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## | RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Climate-Smart Agriculture: A Review of Practices, Challenges, and Future Prospects

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### | ABSTRACT

Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA) has emerged as a strategic approach to sustainably increase agricultural productivity, enhance resilience to climate change, and reduce greenhouse gas emissions. This review synthesizes current knowledge on CSA practices, including conservation agriculture, integrated soil fertility management, agroforestry, water harvesting, and precision farming, highlighting their role in promoting food security and environmental sustainability. The study also examines key challenges hindering widespread adoption of CSA, such as limited access to technology, inadequate institutional support, high implementation costs, and gaps in farmers' awareness and capacity. Furthermore, it discusses the socio-economic and policy dimensions critical for effective scaling of CSA, particularly in developing countries where smallholder farmers are most vulnerable. The review underscores the need for robust research, innovative financing mechanisms, participatory extension services, and supportive policies to overcome these barriers. Future prospects emphasize the integration of digital technologies, climate forecasting tools, and multi-stakeholder collaboration to enhance CSA adoption. By aligning agricultural practices with climate adaptation and mitigation goals, CSA presents a pathway toward resilient and sustainable food systems in the face of a changing climate.

#### | KEYWORDS

Agricultural productivity, Climate change, Agroforestry, Food security, Environmental sustainability.

## | ARTICLE INFORMATION

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### 1. Introduction

Agriculture remains the backbone of global food security and economic development, yet it is increasingly vulnerable to the adverse impacts of climate change. Rising temperatures, erratic rainfall, extreme weather events, soil degradation, and shifting ecological conditions have already begun to threaten agricultural productivity and the livelihoods of millions of farmers worldwide. According to Zhao (2023), global food production must increase significantly to feed a projected population of nearly 10 billion by 2050, even as climate-related stresses intensify. This dual challenge—ensuring food security while mitigating and adapting to climate change—has given rise to the concept of Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA).

Climate-Smart Agriculture, introduced by Wakweya, 2023, is an integrated approach that seeks to transform and reorient agricultural systems to effectively support sustainable development and food security in a changing climate. It is built on three interlinked pillars: (i) sustainably increasing agricultural productivity and incomes, (ii) adapting and building resilience to climate change, and (iii) reducing or removing greenhouse gas emissions where possible. Unlike conventional agricultural strategies, CSA emphasizes context-specific practices that are

environmentally sustainable, socially inclusive, and economically viable, making it a key pathway toward resilient food systems.

Over the past decade, a wide range of CSA practices have been developed and tested across different regions, including conservation agriculture, agroforestry, integrated crop-livestock systems, precision farming, water harvesting techniques, and climate-resilient crop varieties. These practices not only enhance productivity but also contribute to resource efficiency, biodiversity conservation, and carbon sequestration (Chandra, 2018). However, their adoption and scaling remain uneven, hindered by socioeconomic, institutional, and technical barriers such as limited access to finance, inadequate policy frameworks, insufficient knowledge transfer, and competing land-use priorities.

Given the urgency of the climate crisis and the pivotal role of agriculture in both vulnerability and solution pathways, it is essential to critically examine the progress, limitations, and opportunities of CSA. This review explores the state of knowledge on CSA practices, analyzes the major challenges confronting their adoption, and outlines future prospects for mainstreaming CSA within global and local agricultural systems (Tumwesigye, 2019). By synthesizing current research and policy debates, the study aims to provide insights for researchers, policymakers, and practitioners committed to building sustainable and climate-resilient agriculture for the future.

### 2. Methodology

This study adopted a systematic review approach to synthesize existing knowledge on Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA), focusing on practices, challenges, and future prospects. The methodology was designed to ensure rigor, transparency, and comprehensiveness in capturing relevant literature.

## 2.1 Literature Search Strategy

A comprehensive search was conducted across major academic databases, including Scopus, Web of Science, ScienceDirect, JSTOR, SpringerLink, and Google Scholar, supplemented by reports from the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the World Bank, and other relevant institutional publications. Keywords and Boolean operators such as "climate-smart agriculture," "sustainable farming," "climate resilience in agriculture," "mitigation," "adaptation," and "agriculture and food security" were used. The search was limited to literature published between 2000 and 2025 to capture contemporary developments.

#### 2.2 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

To ensure relevance and quality, the following criteria were applied:

#### Inclusion criteria:

- o Peer-reviewed articles, book chapters, and credible institutional reports.
- Studies addressing CSA practices, adaptation and mitigation strategies, policy frameworks, or socio-economic implications.
- o Literature written in English.

