flexibility in information organisation, and be clearly comprehensible. It is difficult to create a single classification system that satisfies each of these requirements. Agroforestry systems can be divided into groups according to certain characteristics or roles in the agricultural system. Nair (1985) presented a classification scheme that took ecological status, socioeconomic considerations, structure, and function into account.

- Function Structure
- Physiognomy Features
- Environmental factors
- Aspects of society and economy

The benefits of agroforestry: Agroforestry systems have a number of benefits, including these. as follows:

3. EXTEND PRODUCTION

Given that trees are able to continuously capture solar radiation, the total productivity of forestry land use systems may be higher than that of agriculture. By recycling nutrients, halting soil erosion, and reducing nutrient loss through leaching and runoff, forestry systems are essential for preserving soil fertility. Studies show that soils impacted by trees yield more crops than normal soils (Chaturvedi, 1981; Sanghal, 1983; Verinumbe, 1987). Higher agricultural vields than in conventional fields have been observed using neem, prosopis, and eucalyptus. Leucaena leucocephala, Gliricidia sepium, and Cassia siamea intercropped as hedgerow, with prunings utilised as mulch and green manure, increased maize yields by 30-40% in semi-arid African locations (ICRAF, 1988). In comparison to conventional fields, Verinumbe (1987) showed higher dry matter yields in Sahel soils impacted by forests, particularly for maize and sorghum. In the second season, alley cropping produced maize yields of more than three to five tonnes per hectare (Anon., 1984). In comparison to pure agriculture, agroforestry sites in western Uttar Pradesh and Haryana have recorded yields of grain and wood that are around 20% greater (Dwivedi and Sharma, 1989). Research conducted at IGFRI, Jhansi, indicates that arowing fodder grasses alongside fodder trees has a higher overall fodder yield than cultivating only fodder grass (Deb Roy, 1990). The total output of foodgrain, fodder, and fuel is increased when Leucaena leucocephala is interplanted with agricultural crops and fodder grasses (Anon., 1984; Pathak, 1989).

4. SUPPLEMENT FOOD AND FODDER

A wide variety of trees, shrubs, herbs, and climbers are beneficial to rural communities, especially tribal tribes, as they greatly increase the production of food materials. 213 species of big and small trees, 17 palm species, 128 shrub species, 116 species of herbs, 4 fern species, and 15 species of fungi with edible qualities are all included in the extensive list. Mahua flowers are prized for their calming, restorative, and soothing qualities. Tribals and rural communities have long relied on these blossoms as a staple food because of their high sugar content and lack of toxicity. The flowers can be powdered and added to chapatis alone or combined with other ingredients, or they can be dried, cooked, and consumed. An individual mahua tree can produce between fifty and three hundred and twenty kilogrammes of dried mahua blooms (Anon., 1984). Based on a conservative estimate of 50 kg of mahua flower production per tree, the total production might reach around 50 million tonnes of mahua flowers annually with an area with about 100 trees per hectare (Dwivedi, 1986). might significantly and economically This increase the amount of food we produce. Making tree fodder could be a solution to the problem of fodder shortages during drought years. Green leaf fodder that is both palatable and nutritious can be produced by a number of tree species, including Acacia nilotica, Aegle marmelos, Ailanthus excelsa, Bauhinia variegata, Celtis australis, Dalbergia sissoo, Dendrocalamus strictus, Grewia optiva, Hardwickia binata, Leucaena leucocephala, Moringa oleifera, Morus alba, and Ziziphus spp.

Improve soil health: Agroforestry systems are essential for protecting soil from a range of harmful effects and providing sustainable land use techniques that enhance soil quality. Nair (1987) and Young (1989), have demonstrated the beneficial impacts of agroforestry on soil health. A notable nutrient loss has been linked to a few quickly spreading plants with brief rotation times, namely casuarina and eucalyptus. Certain species create severe fast-growing tree competition for moisture, which puts annual crops under stress, particularly in the competition (Dwivedi, 1986). Because of their zone shadowing effect, trees' effects on soil temperature and moisture can occasionally have a negative impact on agricultural crops' ability to develop. The beneficial effects of trees on soil are primarily attributed to their roots, crowns, litter fall, and nitrogen-fixing ability, with the magnitude of these effects depending on tree density. Tree crowns shield the soil from raindrop impact, creating a specific microclimate. The leaf litter from trees absorbs a substantial amount of water, reducing surface runoff, and vegetated experience watersheds less soil erosion compared to cultivated lands.

