



# **1 Potential of temperate agroforestry systems to deliver 2 ecosystem services: an evidence map**

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## 1 Abstract

2 Agroforestry systems are promoted as multifunctional land-use strategies, yet evidence of their  
3 benefits, especially in temperate regions, remains fragmented. This umbrella review maps 42  
4 meta-analyses to quantify the effects of agroforestry on environmental, climate, and productivity  
5 outcomes, with a focus on temperate pedo-climates. Our evidence map reveals a strong consensus  
6 on key regulating ecosystem services: a clear majority of assessments (over 65%) reported  
7 significantly positive effects on soil carbon sequestration and multiple indicators of soil quality  
8 (154 results). In contrast, effects on provisioning services are more variable. However, the most  
9 reported metrics (e.g. single-crop yield) hardly represent the integrated provision of different food  
10 or non-food products on the same land, while more comprehensive indicators are rarely used (e.g.  
11 land equivalent ratio). Mapping outcomes to the CICES framework highlights several relevant  
12 knowledge gaps and a total absence of meta-analytical evidence for Cultural Ecosystem Services.  
13 Methodological quality was variable, with frequent shortcomings in reporting study selection and  
14 statistical analysis. We provide a list of 1500 primary literature references and a global map of  
15 geolocations highlighting the experiments available for temperate pedo-climates. This synthesis  
16 provides a robust evidence base for policymakers, pinpointing both established benefits and  
17 critical research gaps needed to fully leverage agroforestry in temperate regions.

## 18 Highlights

- 19 ● comprehensive review on 42 meta-analyses of temperate agroforestry practices across  
20 sustainability outcomes conducted
- 21 ● Effects on soil health and carbon stocks were most often studied with mostly positive  
22 results
- 23 ● comparison to CICES classification revealed that only 8 out of 38 ecosystem service  
24 groups were covered by empirical evidence
- 25 ● Most reviews do not provide direct empirical evidence of the effects of AFS on the  
26 ecosystem services defined by the CICES classification



- 1     • Socio-cultural outcomes, effects on water balances, as well as long-term studies were
- 2         underrepresented such as studies on agroforestry with fish/insects, agrosilvopastoral, and
- 3         hedge systems
  
- 4     • Quality assessment revealed mixed quality of published meta-analyses with lack of
- 5         robustness checks, control of publication bias and pure documenting of complete
- 6         information
  
- 7



## 1 Introduction

2 Agroforestry - the deliberate integration of trees into cropping and livestock systems - has  
3 garnered increasing attention as a multifunctional land-use strategy to address multiple global  
4 challenges simultaneously. These include climate change mitigation, biodiversity conservation,  
5 soil health regeneration, and sustainable food production (Beillouin et al., 2021; Castle et al.,  
6 2022; Nair et al., 2021; Tamburini et al., 2020). Agroforestry encompasses a broad range of  
7 practices and systems, including silvoarable, silvopastoral, and agrosilvopastoral systems, each  
8 with distinct environmental and productivity implications (Castle et al., 2022; Kuyah et al., 2019).  
9 The integration of trees with crops or livestock has often been shown to significantly enhance  
10 biodiversity, carbon sequestration, soil health, and overall system resilience, particularly in  
11 subtropical and tropical regions (Ngaba et al., 2024). The effectiveness of agroforestry practices  
12 or systems (hereafter simply called “agroforestry”) in delivering ecosystem services varies  
13 considerably depending on the type of system, tree species, spatial arrangement, management  
14 intensity and the pedo-climatic conditions (Kim et al., 2016; Shi et al., 2018). This entails the  
15 need of region-specific research to optimize and assess agroforestry outcomes.

16 However, most available evidence, as synthesized by published meta-analyses (MAs) pertains to  
17 agroforestry in tropical and subtropical latitudes (tropical, arid or semi-arid pedo-climates),  
18 primarily in the southern hemisphere, whereas information remains comparatively scarce for  
19 temperate latitudes (including pedo-climates: temperate, mediterranean, boreal, continental, polar,  
20 etc.) (Torralba et al., 2016). In the EU, agroforestry is traditionally applied particularly in  
21 Mediterranean regions, as nature-based solutions for climate adaptation, biodiversity  
22 conservation, and rural development. For example the Montado systems (Spain and Portugal) that  
23 combine holm oaks or cork oaks with grazing (sheep, pigs) and cereal cultivation. Therefore,  
24 continuous update of the available evidence, especially in these contexts, is of primary  
25 importance. However, extensive and robust evidence on the impacts of agroforestry on the nexus  
26 of sustainability outcomes in these regions is still lacking.

27 Previous evidence syntheses have, in parallel, mapped the effects of agroforestry on various  
28 outcomes, including biodiversity, soil properties, productivity (Beillouin et al., 2019; Mathieu et  
29 al., 2025; Tamburini et al., 2020). Other evidence maps (Castle et al., 2022; Köthke et al., 2022)  
30 revealed that linear boundary plantings, such as hedgerows and windbreaks, have been  
31 extensively studied for their impacts on biodiversity, soil and water quality, and carbon



1 sequestration. However, gaps remain in our understanding of agroforestry's effects on a broad  
2 range of sustainability outcomes, particularly for northern-hemisphere pedo-climates.  
3 Importantly, the continuous update of literature is a serious issue. For instance, the most recent  
4 map of meta-analyses was published in 2025 (Mathieu et al., 2025); however, this analysis is  
5 based on a literature search performed in the year 2021. Given the rapid evolution of synthesis  
6 literature in this field (see Figure 1), it is of pivotal importance to keep evidence maps up to date  
7 and increase collaboration across scientists to share standardized and high-quality data.

8 It is also unclear how robust is the available empirical evidence to explain the potential  
9 contributions of agroforestry to the provision of ecosystem services, especially in temperate  
10 regions. According to some systematic literature maps (Mathieu et al., 2025; Tamburini et al.,  
11 2020), agroforestry in temperate regions provides numerous ecosystem services, including carbon  
12 sequestration, soil fertility enhancement, and biodiversity conservation. For instance, European  
13 studies highlight the benefits of wood pastures in Mediterranean, Atlantic, and Continental  
14 landscapes, focusing on habitat provision, climate regulation, and aesthetic value (Fagerholm et  
15 al., 2016). However, most reviews do not provide transparent linkages between empirical metrics  
16 (used in field experiments) and ecosystem services, as defined by the CICES classification (Sauer  
17 et al., 2021; Tamburini et al., 2020).

18 Another issue regards the quality of the MAs published on agroforestry. The increasing number  
19 of MAs, reporting on agroforestry and more in general in agricultural and environmental sciences,  
20 underscores their value for informing policy and practice by quantitatively synthesizing numerous  
21 experimental results (Schievano et al., 2024). Ideally, MAs should adhere to a rigorous,  
22 transparent systematic review process—encompassing clear scoping, comprehensive literature  
23 searches, unbiased study selection, standardized data extraction, appropriate statistical analysis,  
24 and thorough bias assessment—to ensure the validity of their conclusions. However, previous  
25 assessments in the field of agricultural sustainability (including on agroforestry) have revealed  
26 significant shortcomings (Beillouin et al., 2018; Fohrafellner et al., 2023). For instance, crucial  
27 steps like publication bias assessment are often overlooked (reported in only 16–40% of MAs in  
28 some reviews), and replicability is frequently compromised by limited data sharing (18–35%  
29 providing datasets) and inadequately documented search and selection strategies (Beillouin et al.,  
30 2018; Fohrafellner et al., 2023). This lack of transparency contravenes FAIR (Findability,  
31 Accessibility, Interoperability, and Reusability) data principles, hindering the scientific



1 community's ability to re-analyse data, integrate new studies, and foster a virtuous data ecosystem  
2 essential for robust, cumulative evidence and bias reduction.