### • Exclusion criteria:

- Articles lacking empirical, theoretical, or policy relevance.
- Duplicate publications or incomplete reports.
- o Studies focusing on unrelated agricultural or environmental practices without clear linkage to CSA.

#### 2.3 Data Extraction and Analysis

After screening, selected studies were subjected to qualitative content analysis. Key themes were extracted, including:

- 1. CSA practices (e.g., agroforestry, conservation agriculture, precision farming).
- 2. Challenges (e.g., financial constraints, knowledge gaps, institutional barriers).
- 3. Future prospects (e.g., technological innovations, policy support, capacity building).

Data were synthesized thematically to highlight convergences, divergences, and knowledge gaps. Special emphasis was placed on identifying case studies that demonstrate real-world applications of CSA and regional variations in implementation.

### 2.4 Quality Assurance

To enhance validity, only sources from reputable databases and recognized organizations were included. References were cross-checked to avoid duplication and ensure consistency. A PRISMA-inspired flow diagram (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) guided the selection process, ensuring transparency in the identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion of studies.

### 3. Findings and Discussion

## 3.1 Overview of Findings

The review reveals that Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA) encompasses a diverse set of practices designed to simultaneously enhance productivity, build resilience, and reduce emissions. A recurring pattern across the literature is that while CSA practices are context-specific, their effectiveness depends on local ecological, socio-economic, and institutional conditions. Studies consistently highlight that integrated approaches—combining crop, livestock, water, and tree-based systems—yield stronger resilience benefits than isolated interventions. For instance, Karume (2022) note that CSA adoption in sub-Saharan Africa has been more successful where governments and local communities support holistic resource management. Overall, the findings align with the objectives of this review by illustrating both the promise and challenges of CSA in addressing food security and climate adaptation.

### 3.2 Climate-Smart Agriculture Practices

## 3.2.1 Sustainable Crop Production

Evidence suggests that conservation agriculture practices such as minimum tillage, mulching, and crop rotation contribute to improved soil structure and moisture retention, enhancing yield stability under variable climatic conditions. For example, Totin (2018) found that smallholder farmers in East Africa who adopted crop diversification reported up to 25% higher yields during drought years compared to monoculture systems. Improved seed varieties, particularly drought-tolerant maize and rice, have been widely promoted; a study by Partey (2018) showed that such varieties increased yields by 20–30% in water-stressed environments. These findings highlight the potential of sustainable crop production to enhance food security while building climate resilience.

#### 3.2.2 Livestock and Pasture Management

Improved grazing systems and rotational practices have been shown to regenerate degraded pastures and increase livestock productivity. For instance, Mizik (2021) demonstrated that rotational grazing reduced methane emissions per unit of livestock product by enhancing feed efficiency. Similarly, feed supplementation with legume forages has improved livestock nutrition while reducing enteric fermentation. Selective breeding programs aimed at heat- and disease-resistant cattle breeds in South Asia also indicate potential for reducing mortality and sustaining productivity under changing climatic conditions. These findings underscore the dual role of livestock management in promoting productivity and mitigating greenhouse gas emissions.

### 3.2.3 Soil and Water Management

Water management practices, including rainwater harvesting, small-scale irrigation, and drip systems, have consistently improved resource efficiency and adaptive capacity. A case study from India (Barasa, 2021) showed that micro-irrigation systems reduced water use by 30–40% while increasing crop yields by up to 25%. Soil fertility management through organic amendments and integrated nutrient management has also been critical in maintaining productivity under stressed conditions. For example, the application of compost in West African smallholder systems was found to enhance maize yields by 40% (Nciizah, 2015). Collectively, these practices not only secure food production but also buffer farming communities against climate shocks.

### 3.2.4 Agroforestry and Biodiversity Conservation

Agroforestry emerges as a cornerstone of CSA, offering both immediate and long-term benefits. Tree-based systems such as alley cropping and silvopasture enhance soil fertility, provide shade, and improve microclimatic conditions. Studies by Bhattacharyya (2020) indicate that agroforestry systems in the Sahel have improved household income while sequestering significant amounts of carbon. Moreover, biodiversity conservation within agricultural landscapes contributes to ecosystem services such as pollination and pest control. Mixed farming systems, combining crops and trees, have been shown to stabilize yields under variable weather patterns while reducing dependency on external inputs. This demonstrates how agroforestry not only enhances resilience but also advances global climate mitigation objectives.