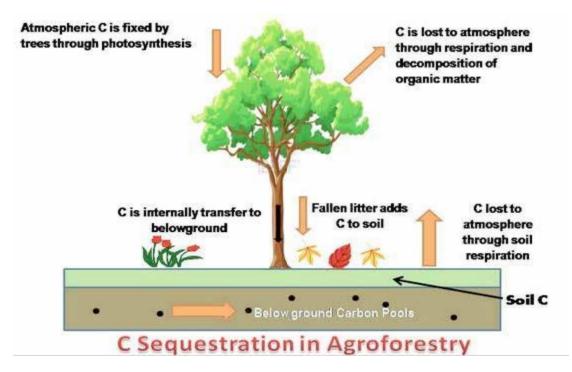


Fig. 2. Improvement of soil health through agroforestry

5. USE DEGRADED LANDS AND WASTELANDS

Examining different species and sources is crucial for particular circumstances. To improve cost-effectiveness, innovations in planting methods, soil working, and maintenance technologies are also required (NWDB, 1989). Reforesting wastelands and degraded areas necessitates the supply of comparatively more inputs. While community and government-owned lands need the right micro-level organisations for effective administration, privately owned areas are probably administered by individual owners. There are several examples showing that afforesting wastelands with appropriate tree species and grasses has improved soil conditions, generated significant financial returns, and boosted output and sustainability through tree-based land use systems.

6. PROVIDE OPPORTUNITIES FOR EMPLOYMENT

Agroforestry systems are essential for increasing employment prospects, especially for agricultural labourers who are underemployed and have the ability to move into forestry-related jobs. Because most forestry activities need a lot of labour, agroforestry projects provide a lot of jobs. Between 200 and 500 man-days are produced per hectare by plantations, including activities such as nursery operations (Pant, 1984; Dwivedi, 1986). Agroforestry creates roughly 10-20 times as many jobs at the secondary and tertiary levels as it does at the primary level. Work in woodbased industries such as sawmilling, furniture making, sports goods manufacturing, pulp and paper, plywood and panel products, match-splint manufacturing, bamboo and cane furniture making, agricultural implement manufacturing, doors and windows manufacturing, construction material manufacturing, photoframe manufacturing, handle manufacturing, packing case manufacturing, and musical instrument manufacturing are included in this. To further improve job opportunities, a variety of projects can be started, including the development and manufacture of forestry tools as well as the production of nursery stock. Instead than replacing agriculture entirely, the emphasis should be on using forestry practices to augment it, as this could have a negative effect on employment chances. For these initiatives, careful preparation is necessary to guarantee the creation of additional job possibilities.

7. IMPROVE FARM PROFITS

When it comes to farming per unit of land, agroforestry is more profitable than exclusive agriculture or forestry techniques. The idea that agroforestry increases farmer profitability is supported by a number of international research (Chaturvedi, 1981; Lahiri, 1983; Pillai, 1983). Tree cultivation has become a very successful and competitive land use in certain places due to the fifteen to twenty-fold increase in the market pricing of items like lumber, firewood, and charcoal (Dwivedi, 1986). Farmers have gained significant benefits from planting trees along farm bunds, canals, pathways, and around dwellings and wells over the past 15 years. Prime agricultural land has occasionally been diverted to tree cultivation. Under some conditions, silvipastural use-which involves growing trees like Prosopis, Albizia, Ziziphus, Acacia, etc.-can produce noticeably higher returns per unit of land than traditional agriculture. In Harvana. agroforestry using eucalyptus has proven to be more profitable than exclusive agriculture. Populus deltoides has been demonstrated to increase farm returns by 50% in terai regions of Uttar Pradesh (Chaturvedi, 1981). Reduce the adverse impact of climate-related factors Putting in place an agroforestry system helps increase the amount of trees in an area while supplying necessary commodities that are often found in forests, like firewood, lumber, and fodder. This strategy lessens the burden on natural forests. Many different types of pollution, including as air. water, and noise pollution, are prevalent in different places. Trees are essential for providing protection from a variety of contaminants, such as dust and particulate air pollutants. About 50 tonnes of dust and debris can be filtered by a single hectare of dense woodland. Furthermore, trees mitigate the harmful effects of certain chemical air pollutants on human health by absorbing them. Additionally, trees significantly reduce the amount of noise pollution. Trees and forests help to lower temperatures, raise humidity, and boost precipitation. The 10% increase in precipitation that results from reforestation also lowers the air temperature in forested areas. Research shows that there is a noticeable 3° to 8°C drop in temperature in treecovered additionally; afforestation reduces soil evaporation, which lowers the requirement for irrigation. Additionally, there is a 5-8% rise in humiditv in forested areas. and trees act as a shield against cyclones and high winds.