3 This work was performed in the context of a wider synthesis of MAs reporting on a broad range  
4 of sustainable agricultural practices, performed by the European Commission, Joint Research  
5 Centre. A first version of this map was already available within the “JRC-Farming Practices  
6 Evidence Library” (European Commission. Joint Research Centre., 2025; Schievano et al., 2024),  
7 based on a comprehensive dataset including a collection of around 570 MAs (version 2023)  
8 reporting on the effects of farming practices. However, the agroforestry data in the JRC dataset  
9 were collected in early 2020 and have become outdated due to the rapid advancement of research  
10 in this field. This paper aims at mapping of potentials of agroforestry to provide ecosystem  
11 services, as well as at identifying the knowledge and quality gaps. While drawing from global  
12 evidence, the review has a specific focus on agroforestry within temperate pedoclimatic zones.  
13 Specifically, we aim at:

- 14 1. Update a map of the published MAs reporting on the effects of agroforestry at a global  
15 scale and specifically including articles regarding temperate pedo-climates;
- 16 2. characterizing how existing meta-analytical evidence is distributed across different  
17 agroforestry practices/systems and sustainability outcomes, as quantified by empirical  
18 metrics;
- 19 3. linking empirical metrics to the Common International Classification of Ecosystem  
20 Services version 5.2 and pinpointing knowledge gaps across the whole range of  
21 ecosystem services (CICES).
- 22 4. assess the methodological quality of the included MAs and examining potential trends in  
23 quality over time or across sustainability outcome types.
- 24 5. recompile the underlying primary studies references, determine the extent to which they  
25 overlap between different MAs and deliver a unique list of references for future further  
26 literature analyses, including a map the geographical location of the experiments.

27 By addressing these objectives, this study aims to provide policymakers, researchers, and  
28 practitioners with a robust, synthesized, and current evidence based on agroforestry knowledge in  
29 temperate pedo-climates. This information is intended to highlight areas of strong consensus,  
30 identify critical research gaps, and ultimately support the development of effective agroforestry



1 for sustainable land management, biodiversity conservation, climate change adaptation and  
2 mitigation, and food security.

### 3 **Methods**

4 We update and expand upon previous efforts in mapping empirical evidence synthesis on  
5 agroforestry based on published meta-analyses (MAs) (Beillouin et al., 2019; Castle et al., 2022;  
6 Köthke et al., 2022; Mathieu et al., 2025; Tamburini et al., 2020; Terasaki Hart et al., 2023) and  
7 the current version of the “JRC-Farming Practices Evidence Library” (European Commission.  
8 Joint Research Centre., 2025; Schievano et al., 2024).

#### 9 *Search strategy and inclusion/exclusion criteria*

10 Our systematic review of MAs was performed in accordance with a methodological framework  
11 developed in the context of the JRC Evidence Library (Schievano et al., 2025). In brief, we  
12 followed the PRISMA statement guidelines (Page et al., 2021) and the Cochrane Handbook, to  
13 comprehensively identify MAs on agroforestry published before June 2024 in Web of Science  
14 and Scopus. We developed specific search equations, combining keywords related to agroforestry  
15 practices and meta-analytical methods (Supplementary Table 1). To update the first search run in  
16 2020 (European Commission. Joint Research Centre., 2025), we performed three successive  
17 searches between 2023 and 2024 with refined keywords, (Figure 1). We also incorporated MAs  
18 identified by previous systematic maps (Beillouin et al., 2019; Castle et al., 2022; Köthke et al.,  
19 2022; Tamburini et al., 2020). Four reviewers independently screened titles and abstracts,  
20 followed by full-text assessment based on predefined inclusion criteria (a complete list of the  
21 selection (exclusion/inclusion) criteria is reported in Supplementary Table 2). We included  
22 peer-reviewed MAs that reported quantitative results on the effects of agroforestry compared to  
23 tree-less agriculture or, in few cases, silvopastoral systems are compared to monocultural timber  
24 plantations (Feliciano et al., 2018; Pent, 2020). During the data extraction process, we included  
25 MAs that provide evidence on agroforestry in temperate, including specific pedo-climates and  
26 biomes, such as temperate, boreal, continental, and Mediterranean. We excluded from MAs  
27 focusing solely on either tropical or arid/semi-arid pedo-climates from the final data extraction  
28 (typically these are datasets that include only agroforestry studies performed in tropical or  
29 subtropical arid zones). As some global MAs provide data from temperate and other  
30 pedo-climates, we mapped the following in the present manuscript: 1) main results (global MAs  
31 including at least some temperate studies) and 2) results (e.g. of subgroup analysis) specifically  
32 including temperate studies.



## 1 *Data extraction and classification*

2 Data extraction was conducted using a standardized spreadsheet, developed in the context of the  
3 JRC-Farming Practices Evidence Library dataset (Schievano et al., 2025, 2024), to capture study  
4 characteristics, methodological details, quality and reported outcomes. In accordance to the  
5 methodology used in the JRC-Farming practices Evidence Library (European Commission. Joint  
6 Research Centre., 2025), the effect sizes were classified as significantly positive, significantly  
7 negative, non-significant, or lacking formal statistical testing. Extracted metadata included  
8 systematic review methods, characteristics of original experiments (intervention, comparator,  
9 outcome metrics, population variables), key results and conclusions, and quantitative effect size  
10 data (means, confidence intervals, sample sizes, effect size type, and statistical models).

11 Several MAs had global coverage, i.e. experimental sites were spread across many different  
12 pedo-climatic conditions and geographical locations across the globe. Other MAs were more  
13 specifically focused on geographical areas or pedo-climatic zones (however, according to our  
14 selection criteria, at least including temperate pedo-climates). We extracted the main assessments  
15 (i.e. mean effect sizes), as calculated by the authors of each MA, i.e. reflecting the overall original  
16 population (sometimes grand means pooling together different types of agroforestry practices and  
17 systems). We also extracted effect sizes reported for data subgroups regarding specific types of  
18 agroforestry practices and systems. We also extracted effect sizes reported by MAs for data  
19 subgroups regarding specific pedo-climatis conditions and zones.

20 To facilitate synthesis across studies, we classified intervention-comparator pairs and outcome  
21 metrics into harmonized categories: the main classes of agroforestry were categorised according  
22 to the JRC classification of farming practices (Angileri et al., 2024) and the EURAF Agroforestry  
23 Typology (Worms and Lawson, 2024), as follows: i) silvopastoral systems, ii) silvoarable  
24 systems, iii) agrosilvopastoral systems, iv) landscape woody features and v) others. Each class  
25 may include several specific practices. For instance, “Landscape woody features” would include  
26 e.g. hedgerows, buffer stripes. We report an updated classification in Table 1.

27

28



- 1 Table 1 - Classification of agroforestry systems and practices used in this study, as adapted from  
2 the JRC classification of farming practices (Angileri et al., 2024) and the EURAF Agroforestry  
3 Typology (Worms and Lawson, 2024).