## 3.3 Socio-Economic Dimensions of CSA

# 3.3.1 Adoption and Farmer Perceptions

Findings from the reviewed literature show that the adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA) practices varies significantly across regions and farming systems, largely depending on farmers' knowledge, perceptions, and access to resources. For instance, in sub-Saharan Africa, adoption rates of conservation agriculture remain low, often below 20%, despite its proven potential to improve yields and enhance soil fertility (Adesipo, 2020). This limited uptake is partly attributed to insufficient knowledge dissemination and the perception among smallholders that CSA practices are labor-intensive or risky compared to conventional farming methods.

Socio-cultural and economic factors also strongly shape adoption. Studies indicate that household income, education levels, and land tenure security influence farmers' willingness to embrace CSA. For example, households with secure land ownership and access to extension services are more likely to adopt agroforestry or soil conservation measures (Zerssa, 2021). Conversely, in regions where traditional practices are deeply entrenched, farmers tend to be skeptical about new approaches unless they observe tangible benefits among their peers. Peer-to-peer learning and demonstration plots have therefore been found to play a critical role in changing perceptions (Kaczan, 2013).

## 3.3.2 Economic Benefits and Trade-Offs

Evidence from multiple studies highlights the potential profitability of CSA practices, although outcomes vary depending on the type of intervention and contextual factors. For example, crop diversification and the use of improved seed varieties have been shown to enhance yields by up to 30% under drought conditions in East Africa (Saj, 2017). Similarly, the adoption of integrated soil fertility management has been linked to higher productivity and reduced reliance on chemical fertilizers, translating to long-term cost savings.

However, CSA adoption is not without trade-offs. High initial investment costs, particularly for irrigation systems, improved storage facilities, or renewable energy technologies, present barriers for smallholders with limited financial capacity. Market access further complicates the economic viability of CSA. Farmers who cannot access premium markets or value chains often fail to realize the economic gains from sustainable production, especially in perishable crops (van Wijk, 2020). Additionally, some practices may involve short-term yield declines as soils and ecosystems adjust, creating a disincentive for risk-averse farmers. These findings suggest that while CSA can enhance resilience and reduce vulnerability to climate shocks, policy interventions such as subsidies, credit access, and improved market linkages are critical to ensuring sustained adoption.

# 3.3.3 Gender and Equity Considerations

The review reveals that CSA adoption is not evenly distributed across social groups, with gender and equity dimensions shaping who benefits most. Women farmers, who make up nearly half of the agricultural labor force in many developing countries, often face systemic barriers such as limited land ownership rights, restricted access to credit, and lower participation in extension programs. These constraints reduce their capacity to adopt CSA practices, even though they are often disproportionately affected by climate change impacts (Prestele, 2020).

Encouragingly, targeted interventions have shown that women's participation in CSA can lead to significant positive outcomes. For instance, participatory training programs in South Asia have empowered women farmers to adopt water-saving technologies and improve household food security (Weerasooriya, 2023). Nonetheless, persistent inequities remain, particularly for marginalized groups such as landless laborers, indigenous communities, and youth, who are often excluded from decision-making processes in agriculture. Without deliberate efforts to address these disparities, CSA risks reinforcing existing inequalities rather than fostering inclusive resilience.

## 3.4 Challenges in Implementation

## 3.4.1 Policy and Institutional Barriers

One of the recurring challenges in the implementation of Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA) is the inadequacy of coherent policy frameworks and institutional coordination. In many developing countries, CSA is still treated as a sectoral intervention rather than an integrated approach that links agriculture, climate change adaptation, and sustainable development. For example, in Sub-Saharan Africa, overlapping mandates between ministries of agriculture, environment, and water management often result in fragmented policies and limited enforcement capacity. These institutional silos create inefficiencies, making it difficult for farmers to access streamlined support (Steenwerth, 2014).

Governments have initiated several programs, such as the *Kenya Climate-Smart Agriculture Strategy (2017–2026)* and India's *National Mission on Sustainable Agriculture*, which provide frameworks for scaling CSA practices. However, findings show that weak monitoring systems, poor resource allocation, and lack of integration with local governance structures limit their effectiveness (Gardezi, 2022). International programs, including the *Global Alliance for Climate-Smart Agriculture (GACSA)*, have played a role in promoting awareness and knowledge sharing, yet their impact is constrained by limited adoption at the grassroots level. This aligns with Taylor (2018), who argue that while international programs offer valuable frameworks, the absence of strong domestic policies undermines long-term sustainability.