Complexity of Management: Agroforestry systems need to be carefully planned and maintained.

Learning and Education: In order to successfully implement and sustain agroforestry methods, farmers require both knowledge and training.

Industry Access to: Farmers may have difficulties in finding markets for their agroforestry products. Field Domain: According to Montagnini and Nair (2004), land tenure concerns may make it more difficult to construct long-term agroforestry systems.

Worldwide Importance of Aaroforestry: Agroforestry techniques are widespread worldwide, especially in developing nations where small-scale farmers depend on a variety of long-term systems to meet their demands for a living. Enhancing food security, protecting natural resources, and fostering rural development all depend on these systems. In conclusion, by fusing the advantages of agriculture and trees, agroforestry offers a comprehensive approach to land usage. It is a crucial approach for long-term development in many regions of the world due to its versatility in addressing a broad variety of environmental and socioeconomic problems. Benefits of agroforestry include soil health, carbon sequestration, and biodiversity conservation.

Practitioners of agroforestry deal with issues: socioeconomic Practitioners of agroforestry usually deal with limited resources, a lack of technical expertise, and market restraints. Securing land tenure, striking a balance between forestry and agricultural needs, and adjusting to shifting market demands are other socioeconomic issues. To solve these difficulties. capacity-building initiatives and supportive policies are needed.

Institutional and policy barriers: One of the and policy impediments institutional to agroforestry is the absence of cooperation amongst government entities and the unpredictability of land tenure regulations. Moreover, attempts to integrate agroforestry practices into conventional agricultural policies may be impeded by policymakers' ignorance of and lack of comprehension of the potential of agroforestry. Public awareness and policy reforms are necessary to address these issues.

Possibilities and Prospective Courses: Agroforestry offers various promising opportunities and future approaches in the fields of environmentally conscious agriculture and sustainable conservation. Among the key prospects are:

Climate-smart Agroforestry: By integrating climate-smart practices into agroforestry systems, long-term food supply may be ensured in the face of shifting environmental conditions and increased resilience to climate change.

Technological Integration: Planning and management of agroforestry can be optimised to yield higher output and efficiency by utilising cutting-edge technology like precision agriculture, GIS (Geographical Information Systems), and remote sensing.

Market diversification: By looking into specialised markets for agroforestry products such speciality timber, medicinal plants, and non-timber forest products, farmers can receive financial incentives that will promote the broad use of agroforestry techniques.

Policy Support: By looking into specialised markets for agroforestry products such speciality timber, medicinal plants, and non-timber forest products, farmers can get financial incentives that will promote the general adoption of agroforestry practices.

8. CONCLUSION

Finally, agroforestry is shown to be an essential green strategy for boosting climate change resilience. Incorporating trees into agricultural methods reduces greenhouse gas emissions and encourages carbon sequestration while also enhancing biodiversity and soil health. The agroforestry several advantages of are highlighted in this review, including higher productivity, better water management, and improved ecosystem services. Adopting agroforestry techniques can be extremely important for sustainable land management as climate difficulties increase. This will help communities adapt while also advancing global climate goals. In order to promote environmental sustainability and resilience in the face of continued climate change, a shift to such integrated systems is needed. In summary, agroforestry presents a comprehensive and sustainable strategy for agriculture that tackles issues related to food security, biodiversity preservation, adapting to climate change, and enhancing rural livelihoods. Agroforestry is the practice of incorporating trees into agricultural landscapes to improve resilience, provide ecosystem services, and maintain environmental sustainability. Governments, researchers. farmers, and communities must work closely together going forward. The full potential of agroforestry can be realised by embracing cutting-edge technologies, investing in research and developing supporting and teaching, policies. By working together, we can build an agricultural future that is more resilient and sustainable, protecting both people and the environment.