Main agroforestry systems	Specific agroforestry practices
Silvoarable	Alley cropping
	Alley coppice
Silvopastoral	Wood pasture & Orchard grazing
Landscape woody features	Hedges/wooded strips
	Buffer strips
	Trees in line (Windbreaks and shelterbelts)
	Isolated trees
Agrosilvopastoral	Settlement agroforestry (Homegarden)
Other Systems	Shaded perennials
	Improved fallow
	Woodlot

- 4 In total, 80 empirical metrics (e.g. soil organic carbon stock, soil nitrogen concentration, soil  
5 sediment loss, forage yield, etc.) were grouped into 16 “impact categories” (e.g. increase carbon  
6 sequestration, increase soil nutrients, decrease soil erosion, increase crop yield, respectively),  
7 which contribute to 6 independent “sustainability outcomes” (e.g. carbon sequestration, soil  
8 health, agricultural productivity) (see supplementary material Table S4 for a full list and  
9 assortment of sustainability outcomes, impact categories and metrics). This classification of  
10 outcomes is currently adopted by the JRC-Farming practices Evidence Library (European  
11 Commission. Joint Research Centre., 2025) and matches the main thematic areas published in the  
12 Food System Sustainability Model (European Commission. Joint Research Centre., 2024),  
13 developed for the EU Food System Monitoring Framework (European Commission. Joint  
14 Research Centre., 2024).

- 15 Subsequently, we matched the empirical metrics retrieved from the selected MAs (as defined by  
16 the authors of each meta-analysis) to the most recent version of the ecosystems services  
17 classification (CICES 5.2). We used the most disaggregated category (CICES classes of four  
18 digits) to match the metrics (the full list of metrics matched to the CICES classes can be found in  
19 Supplementary Table 4).

## 20 *Quality assessment and primary literature overlap*

- 21 We evaluated the quality of included MAs using 16 criteria (Supplementary Table 5), that cover  
22 aspects of the systematic review process, statistical analysis, and risk of bias, in accordance with



1 the JRC-farming practices dataset (Schievano et al., 2024). For MAs reporting metrics belonging  
2 to multiple impact categories, we assessed separately the quality per each impact category.

3 To evaluate the overlap of studies included in MAs, we extracted all primary-study references  
4 from the included MAs. Missing bibliographic metadata were retrieved using a custom R-based  
5 pipeline that accessed the Crossref metadata database via the rcrossref package (Chamberlain et  
6 al., 2025). For entries with missing DOIs but known titles, we implemented a looped query  
7 system that matched candidate records using a Jaro-Winkler string similarity algorithm (threshold  
8  $\geq 0.95$ ). For references lacking both title and DOI, full citation strings (APA, Chicago, or AYJ  
9 styles) were parsed using regular expressions to extract key metadata fields such as author, year,  
10 journal, volume, and pagination. These were then used to reconstruct missing information  
11 through targeted queries to Crossref. All records were subjected to internal consistency checks  
12 and harmonised into a standardised format. We then quantified the overlap of primary studies  
13 across MAs and tracked the accumulation of unique studies over time.

14 GPS coordinates of experimental sites were systematically extracted from the methods sections of  
15 primary studies using a combination of automated text mining and pattern-matching algorithms  
16 designed to recognize diverse coordinate formats, including decimal degrees,  
17 degrees-minutes-seconds, and other common notations. In cases where exact coordinates were  
18 absent, site locations were inferred from reported locality information, such as cities, villages, or  
19 regions, and, when necessary, the country of the experiment was recorded. To ensure data  
20 completeness and accuracy, missing or ambiguous locations were further curated manually  
21 through an interactive Shiny-based annotation interface, leveraging contextual information from  
22 titles, abstracts, and external databases (see Supplementary materials). This multi-tiered approach  
23 allowed for comprehensive harmonization and high-confidence georeferencing across the  
24 assembled dataset.

## 25 *Statistical tests*

26 We applied a Bayesian ordinal regression framework to quantify and compare the probabilities of  
27 observing Negative, Neutral, and Positive effects across “Temperate-only” and “Main” dataset.  
28 Models were implemented in R using the **brms** package (Bürkner, 2017), with effect categories  
29 treated as ordered factors, and study-level variability modeled as a random intercept, while  
30 adjusting for the number of primary studies. Groups with only two observed outcomes (Positive  
31 and Negative) were modeled with a Bernoulli distribution, whereas groups with three or more



categories were modeled using a cumulative logit link. Posterior predictions were used to estimate the probability of each effect category and the posterior distribution of the difference between Positive and Negative effects for each dataset, yielding mean differences, 95% credible intervals, and the probability that Positive effects are more likely than Negative. We next quantified, for each CICES group, the difference in Positive-minus-Negative probabilities between the “Full” and “Temperate-only” datasets using posterior draws. All results were visualized with density plots and group-level comparisons, highlighting probabilistic evidence and associated uncertainty (see Supplementary materials).

## Results

A total of 340 records were found and 42 meta-analyses (MAs) meeting our inclusion criteria were selected (Figure 1), published between 2007 and June 2024. Of these, 29 MAs report results at global scale (including results on temperate systems) and 13 MAs focus specifically on agroforestry systems in temperate pedo-climates. Further 32 MAs were identified that focus specifically on agroforestry studies located in tropical/subtropical or arid/semi-arid regions, which did not undergo data extraction (Supplementary Table 3). The full PRISMA statement diagram (Page et al., 2021) on the review workflow is reported in Supplementary Figure 1 and the full critical appraisal in Supplementary Table 3.

### *Overview of available assessments*

Figure 1 provides a synthetic glance of the main effects of agroforestry, as reported by MAs across the Groups of Ecosystem services (3-digits of the CICES classification). In parallel, we report the distribution of results across empirical metrics (see Supplementary Figure 2), as named in the original MAs and as classified in the JRC-Farming practices Evidence Library (European Commission. Joint Research Centre., 2025).