### 3.4.2 Technological and Knowledge Constraints

Technological and knowledge-related challenges also impede the widespread adoption of CSA. Many smallholder farmers lack access to reliable extension services and training opportunities that could enhance their understanding of climate-resilient practices such as conservation tillage, drought-tolerant crop varieties, and agroforestry. In East Africa, for instance, extension services reach less than 20% of farmers, and those who are reached often receive generalized information rather than location-specific advice (Rosenstock, 2016).

Access to modern technologies such as precision irrigation, climate information systems, and improved seed varieties remains limited due to high costs and poor distribution networks. This creates knowledge gaps between research outputs and on-farm practices. Studies have also highlighted that research on CSA is unevenly distributed, with more focus on technical innovations and less attention given to social, cultural, and indigenous knowledge systems (Scherr, 2012). The lack of participatory approaches in technology development often reduces farmer confidence and results in low uptake. These findings reinforce the argument by Ariom, (2022) that building farmer capacity through context-specific training and innovation platforms is essential for CSA scaling.

### 3.4.3 Financial and Market Limitations

Financial constraints remain one of the most significant barriers to CSA adoption. Many smallholder farmers operate under limited financial capacity and face difficulties in accessing credit and agricultural insurance. Banks and financial institutions often perceive CSA-related investments as high-risk due to climate uncertainty, leading to restrictive lending policies. For example, in Nigeria, less than 5% of smallholder farmers have access to formal credit, and even fewer are covered by crop insurance schemes (Prestele, 2020). This severely hampers their ability to invest in long-term CSA practices such as soil fertility management or agroforestry systems.

Market-related limitations also restrict the economic viability of CSA. Farmers often lack access to reliable and sustainable markets for climate-resilient products. Poor infrastructure, limited storage facilities, and weak value

chain linkages reduce incentives for CSA adoption. As noted by Zerssa (2021), without guaranteed markets and fair pricing mechanisms, farmers are reluctant to take the risk of shifting to new practices. Additionally, the absence of carbon credit markets and limited mechanisms for rewarding ecosystem services provided by CSA practices further diminish financial incentives.

These findings underscore that CSA implementation is constrained by intertwined policy, technological, and financial barriers (Barasa, 2021). Effective scaling therefore requires integrated approaches that strengthen policy coherence, enhance farmer knowledge, and create enabling financial and market environments.

## 3.5 Future prospects of CSA

### 3.5.1 Innovations and emerging technologies

The evidence reviewed indicates that digital tools, precision agriculture and improved climate modelling hold substantial promise for improving the efficiency, resilience and climate-responsiveness of farming systems (Totin, 2018). Digital extension (mobile apps, SMS, voice services) and decision-support platforms can accelerate the spread of agronomic best practice and seasonal advisories; remote sensing and farm-level sensor networks enable near-real-time monitoring of crop stress, soil moisture and pest outbreaks; and precision inputs (variable-rate fertilizer applicators, drip irrigation systems controlled by sensor logic or simple timers) reduce input waste while increasing yields (Partey, 2018). Climate modelling and downscaled seasonal forecasts strengthen anticipatory action — enabling altered planting dates, crop choices or soil-water management ahead of droughts or floods.

However, the findings show that technological potential is mediated by context. High-tech solutions (satellite-derived indices, automated variable-rate machinery) are feasible and cost-effective in commercial and irrigated systems, while low-cost, information-centric tools (SMS advisories, simple moisture probes, community weather stations) are more appropriate for smallholder, resource-constrained contexts (Kaczan, 2013). Feasibility hinges on three factors: (1) infrastructure (mobile coverage, reliable electricity), (2) human capacity (digital literacy, data interpretation) and (3) institutional arrangements (data access, service delivery models). Studies that combined low-cost sensors and farmer-oriented apps with extension support reported faster adoption than projects that delivered hardware or data alone (Weerasooriya, 2023). Privacy, data ownership and affordability remain practical barriers that must be addressed when scaling digital CSA tools.