DISCLAIMER (ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE)

Author(s) hereby declare that NO generative Al technologies such as Large Language Models (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc) and text-to-image generators have been used during writing or editing of this manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

Albrecht, A., Kandji, S. T., & Mbow, C. (2006). Carbon sequestration in tropical agroforestry systems. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 114*(1), 265-274.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2005.11.003

- Anonymous, (1984). Report of the task force on greening India for livelihood security and sustainable development. Planning commission, GOI.
- Barik, T., Gulati, J. M. L., Garnayak, L. M., & Bastia, D. K. (2010). Production of vermicompost from agricultural wastes: A review. Agricultural Reviews, 31(3).
- Barrios, E., Gemmill-Herren, B., Bicksler, A., Siliprandi, E., Brathwaite, R., Moller, S., ... & Tittonell, P. (2020). The 10 elements of agroecology: Enabling transitions towards sustainable agriculture and food systems through visual narratives. *Ecosystems and People, 16*(1), 230-247.
- Bene, J. C., Bealt, H. W., & Cole, A. (1977). *Tree, food and people*. IDRC.
- Bhagat, R. M., Sharma, P. K., & Verma, T. S. (1994). Tillage and residue management effects on soil physical properties and rice yield in northwestern Himalayan soils. *Soil and Tillage Research, 29*(4), 323-334.

- Biswas, S., & Bhuyan, T. C. (1983). On the identity of some food plants of Garo Hills, Meghalaya. *Indian Journal of Forestry*, *6*(3), 208-213.
- Brandle, J. R., Hodges, L., & Zhou, X. H. (2004). Windbreaks in North American agricultural systems. In *New vistas in agroforestry: A compendium for 1st World Congress of Agroforestry, 2004* (pp. 65-78). Springer Netherlands.
- Budelman, A. (1988). The performance of the leaf mulches of *Leucaena leucocephala*, *Flemingia macrophylla*, and *Gliricidia sepium* in weed control. *Agroforestry Systems*, 6, 137-145.
- Chakravarti, A. K. (1970). Foodgrain sufficiency patterns in India. *Geographical Review*, 208-228.
- Chaturvedi, A.N. (1981). Poplar for planting. Uttar Pradesh Forest Department Bull. No. 50, Lucknow, 27 pp.
- Chaturvedi, O. P., & Jha, A. N. (1992). Studies on allelopathic potential of an important agroforestry species. *Forest Ecology and Management, 53*(1-4), 91-98.
- Del Moral, R., & Muller, C. H. (1970). The allelopathic effects of *Eucalyptus camaldulensis*. *American Midland Naturalist*, 254-282.
- Dhillon, G. P. S., Singh, A., Singh, P., & Sidhu, D. S. (2010). Field evaluation of *Populus deltoides* Bartr. Ex Marsh. at two sites in Indo-Gangetic plains of India. *Silvae Genetica*, 59(1), 1.
- Dollinger, J., & Jose, S. (2018). Agroforestry for soil health. *Agroforestry Systems, 92*, 213-219.
- Dwivedi, A., Priyadarshini, A., & Induar, S. (2022). Mahua (*Madhuca longifolia*) flower and its application in food industry: A review. *IJCS*, *10*(1), 80-84.
- Dwivedi, A.P. (1986). Agro forestry: its potential. Paper in Seminar on Eucalyptus, FRI, Dehradun.
- Dwivedi, A.P. and Sharma, K.K. (1985). Agro forestry: its potential. Paper in Seminar on Eucalyptus, FRI, Dehradun.
- Dwivedi, S. L., Nigam, S. N., Rao, R. N., Singh, U., & Rao, K. V. S. (1996). Effect of drought on oil, fatty acids, and protein contents of groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) seeds. *Field Crops Research*, 48(2-3), 125-133.
- Dwivedi, S., Sharma, P. K., & Singh, H. (2014). A study of temporal changes in land use and cropping pattern in Jammu district of J&K State. *Agro-Economist*, *1*(1), 9-16.