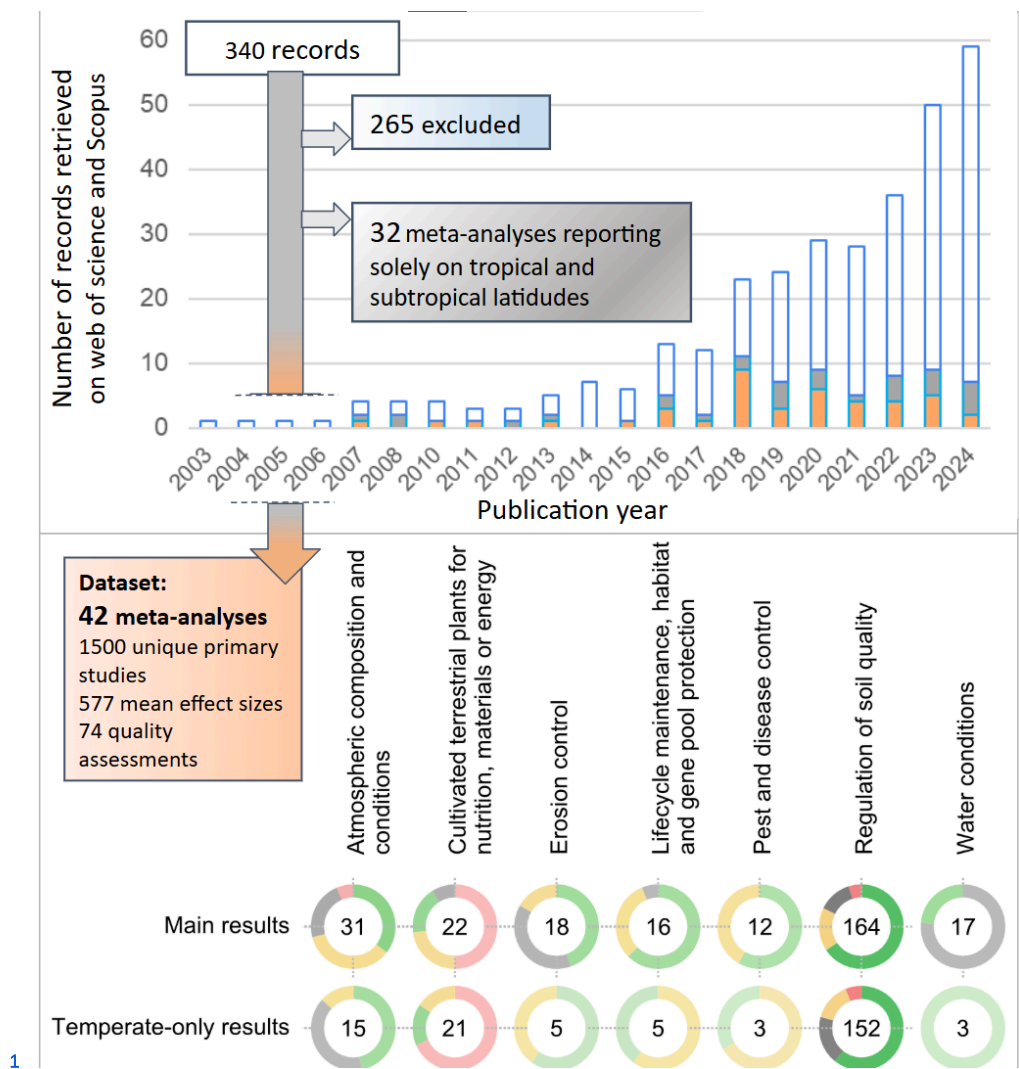


Figure 1 – Chronological distribution of the systematic review of meta-analyses (MAs), schematic PRISMA diagram and overview of the main results. Results (i.e. mean effect sizes extracted from the select MAs) were extracted for main assessments, as well as for temperate-only subgroups. Metrics used in empirical studies were linked across classes of Ecosystem services (CICES classification). Donut plots show the share of results showing significant positive (green) or negative effects (red), non-significant effect (yellow) or non-statistically-tested results (grey), as presented by the selected MAs. The numbers report the total count of effect sizes reported by the selected MAs. The full PRISMA statement diagram (Page et al., 2021) is reported in Supplementary Figure 1. Detailed classification of specific metrics belonging to each class of outcomes is available in Supplementary Table 4.

Both the main results (i.e. mean effect sizes estimated using the full dataset of each MA) and the temperate-only (i.e. mean effect sizes estimated using only subgroups of experiments located in



1 temperate pedo-climates) cover seven classes of ES. By far, the majority of assessments (i.e.  
2 estimated effect sizes) were published on “Regulation of soil quality” (main: n = 164; temperate:  
3 n = 152). The large majority of these assessments were reported for the empirical metrics (see  
4 Supplementary Table 4): Organic carbon stock (soil), Organic carbon sequestration rate (soil),  
5 Organic carbon content (soil); fewer results were available for other metrics such as Soil water,  
6 Soil phosphorous/nitrogen and Soil biological quality (e.g. Taxonomic parameters (microbes)).  
7 High shares of these assessments (i.e. around 65% for both temperate-only and main results)  
8 reported significant positive effects.



1 The ES group “Atmospheric composition and conditions” (main:  $n = 31$ ; temperate:  $n = 15$ )  
2 showed a moderate share of positives (35-50%), while many results lacked statistical analysis  
3 (Figure 1). These results were mainly assessed through metrics related to organic carbon  
4 sequestration in trees biomass and to soil GHG emissions (Supplementary Table 6). A small share  
5 (5%) of negative effects were reported for specific metrics related to soil GHG emissions (such as  
6  $N_2O$  and  $CH_4$ , see Supplementary Figure 2).

7 A fair coverage of assessments is also available on metrics related to the ES “Erosion control”  
8 (main:  $n = 18$ ; temperate:  $n = 5$ ), “Pest and disease control” (main:  $n = 12$ ; temperate:  $n = 6$ ),  
9 “Lifecycle maintenance” (main:  $n = 16$ ; temperate:  $n = 5$ ) and “water conditions” (main:  $n = 17$ ;  
10 temperate:  $n = 3$ ). Up to over 65% of positive effects (and zero negative effects) were reported  
11 for these ES groups.

12 For the ES group “Cultivated terrestrial plants for nutrition, materials or energy” (main:  $n = 22$ ;  
13 temperate:  $n = 21$ ), around 50% of negative effects were reported, with lower shares of positive  
14 effects (8% and 25% for main and temperate-only results, respectively). These results were  
15 mainly related to the metrics “Crop yield (arable crops)” and “Net primary productivity (grass)”,  
16 which hardly reflect the overall productivity of an agroforestry system, rather than of fractions of  
17 land dedicated to either single arable crops or pasture. Very few assessments reported results for  
18 more holistic assessments of the agricultural productivity of the whole agroforestry system (e.g.  
19 “Land equivalent ratio (LER)”, which includes the assessment of the intercropped trees and  
20 arable crops or livestock production.

21 We quantified the likelihood that interventions produce beneficial versus detrimental outcomes  
22 across ecosystem services. Using the main results (global dataset), interventions on Atmospheric  
23 composition and conditions were somewhat more likely to be beneficial than harmful, with a  
24 mean probability difference of 0.21 (95% CI  $-0.53$  to  $0.83$ , posterior probability 0.77), indicating  
25 a 21-percentage-point higher chance of positive effects. For Cultivated terrestrial plants for  
26 nutrition, materials or energy, the global dataset slightly favored negative outcomes (mean  $-0.37$ ,  
27 95% CI  $-0.82$  to  $0.27$ , posterior probability 0.094). In contrast, interventions targeting Regulation  
28 of soil quality were strongly likely to be beneficial, with a 69-percentage-point higher probability  
29 of positive effects (95% CI  $0.54$ – $0.83$ , posterior probability 1).



1 Restricting the analysis to the temperate subset yielded broadly consistent patterns. Cultivated  
2 terrestrial plants showed no detectable difference between positive and negative outcomes (mean  
3 0.016, 95% CI –0.34 to 0.41, posterior probability 0.53), whereas Regulation of soil quality  
4 interventions remained strongly positive (mean 0.48, 95% CI –0.03 to 0.83, posterior probability  
5 0.97). Comparisons between the global and temperate datasets revealed only minor differences,  
6 indicating that focusing on temperate regions does not substantially alter predicted effect  
7 probabilities. Overall, soil quality interventions consistently show a high likelihood of positive  
8 outcomes, while results for other services are more variable and context-dependent.