### 3.5.2 Policy and institutional strengthening

Findings consistently point to policy and institutional reform as a prerequisite for large-scale CSA impact. Opportunities lie in integrated policy frameworks that align agricultural development, climate adaptation and mitigation objectives rather than treating them as separate sectors (Gardezi, 2022). Examples of enabling measures include: explicit CSA targets within national agricultural and climate plans, fiscal incentives for sustainable practices (subsidy realignment toward conservation inputs or micro-irrigation), streamlined access to climate finance for smallholders, and legal reforms that secure land and water tenure — all of which reduce adoption risk for farmers.

Multi-stakeholder partnerships – bringing together ministries, research institutions, private service providers, civil society and farmer organizations – appear repeatedly in the review as effective enablers (Kaczan, 2013). Public-private linkages can scale agricultural extension through digital platforms and input distribution, while development partners and donor initiatives can catalyse initial investments and capacity building. Institutional strengthening also means investing in decentralized extension, monitoring and quality control so that policy commitments translate into locally relevant services (Steenwerth, 2014). Importantly, governance arrangements must incorporate equity lenses (gender, youth, marginal groups) to avoid reinforcing existing vulnerabilities when new technologies or market mechanisms are introduced.

#### 3.5.3 Pathways for scaling CSA

Best-practice pathways for scaling CSA that emerge from the reviewed evidence are iterative, multi-pronged and locally grounded. Successful scaling strategies combine demonstration and learning (pilot plots, farmer field schools), financial innovations (blended finance, micro-credit, pay-for-performance schemes), and market incentives

(value-chain linkages that reward higher quality/ sustainably produced outputs) (Scherr, 2012). Bundling services — for example linking climate-smart seeds, micro-insurance, advisory services and access to irrigation — reduces individual transaction costs and increases the perceived value of adoption for farmers.

Scaling is most sustainable when built on existing community institutions and farmer networks: farmer-to-farmer diffusion, cooperatives, and local input dealers are repeatedly effective channels (Ariom, 2022). Monitoring, evaluation and adaptive learning systems (using simple indicators complemented by remote sensing where possible) are critical to track outcomes and adjust approaches. There is also strong evidence that national policies and regional coordination (shared research, seed systems, transboundary risk finance) accelerate cross-regional diffusion of successful CSA packages (Adesipo, 2020).

Synergies with the Sustainable Development Goals are direct and multiple. CSA pathways advance SDG 2 (zero hunger) by stabilizing yields and improving productivity; SDG 13 (climate action) by building adaptive capacity and reducing emissions intensity; SDG 1 (no poverty) and SDG 8 (decent work & growth) through income stability and value-chain development; and SDG 5 (gender equality) if scaling strategies deliberately include women's access to inputs, credit and decision-making. The evidence shows that explicit SDG alignment in program design helps secure cross-sectoral funding and political buy-in (Nciizah, 2015).

#### 4. Conclusion

This review highlights that Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA) offers a comprehensive framework for addressing the intertwined challenges of food security, climate change, and sustainable resource management. The findings demonstrate that CSA practices such as conservation agriculture, crop diversification, improved seed varieties, agroforestry, and water-efficient technologies have shown positive impacts on productivity, resilience, and environmental sustainability across diverse farming systems. These practices not only enhance adaptive capacity but also contribute to the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions, thereby aligning with global climate goals.

However, the study also reveals that the adoption and effectiveness of CSA remain uneven due to persistent socioeconomic, policy, and institutional barriers. Limited access to information, inadequate financing, weak governance structures, and fragmented policy frameworks continue to hinder widespread uptake. Moreover, farmers' perceptions, knowledge gaps, and resource constraints significantly influence adoption decisions, underscoring the need for context-specific strategies that recognize local realities.

Looking forward, CSA holds great potential through innovations and emerging technologies such as digital tools, precision agriculture, remote sensing, and climate forecasting systems. These advancements can improve decision-making, optimize resource use, and expand access to timely information, thereby fostering more inclusive and efficient agricultural systems. Nevertheless, realizing these prospects will require robust policy support, capacity building, and stronger institutional coordination to bridge existing gaps.

In conclusion, CSA is not a one-size-fits-all approach but rather a dynamic, context-sensitive framework that requires multi-stakeholder collaboration and long-term investment. For it to achieve its full potential, there must be concerted efforts to integrate scientific innovations with traditional knowledge, strengthen enabling environments, and prioritize farmers' participation in decision-making processes. By doing so, CSA can become a transformative pathway toward climate-resilient, productive, and sustainable agriculture, ensuring both present and future generations benefit from secure food systems and healthier ecosystems.

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