- Easterling, W. E., Hays, C. J., Easterling, M. M., & Brandle, J. R. (1997). Modelling the effect of shelterbelts on maize productivity under climate change: An application of the EPIC model. *Agriculture, Ecosystems* & *Environment, 61*(2-3), 163-176.
- FAO. 2019. The State of Food and Agriculture 2019. Moving forward on food loss and waste reduction.
- Farrington, J., & Lewis, D. J. (Eds.). (2014). Nongovernmental organizations and the state in Asia: Rethinking roles in sustainable agricultural development.
- Garrity, D. P., Akinnifesi, F. K., Ajayi, O. C., Weldesemayat, S. G., Mowo, J. G., Kalinganire, A., & Larwanou, M. (2010). Evergreen agriculture: A robust approach to sustainable food security in Africa. *Food Security*, 2(3), 197-214. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12571-010-0070-0
- Hoekstra, D. A., Wood, P. J., & Sang, F. A. (1988). Dryland agroforestry research project in Machakos District, Kenya: ICRAF consultancy report.
- ICRAF. (1998). World Agroforestry Centre Report. Retrieved from https://apps.worldagroforestry.org/Units/Lib rary/Books/Book%2047/html/icrf_publicatio n.htm?n=7
- Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). (2022). *Climate change reports*. https://www.un.org/en/climatechange/repor ts?gclid=CjwKCAiAxreqBhAxEiwAfGfndJig TkPYZ7akHqFJDjb1dOAFIaNPxjbrY02ukE cPMIqSKhcxRE3vBoCMWEQAvD_BwE
- International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). (2022). Annual report 2022. https://www.ifad.org/en/annual-report-2022/
- International Panel on Climate Change. (2018). *Climate Change 2014: Mitigation of Climate Change*. Chapter 11. Retrieved from https://www.ipcc.ch/site/assets/uploads/20

18/02/ipcc_wg3_ar5_chapter11.pdf

- Jenkinson, D. S., & Rayners, J. H. (1977). The turnover of soil organic matter in some of the Rothamsted classical experiments. *Soil Science*, *123*(5), 298-305. https://doi.org/10.1097/00010694-197705000-00002
- Jose S, Gordon AM (eds) (2018) Advances in agroforestry volume 4: toward agroforestry design: an ecological approach. Springer, Dordrecht. 314 pp
- Jose, S. (2009). Agroforestry for ecosystem services and environmental benefits: An

overview. Agroforestry Systems, 76(1), 1-10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10457-009-9210-8

- Kandji, S. T., Verchot, L. V., Mackensen, J., Boye, A., Van Noordwijk, M., Tomich, T. P., ... & Garrity, D. P. (2006). Opportunities for linking climate change adaptation and mitigation through agroforestry systems. In *World Agroforestry into the Future* (pp. 113-122). World Agroforestry Centre.
- Kareemulla, K., Rizvi, R. H., Kumar, K., Dwivedi, R. P., & Singh, R. (2005). Poplar agroforestry systems of western Uttar Pradesh in northern India: A socioeconomic analysis. *Forests, Trees and Livelihoods, 15*(4), 375-381.
- Kaul, R. N. (1970). Indo-Pakistan. In Afforestation in Arid Zones (pp. 155-209). Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands.
- King, K. F. S. (1987). The history of agroforestry. In Agroforestry: A Decade of Development (pp. 1-11).
- King, K. F. S., & Chandler, M. T. (1978). *The wasted lands*. Nairobi, Kenya: International Council for Research in Agroforestry.
- Kumar, D., & Singh, N. B. (2012). Status of poplar introduction in India. *ENVIS Forestry Bulletin, 12*(1), 9-14.
- Kumar, S., Dev, I., Agrawal, R. K., Dixit, A. K., & Ram, S. N. (2012). Agronomic research on forages in India: An overview. *Indian Journal of Agronomy*, *57*(3s), 92-104.
- Kuyah, S., Dietz, J., Muthuri, C., Jamnadass, R., Mwangi, P., & Coe, R. (2016). Allometric equations for estimating biomass in agricultural landscapes: I. Aboveground biomass. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 230, 113-132.
- Lahiri, A. K. (1983, July). Agroforestry in West Bengal part I and II. In *Proceedings of national workshop on agroforestry* (pp. 218-225). Karnal, Haryana, India.
- Lal, R. (1995). Carbon sequestration. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 363*(1492), 815-830.

https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2007.2182

- Lal, R. (2004). Soil carbon sequestration impacts on global climate change and food security. *Science*, *304*(5677), 1623-1627. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1097396
- Lal, R. (2013). Climate-resilient agriculture and soil organic carbon. *Indian Journal of Agronomy*, *58*(4), 440-450.
- Lal, R., Hobbs, P., Uphoff, N., & Hansen, D. O. (2004). Sustainable agriculture and the rice-wheat system. *Ohio State University*

and Marcel Dekker, Inc., Columbus, Ohio, and New York, USA, pp. 101-119.