#### 9 *Available assessments on classes of agroforestry*

10 While most meta-analyses (MAs) presented aggregated results, pooling effect sizes from various  
11 agroforestry systems (referred to as "unspecified agroforestry types"), Figures 2 and 3 provide  
12 visual summaries of the evidence base disaggregated by agroforestry class (following Table 1)  
13 and CICES Ecosystem Service (ES) Groups. "Unspecified agroforestry type" is the most  
14 frequently represented category overall, particularly within the temperate climate results (Figure  
15 3), covering approximately one third of the findings. Silvoarable and silvopastoral systems are  
16 also prominent, with a high number of assessments in both global (Figure 2) and  
17 temperate-specific contexts (Figure 3). Conversely, "Landscape woody features" consistently  
18 show fewer results across both climate groups.

19 A consistent pattern across all agroforestry classes is a positive effect on the ES Group  
20 "Regulation of soil quality." For instance, silvopastoral systems contribute positively to "Soil  
21 nutrients" and "Soil physico-chemical quality" (Figure 2). Figure 2 highlights a concentration of  
22 meta-analytical evidence on the ES Group "Atmospheric composition and conditions," primarily  
23 driven by carbon sequestration, which stands out with the highest number of synthesized results  
24 across nearly all agroforestry types, particularly for silvopastoral and silvoarable systems. Other  
25 ES Groups receiving significant attention include aspects of "Regulation of soil quality," notably  
26 "Soil nutrients" and "Soil physico-chemical quality," as well as "Lifecycle maintenance"  
27 (biodiversity) and "Cultivated terrestrial plants for nutrition, materials or energy" (specifically  
28 grassland production under silvopastoral systems). Conversely, ES Groups like "Atmospheric  
29 composition and conditions" (direct GHG emissions and biomass carbon stocks, distinct from soil  
30 carbon stocks), "Pollination," and overall farming system productivity appear less frequently  
31 assessed.



1 Regarding the nature of the findings (Figure 2), "Atmospheric composition and conditions"  
2 predominantly shows positive effects across agroforestry types. However, for silvopastoral  
3 systems, a substantial proportion of these results are non-significant, and a considerable portion  
4 of carbon sequestration results lack formal statistical testing. Similarly, positive impacts are  
5 frequently reported for "Soil nutrients," "Soil physico-chemical quality," "Soil biological quality,"  
6 and "Lifecycle maintenance," suggesting a general consensus in the MAs on benefits in these  
7 areas.

8 However, outcomes related to "Cultivated terrestrial plants for nutrition, materials or energy"  
9 show more variability. For instance, grassland production under silvopastoral systems yields a  
10 mix of significantly positive, negative, and non-significant results, while crop yield under  
11 silvoarable systems includes both significantly negative and non-significant findings.  
12 Furthermore, the prevalence of non-significant findings in ES Groups like "Erosion control" and  
13 "Pest and disease control," alongside the significant proportion of results lacking statistical testing  
14 across multiple ES Groups (e.g., "Global warming potential," "Nutrient leaching"), underscores  
15 the need for cautious interpretation and highlights areas where the synthesized evidence remains  
16 inconclusive or requires more rigorous assessment.

17



1  
2 Figure 2 – Meta-analytical evidence regarding the effects of main classes of agroforestry systems, reporting the main  
3 effect sizes estimated by the selected meta-analyses. Results (i.e. mean effect sizes extracted from the select MAs) were  
4 extracted for main assessments, as well as for temperate-only subgroups. The effects are classified for Ecosystems  
5 services (ES) groups (i.e. 3-digits of the CICES classification). The chart illustrates the distribution of results showing  
6 significant positive (green) or negative effects (red), non-significant effect (yellow) or non-statistically-tested results  
7 (grey), for the selected combination of practices and ES. The numbers represent the count of effect sizes reported by the  
8 selected MAs. When the same MA reports results at different aggregation levels, we did not double count these results  
9 in the same donut graph.



1

2 Figure 3 –Meta-analytical evidence regarding the effects of specific classes of agroforestry systems. Results (i.e. mean  
3 effect sizes extracted from the select MAs) were extracted for main assessments, as well as for temperate-only  
4 subgroups. The effects are classified for Ecosystems services (ES) groups (i.e. 3-digits of the CICES classification). The  
5 chart illustrates the distribution of results showing significant positive (green) or negative effects (red), non-significant  
6 effect (yellow) or non-statistically-tested results (grey), for the selected combination of practices and sustainability



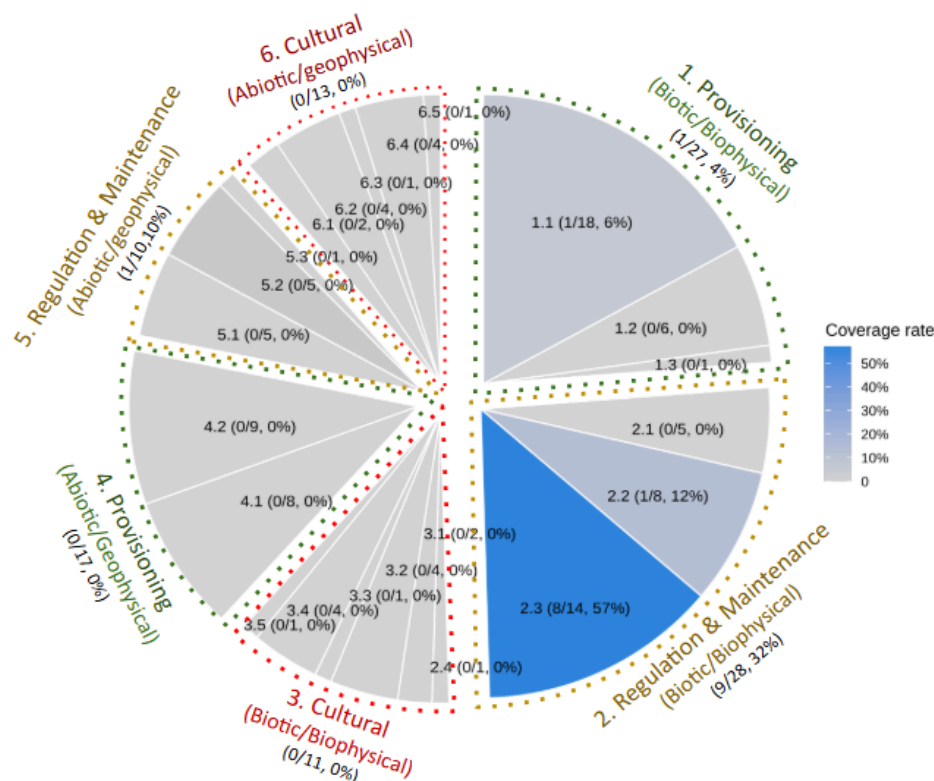
1 outcomes. The numbers represent the count of effect sizes reported by the selected MAs. When the same MA reports  
2 results at different aggregation levels, we did not double count these results in the same donut graph.

### 3 *Knowledge Gaps across CICES classification*

4 Results reported by MAs were associated with the CICES classifications, namely with 2 (out of  
5 6) sections and 3 (out of 19) divisions (represented graphically in Figure 4) and with 7 (out of 38)  
6 groups and 10 (out of 99) classes (see detailed report in Supplementary Table 6). This means that  
7 66% of sections, 84% of divisions, 85% of groups and 91% of classes are not covered by any  
8 result reported in MAs. Even if a large majority of “Abiotic/Geophysical” services might be not  
9 affected by the implementation of agroforestry systems, “Biotic/Biophysical” services are also  
10 relatively uncovered, with only 4% coverage rate for “Provisioning” services, 32% for  
11 “Regulation & maintenance” services and no coverage at all for “Cultural” services.  
12 The division with highest coverage rate (32%) is “2.3 - Regulation of physical, chemical,  
13 biological conditions”, with 8 out of 14 classes covered by evidence (Figure 4). However, the  
14 largest majority of results regards soil-related services, while very important classes remain either  
15 uncovered (e.g. for “Control of wind erosion rates”, “Regulation runoff and base flows”, “Seed  
16 dispersal”, “Maintaining or regulating refuge habitats”, “Regulation of temperature and humidity,  
17 including ventilation and transpiration at local scales”, “Wind protection”, “Fire protection”) or  
18 underrepresented (e.g. “water conditions”, see Figures 1,2,3). This highlights a particular research  
19 void concerning agroforestry's potential key role in enhancing biodiversity, improving water  
20 quality/management and hydrological cycles and driving resilience, which are especially  
21 pertinent given increasing concerns about biodiversity losses, water quality, fire risks and extreme  
22 weather events.  
23 Provisioning services remain relatively uncovered by evidence in many relevant classes (4%  
24 coverage rate for “biotic” services, Figure 4), such as for instance “Fibres and other materials  
25 from cultivated plants, fungi, algae and bacteria for direct use or processing (excluding genetic  
26 materials)” (1.1.1.2), “Animals reared for nutritional purposes” (1.1.3.1). The available results  
27 within provisioning services are narrowly focused on crop-yield or grassland/forage-productivity  
28 metrics, typically at plot or field scales for a limited number of main crops (see supplementary  
29 Figures), neglecting the broader spectrum of products and services that agroforestry systems may  
30 provide (e.g. timber, fruit, essential oils, etc.).  
31 Furthermore, cultural services (both Biotic and Abiotic) have been entirely overlooked in  
32 published meta-analyses on agroforestry. This represents a critical void, as agroforestry systems  
33 often hold significant social, aesthetic, recreational, and spiritual value, which are crucial for



1 holistic sustainability assessments and might often be crucial to enhance the level of uptake and  
2 economic success of agroforestry systems. The absence of evidence in this domain underscores a  
3 need for research methodologies that can effectively capture these less tangible, yet profoundly  
4 important, benefits.  
5



6  
7 Figure 4 – Graphical glance of how current evidence reported in meta-analyses cover the full list of CICES classes  
8 (4-digits code, e.g. 1.1.1.1 - Cultivated terrestrial plants grown for nutritional purposes). Sectors of the pie-chart  
9 represent CICES Divisions (indicated with the corresponding 2-digits code, e.g. 1.1 - Biomass), and grouped by dotted  
10 lines into CICES Sections (1-digit code, e.g. 1 - Provisioning (biotic/biophysical). For each Section or Division, the  
11 figures between brackets report the coverage rate (as ratio and as percentage and represented with blue color scale) of  
12 classes covered by evidence. Knowledge gaps across the CICES classification are shown as pie-chart sectors in grey  
13 color. Supplementary Table 6 reports the list of specific CICES sections, divisions, groups and classes covered by  
14 results of meta-analyses.  
15

## 16 Quality assessment of the meta-analyses

17 The methodological quality of MAs was assessed for 74 combinations of practice-impact (Figure  
18 5A). Our evaluation of the quality revealed that the majority of papers reported on the procedure

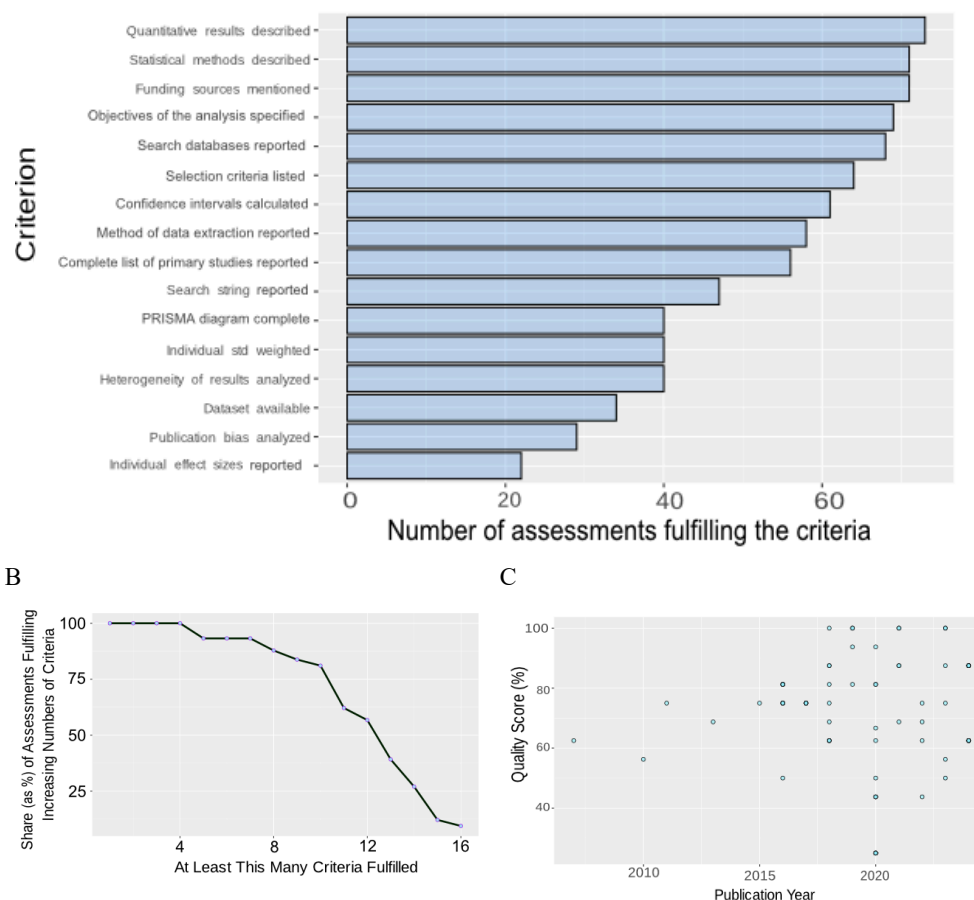


1 of data search and selection and on funding sources. While statistical methods are described in  
2 most of the assessments, a correct reporting of MA-statistics, such as reporting and application of  
3 individual effect sizes, weighting of studies and assessment of the heterogeneity of results is  
4 neglected in around half of the studies (Figure 5A). Only 40 assessments reported consequently  
5 the details of the selection process according to the PRISMA statement. Importantly, substantial  
6 progress should be made in the communication of a retrievable list of included primary studies  
7 (e.g. including DOIs), as around 1 out of three MAs do not publish a consistent list. Even more,  
8 the primary dataset is not available for nearly 2 out of 3 MAs. The assessment of the publication  
9 bias and the reporting of individual effect sizes were the least fulfilled criteria (with 30 and 22 out  
10 of 74 assessments).

11 Figure 5B shows that only 6 assessments (8%) considered fulfilled all 16 quality criteria and  
12 around 80% of assessments met at least 8 criteria. All assessments fulfill at least 4 out of 16  
13 criteria, while about 93% fulfill at least 7 criteria. The curve shows a steep decline after meeting a  
14 quality threshold of 10 out of 16 criteria. These visualizations reveal that while most MAs meet  
15 basic reporting standards, there's significant room for improvement in more rigorous criteria like  
16 individual effect sizes, dataset availability, and publication bias analysis.