- Lodhiyal, L. S., & Lodhiyal, N. (1997). Nutrient cycling and nutrient use efficiency in short rotation, high density central Himalayan Tarai poplar plantations. *Annals of Botany*, *79*(5), 517-527.
- Mishra, M., Pattnaik, S., Singh, H., & Naik, P. K. (2023). Exploring the role of Mahua as a functional food and its future perspectives. In *Recent Frontiers of Phytochemicals* (pp. 109-121). Elsevier.
- Montagnini F, Francesconi W, Rossi E (eds) (2011) Agroforestry as a tool for landscape restoration. Nova Science Publishers, New York. 201 pp
- Montagnini, F. (2007). The role of agroforestry in the conservation of biodiversity and ecosystem services in tropical landscapes. In Agroforestry and biodiversity conservation in tropical landscapes (pp. 1-46). Island Press.
- Montagnini, F., & Nair, P. R. (2004). Carbon sequestration: An underexploited environmental benefit of agroforestry systems. In *New vistas in agroforestry: A compendium for the 1st World Congress of Agroforestry, 2004* (pp. 281-295). Springer Netherlands. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-6376-8_18
- Nair PKR (ed) (1985) Agroforestry systems in the tropics. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht. 672 pp
- Nair, P. K. R. (1983, January). Multiple land-use and agroforestry. In *Ciba Foundation Symposium 97: Better crops for food* (pp. 101-115). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Nair, P. K. R. (1991). State-of-the-art of agroforestry systems. *Forest Ecology and Management*, 45(1-4), 5-29.
- Nair, P. K. R. (2012). Agroforestry for sustainability of land use systems. *Agroforestry Systems, 86*(1), 1-2. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10457-012-9564-z
- Nair, P. K. R. (2018). Agroforestry The future of global land use. Springer International Publishing.
- Nair, P. R., Mohan Kumar, B., & Naresh Kumar, S. (2018). Climate change, carbon sequestration, and coconut-based ecosystems. In *The Coconut Palm (Cocos nucifera L.) - Research and Development Perspectives* (pp. 779-799).
- Nair, P.K.R. (1987). Agro forestry Research: A retrospective and prospective appraisal Proc. Int. Conf. International Cooperation

in Agro forestry. ICRAF Nairobi, pp. 275-296.

- NASA Earth Science. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://science.gsfc.nasa.gov/earth/reports
- National Wasteland Development Board (NWDB). (1989). [Title not provided].
- National Wastelands Development Board, 1989
- Pant, G. B., Kumar, K. R., Borgaonkar, H. P., Okada, N., Fujiwara, T., & Yamashita, K. (2000). Climatic response of *Cedrus deodara* tree-ring parameters from two sites in the western Himalaya. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research*, 30(7), 1127-1135.
- Pant, M. M. (1980). The impact of social forestry on the national economy of India. *International Tree Crops Journal, 1*(1), 69-92.
- Pathak, P. K., Dwivedi, P. N., Sahay, C. S., Kumar, A., & Pandey, K. C. (2009). Postharvest management of crop residues, grasses, and fodder crops and their value addition for sustaining livestock.
- Pathak, P. S. (2002). Common pool degraded lands: Technological and institutional options. In *Institutionalizing Common Pool Resources* (pp. 402-433). Concept Publishing Co., New Delhi, India.
- Pathak, P.S. (1989). Management of subabul for optimizing production. In production of fodder and fuel wood trees (Eds. N.G. Hegde and Others), BAIF Publications, Pune.
- Pillai, V. K. K. (1983). Agroforestry relevance and scope. In *Proceedings of national* workshop on agroforestry (pp. 76-80). Karnal, Haryana, India.
- Rao, B. R. M., Dwivedi, R. S., Kushwaha, S. P. S., Bhattacharya, S. N., Anand, J. B., & Dasgupta, S. (1999). Monitoring the spatial extent of coastal wetlands using ERS-1 SAR data. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, 20(13), 2509-2517.
- Reddy, T. Y., Reddy, V. R., & Anbumozhi, V. (2003). Physiological responses of groundnut (*Arachis hypogea* L.) to drought stress and its amelioration: A critical review. *Plant Growth Regulation*, 41, 75-88.
- Rossi, E., Montagnini, F., & de Melo Virginio Filho, E. (2011). Effects of management practices on coffee productivity and herbaceous species diversity in agroforestry systems in Costa Rica. In *Agroforestry as a tool for landscape restoration* (pp. 115-132). Nova Science Publishers.