17 Between 2015 and 2024 the number of MAs reporting on agroforestry increased consistently  
18 (Figure 5C). This increase over time has, however, been accompanied by a non-homogeneous  
19 increase in quality level (Figure 5C). While the average quality of the MAs increased over time,  
20 some MAs with lower quality (less than 50 % of criteria met) were also published in the most  
21 recent years.

A



1 Figure 5 – Distribution of quality assessments performed on each selected meta-analysis reporting on one or more  
2 impact categories ( $n=74$ ). A) Number of assessments fulfilling each of the 16 quality criteria; B) Share of assessments  
3 fulfilling an increasing number of criteria; and C) distribution of quality scores (% of fulfilled criteria) over time  
4 (publication year).

5 No statistical significant differences in quality scores was detected across impact categories by  
6 the application of ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis test ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Supplementary Figure 6A). It  
7 should be noted, though, that the number of assessments per impact category is rather low,  
8 leading to relatively high standard deviations.

#### 9 Primary literature map

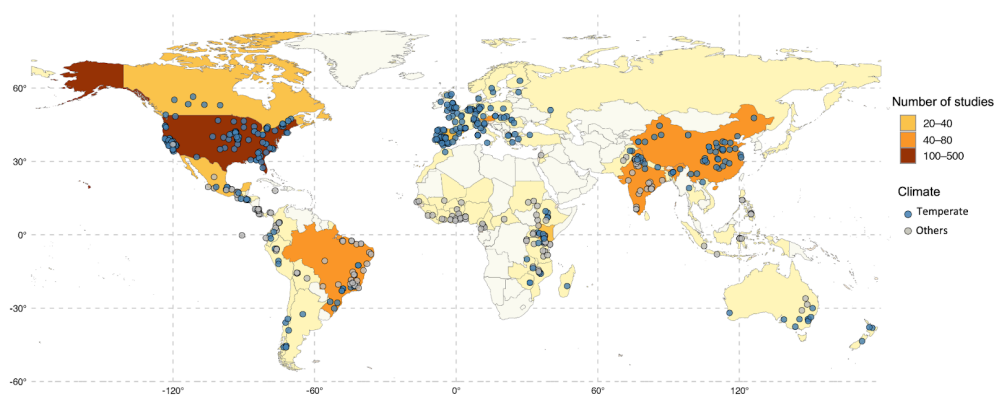
10 In total, we collected 2066 references, of which 161 were not processable (lack of sufficient  
11 information, such as doi code or title) and 1905 were retrieved using our workflow querying the

16 A





1 B



2

3 Figure 6 - Primary literature studies map (whole dataset obtained from the selected 42 meta-analyses, including  
4 temperate and non-temperate studies). (A) Accumulation over time and overlap of primary studies across the 42  
5 meta-analyses; The size of the dots represent the number of shared primary literature papers, i.e. in common for each  
6 pair of MAs. (B) Global map showing GPS coordinates extracted from primary studies. Points on the map are marked  
7 using different colours and counted distinguishing between studies performed in temperate and non-temperate  
8 pedo-climatic conditions. Studies are counted per Country (represented with color scale).

## 9 Discussion

10 This synthesis aimed to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of meta-analytical  
11 evidence on the potentials of agroforestry to enhance ecosystem services, identifying  
12 well-researched areas as well as critical knowledge gaps requiring further investigation, with a  
13 specific focus on temperate pedo-climates. Our findings offer a robust evidence map for  
14 policymakers and researchers, guiding future efforts to strengthen the understanding and  
15 implementation of agroforestry. Our analysis reveals that temperate agroforestry systems  
16 demonstrate significant potential to enhance several key ecosystem services, particularly in the  
17 realms of soil health and carbon sequestration.

18 However, the consistency of positive effects is not universal. Furthermore, a considerable portion  
19 of findings across various ES or impact categories, especially for temperate-only assessments,  
20 were either non-significant or lacked formal statistical testing (grey segments in Figure 1, 2, and  
21 3). This indicates that while many studies exist, their conclusions are not always robustly  
22 established, or the effects are highly context-dependent.

23 Provisioning services through agricultural productivity outcomes exhibit relatively high  
24 variability. Grassland production under silvopastoral systems, for instance, shows a mix of  
25 significantly positive, negative, and non-significant results, while crop yield under silvoarable



1 systems includes both significantly negative and non-significant findings reported in the MAs  
2 (Figure 2). It's crucial to note that the the indicators used to quantify provisioning services linked  
3 to agricultural production are often limited exclusively to crop or grass yields, overlooking the  
4 broader system productivity that includes tree yields or overall Land Equivalent Ratio (LER)  
5 (Dupraz et al., 2018; Pent, 2020). Many MAs do not explicitly define how agroforestry system  
6 boundaries are considered for productivity metrics (e.g., yield per hectare of cropped area vs. total  
7 agroforestry area), hindering consistent interpretation of "negative" impacts on specific crop  
8 yields. This highlights a significant knowledge gap in assessing whole agroforestry system  
9 productivity in the existing meta-analytical literature.

10 Agroforestry systems are distinguished by their multidimensional character, incorporating diverse  
11 components such as trees, crops, and animals. However, prevailing research methodologies  
12 frequently limit themselves to the measurement of one-dimensional effects, thereby overlooking  
13 the potential for comprehensive, multidimensional impact assessment. It is imperative to  
14 consider whether the extant research methodologies are capable of accurately and reliably  
15 capturing the complexity, diversity and long-term nature of agricultural systems. This issue was  
16 also raised by Douchamps et al. (2017). The authors reviewed models focusing on monitoring  
17 and evaluating the climate resilience of agriculture, and found that the models failed to assess  
18 'stability', 'transformation' and the topic's overall complexity.

19 *Are existing meta-analyses methodologically sound?*

20 Our assessment of methodological quality across 74 combinations of practice-impact revealed  
21 mixed results, with significant room for improvement, echoing findings by Beillouin et al. (2018)  
22 and Fohrafellner et al. (2023). While most MAs adequately reported on data search and selection  
23 procedures and funding sources, crucial aspects of rigorous systematic review were often  
24 neglected. Only 40 out of 74 assessments consistently reported selection details according to  
25 PRISMA statement guidelines (Page et al., 2021).

26 A major concern is the reporting and application of MA statistics, including the assessment of  
27 heterogeneity and robust publication bias analyses. Furthermore, accessibility and transparency of  
28 underlying data remain a challenge. Approximately one-third of MAs failed to provide a  
29 retrievable list of included primary studies (e.g., with DOIs), and nearly two-thirds did not make  
30 their primary datasets available. This lack of transparency contravenes FAIR data principles and  
31 compromises the replicability and reusability of these valuable syntheses (Figure 5A).



1 While the number of MAs on agroforestry has consistently increased between 2015 and 2024  
2 (Figure 1), the improvement in quality has been non-homogeneous. The average quality has risen  
3 over time, but some MAs with very low quality (less than 50% of criteria met) were still  
4 published in recent years (Figure 5C). This suggests a need for stricter adherence to  
5 methodological standards in evidence synthesis, as also highlighted by Schievano et al. (2024), to  
6 ensure robust and credible conclusions that can effectively inform policy and practice.