- ROY D. (1990). AGROFORESTRY—A RECENT CONCEPT-FOR MANAGEMENT OF WASTELANDS. *Rural Reconstruction Ecosystem and Forestry*, 215.
- Ρ. Sanghal, Μ. (1983, July). Species compatibility considerations in agroforestry: The state of art in India. In Proceedings of national workshop on agroforestry 416-428). (pp. Karnal, Haryana, India.
- Sarvade, S., Mishra, H. S., Kaushal, R., Chaturvedi, S., Singh, R., Lal, C., & Attri, V. (2019). Carbon sequestration potential of fast-growing short rotation tree species based agroforestry systems in Terai region of Central Himalaya. In Agroforestry for Climate Resilience and Rural Livelihood (Eds. Inder D., Asha R., Naresh K., Ramesh S., Dhiraj K., Uthappa A. R., Handa A. K., Chaturvedi O. P.). Scientific Publishers.
- Singh, M., Arrawatia, M. L., & Tewari, V. P. (1998). Agroforestry for sustainable development in arid zones of Rajasthan. *International Tree Crops Journal, 9*(3), 203-212.
- Singhdoha, A., Bangarwa, K. S., Johar, V., Hooda, B. K., & Dhillon, R. S. (2018). Assessment of general volume table for *Populus deltoides* in northern Haryana. *Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry, 7*(1), 1665-1668.
- Sinha, D., & Joshi, V. U. (2012). Application of universal soil loss equation (USLE) to recently reclaimed badlands along the Adula and Mahalungi Rivers, Pravara Basin, Maharashtra. *Journal* of the Geological Society of India, 80, 341-350.
- Smith, P., Bustamante, M., Ahammad, H., et al. (2014). Agriculture, forestry, and other land use (AFOLU). In Climate Change 2014: Mitigation of Climate Change. Contribution Group III of Working to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel Climate on

Change (pp. 811-922). Cambridge University Press.

- Solaimalai, A., Muralidaran, C., & Subburamu, K. (2005). Alley cropping in rainfed agroecosystem: A review. *Agricultural Reviews, 26*(3), 157-172.
- Solanki, K. R., & Singh, M. (1997). Multipurpose tree species for silvipastoral system. In *Silvipastoral systems in arid and semi-arid ecosystems* (pp. 187).
- Verinumbe, I. (1987). Crop production on soil under some forest plantations in the Sahel. *Agroforestry Systems, 5*, 185-188. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00154407
- Waldron, A., Garrity, D., Malhi, Y., Girardin, C., Miller, D. C., & Seddon, N. (2017). Agroforestry can enhance food security while meeting other sustainable development goals. *Tropical Conservation Science, 10*, 1940082917720667.
- Wani, S. P., Dwivedi, R. S., Ramana, K. V., Vadivelu, A., Navalgund, R. R., & Pande, A. B. (2006). Spatial distribution of rainy season fallows in Madhya Pradesh: Potential for increasing productivity and minimizing land degradation. *Journal of SAT Agricultural Research*, 2(1), 1-36.
- Wilson, G. W. T., Rice, C. W., Rillig, M. C., Springer, A., & Hartnett, D. C. (2009). Soil aggregation and carbon sequestration are tightly correlated with the abundance of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi: Results from long-term field experiments. *Ecology Letters*, 12(5), 452-461. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2009.01202.x
- Young, A., & International Council for Research in Agroforestry. (1989). *Agroforestry for soil conservation*.
- Zomer, R. J., Neufeldt, H., Xu, J., Ahrends, A., Bossio, D., & Trabucco, A. (2016). Global tree cover and biomass carbon on agricultural land: The contribution of agroforestry to global and national carbon budgets. *Scientific Reports, 6*, 29987. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep29987

Disclaimer/Publisher's Note: The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of the publisher and/or the editor(s). This publisher and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.

© Copyright (2024): Author(s). The licensee is the journal publisher. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history: The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here: https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/124969