7 *What critical knowledge gaps limit our understanding of agroforestry in temperate regions?*

8 Our evidence mapping exercise revealed several significant and pressing knowledge gaps that  
9 limit a comprehensive understanding of agroforestry's potential in temperate regions.

10 Certain types of agroforestry systems (especially the most diversified) are underrepresented.

11 While silvopastoral systems (e.g. orchard grazing) and silvoarable systems (e.g. alley cropping)  
12 are well-studied (Castle et al., 2022), there is a notable scarcity of meta-analytical evidence for  
13 agro-silvopastoral systems and improved fallows. Hedge systems and other types of woody  
14 features also receive comparatively limited academic attention, despite their recognized potential  
15 (Figure 2, Figure 3). This imbalance restricts our ability to provide a holistic assessment of  
16 agroforestry's benefits across its diverse forms.

17 A critical void exists in the assessment of socio-cultural and cultural ecosystem services (ESS)  
18 provided by agroforestry. As highlighted in Figure 4, cultural services (both Biotic and Abiotic)  
19 are entirely overlooked in the published meta-analyses. This aligns with findings by Köthke et al.  
20 (2022) and represents a significant limitation, as agroforestry systems often hold profound social,  
21 aesthetic, recreational, and spiritual value that are crucial for holistic sustainability assessments  
22 and public acceptance.

23 Despite the increasing concerns about water availability, quality, and extreme weather events, our  
24 study revealed a significant lack of meta-analytical information regarding the impact of  
25 agroforestry on water balances and hydrological cycles. The CICES classification clearly shows  
26 "water conditions" as underrepresented, and critical classes like "Control of wind erosion rates,"  
27 "Regulation of runoff and base flows," and "Regulation of temperature and humidity" remain  
28 either uncovered or underrepresented (Figure 4).

29 Agroforestry systems are distinguished by their multidimensional character, incorporating diverse  
30 components such as trees, crops, and animals. However, prevailing research methodologies, as  
31 synthesized in MAs, frequently limit themselves to the measurement of one-dimensional effects.  
32 This oversight hinders the potential for comprehensive, multidimensional impact assessment, as



1 also raised by Douchamps et al. (2017), regarding the assessment of climate resilience. There is  
2 a need for methodologies capable of capturing the complexity, diversity, and long-term nature of  
3 these integrated systems.

#### 4 *Overlap in primary literature and geographical coverage*

5 Our review found considerable overlap (Figure 6A) in the primary literature across different  
6 meta-analyses, particularly for widely studied practices like alley cropping. While new primary  
7 studies are constantly being added to upcoming meta-analyses, indicating an ongoing expansion  
8 of the evidence base, this overlap suggests a need for more diverse primary research to explore  
9 novel aspects of agroforestry impacts. A certain degree of overlap is unavoidable, and therefore  
10 needs to be assessed when comparing and combining different MAs. MAs focusing on narrower  
11 indicators, however, often show lower overlap, suggesting a broad and not yet sufficiently  
12 explored research field where individual MAs specialize in different aspects or regions. The  
13 geographical distribution of primary studies included in MAs reveals an uneven picture (Figure  
14 6B). While our review specifically focused on MAs including temperate regions, the global map  
15 highlights that much of the research is still concentrated in North America (mainly USA), Europe,  
16 and China. This uneven distribution limits our understanding of agroforestry's potential across  
17 diverse temperate climatic conditions and management contexts, particularly in other temperate  
18 zones.

#### 19 *Implications for temperate pedo-climates*

20 The current evidence map, while comprehensive for meta-analytical syntheses, underscores the  
21 unique challenges and opportunities for agroforestry in temperate pedo-climates. The generally  
22 positive evidence for soil health and carbon sequestration provides a strong foundation for  
23 promoting agroforestry in these regions as a climate change mitigation and adaptation strategy.  
24 However, the identified knowledge gaps – particularly the underrepresentation of certain  
25 practices, the scarcity of long-term studies, and the neglect of socio-cultural and water-related  
26 impacts – are critical for optimizing agroforestry adoption and policy formulation in temperate  
27 zones. Policy recommendations must consider not just ecological benefits but also the economic  
28 viability (profitability studies are lacking for high-income countries, Castle et al., 2022) and  
29 social acceptance of these systems.

#### 30 *Recommendations for future research and policies*

31 This study's strength lies in its comprehensive review of 42 meta-analyses, following a rigorous  
32 protocol aligned with the PRISMA statement and Cochrane Handbook guidelines. It provides a



1 detailed classification of outcomes against the CICES framework and includes a quality  
2 assessment of the MAs themselves. A limitation of this study is surely that it only includes  
3 meta-analytical evidence. However, we provide here (see Supplementary materials) the list of  
4 references of all primary studies that were selected by these MAs. We strongly encourage the  
5 scientific community to engage in the reconstruction of the literature base, ideally using a  
6 common and standardized dataset. In line with FAIR principles, the authors of these 42 MAs  
7 should agree in sharing the primary data and make an effort in merging their structured datasets.  
8 Henceforth, endeavours in the realm of research should concentrate on two primary objectives.  
9 Firstly, they should strive to bridge the existing lacunae in our understanding of hedgerow and  
10 silvopastoral systems. Secondly, they should direct their efforts towards the development of novel  
11 methodologies that can effectively encapsulate the multifaceted nature of agroforestry, thereby  
12 ensuring that its comprehensive value is duly recognised.  
13 The predominantly favourable image of agroforestry systems that has been obtained through this  
14 study can assist policy-makers and practitioners in their present efforts. However, the knowledge  
15 gaps identified should encourage policymakers to develop new explicit (support) systems and  
16 thus motivate practitioners to promote more and new agroforestry systems. This will expand our  
17 knowledge and ensure that our agriculture is fit for the future and fit for climate change.  
18  
19



## 1 Declaration of generative AI and AI-assisted

## 2 technologies in the writing process.

3 During the preparation of this work the author(s) used Google AI studio in order to re-phrase and  
4 improve readability of sentences. After using this tool/service, the author(s) reviewed and edited  
5 the content as needed and take full responsibility.

## 6 Data statement

7 All data are available in the JRC-Farming Practices Data collection (European Commission -  
8 Joint Research Center, 2025).

## 9 Authors' contributions

10 Please see table reported in the supporting materials.

11

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## 1 Acknowledgement

2 The present paper is based on the JRC-Farming-Practices dataset (2023 version), which has been  
3 compiled in the frame of an Administrative Arrangement entitled “Integrated modelling platform  
4 for agro-economic commodity and policy analysis (IMAP4AGRI)” between DG Agriculture and  
5 Rural Development (DG AGRI) and DG Joint Research Centre (DG JRC), providing the funding  
6 of the work. David Makowski was partly funded by the project CLAND (French Research  
7 Agency, 16-ANR-0003). Giovanni Tamburini was partly funded by the Italian Agritech National  
8 Research Center (PIANO NAZIONALE DI RIPRESA E RESILIENZA (PNRR) – MISSIONE 4  
9 COMPONENTE 2, INVESTIMENTO 1.4 – D.D. 1032 17/06/2022, CN00000022). Sonja Kay  
10 and Camille Rubeaud were supported by the DigitAF project (Grant Agreement N° 101059794),  
11 co-funded by the European Commission, European Research Agency, within the Horizon Europe  
12 programme, Cluster 6: “Food, bioeconomy, natural resources, agriculture and environment”.