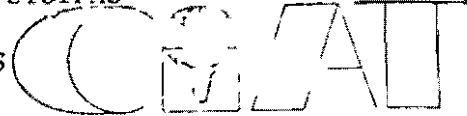




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POTENTIAL OF SILVOPASTORAL SYSTEMS

IN THE RAIN FORESTS



BIBLIOTECA

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ABSTRACT

Grazing animals, mainly cattle and sheep are important components of the agricultural production systems in the rain forest areas. Dwarf sheep and goat are common in the humid zone of Africa, as a source of meat and income. Carabao (water buffalo) and cattle are the main draft force in crop (mainly rice) production systems in Southeast Asia, where grazing under plantations for beef production is also common. Given the high cattle population and high levels of demand for beef and milk in tropical America, ranching for cattle production in the humid tropics has been expanding in the Brazilian Amazon and in Central America. Also small farmers after clearing the forest for crop production move into mixed farming systems incorporating cattle as a way of saving and income generation. The main problem of cattle ranching and mixed farming in the rain forest areas is the lack of sustainability of the production systems. Open pastures with the existing technology rapidly degrade increasing pressure for further deforestation.

715923

16 JUN 1994

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June, 1989

Paper presented during the Symposium on Agroforestry Land Use Systems of the last ASA Meetings in Anaheim

1 The paper discusses the possibilities and potential of integrated  
2 (tree-pasture) systems in the rain forests as means of developing  
3 sustainable production systems. Examples of spontaneous low stocking  
4 silvopastoral (grazed tree plantations) systems occurring in Southeast Asia  
5 as well as experiences with multipurpose trees (fence-shade-crop-fodder) in  
6 tropical America are presented.

7

8 Research results on the interaction between trees and pastures, trees and  
9 grazing animals in silvopastoral systems, and about the shade tolerance of  
10 grasses and legumes, are presented.

11

12 The socioeconomic and biological constraints for the development of  
13 integrated silvopastoral systems are discussed. Finally, suggestions for  
14 future research are presented.

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

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3 Deforestation and environmental degradation, of major concern in the rain  
4 forests, are the result of logging, shifting cultivation, plantation  
5 agriculture, and cattle raising. The initial boost in soil fertility  
6 following slash and burn is rapidly lost when original vegetation is not  
7 replaced by production systems capable of nutrient recycling. Degradation,  
8 including run-off, leaching, and soil erosion, is the common feature of  
9 land use in the humid tropics when population pressures increase.

10

11 Cattle raising is the predominant production system in the disturbed  
12 lands of the Central American rain forest and the Amazon. Cattle in  
13 Southeast Asia are mostly used as draft animals in intensive agriculture.  
14 In the humid belt of Africa, cattle are not important due to the disease  
15 tripanosomiasis, sheep and goats are the most common animals in the  
16 predominant shifting cultivation systems.

17

18 The main forces inducing deforestation and degradation are of a  
19 socioeconomic nature. The rain forests of Africa are cleared mostly for  
20 subsistence agriculture. The Southeast Asian rain forests are also being  
21 cleared for subsistence agriculture and tree plantation development. In  
22 Latin America, settlers, normally landless rural people, move into rain  
23 forest areas in an attempt to leave poverty behind. Because of poor land  
24 resources and the ephemeral increase in soil fertility occurring after  
25 clearing and burning of the original biomass, farmers (settlers) often  
26 degrade the environment and then move to open more virgin forest or to  
27 abandon the area. The abandoned degraded lands are sold to remaining

1 successful settlers or to capital investors. These second-hand farmers are  
2 the ones establishing pastures, and it is in this way that land is  
3 consolidated in medium-sized properties for cattle raising. Examples of  
4 this occur in Caquetá, Colombia, Pucallpa, Peru, Guácimo-Guápiles, Costa  
5 Rica, and Azuero, Panama, in all of which dual-purpose cattle production  
6 systems (beef and milk) are being developed and integrated with crops and  
7 trees in varying proportions. These semi-intensive Central American and  
8 Andean Amazonian integrated production systems are small to medium (20-300  
9 ha) in size. On the other hand, extensive, large-sized cattle ranching has  
10 developed in the Brazilian Amazon as a result of subsidies and incentives  
11 given by government to induce large enterprises to invest in the region  
12 (SUDAM, 1983). These fiscal incentives, initiated during the sixties, have  
13 fortunately now been stopped since the late seventies.

14  
15 Lack of appropriate technology for intensification of land use and  
16 conservation of natural resources, together with inadequate national  
17 development policies, are the main forces behind the ever increasing  
18 deforestation and degradation in Africa, Southeast Asia, and Latin America.  
19 This ecosystem degradation and lack of sustainability of prevailing  
20 production systems is a major challenge for research.

21  
22 This review discusses the possibilities and potential of integrated  
23 silvopastoral systems for sustainable production in disturbed rain forest  
24 lands.

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# 1 THE ROLES OF SILVOPASTORAL SYSTEMS IN THE RAIN FORESTS

## 3 1 Production systems in relation to population density

4  
5 To a large extent, population density is the major determining factor  
6 in the development of agricultural production systems In Figure 1,  
7 changes in management intensification of forest, of agriculture, and of  
8 animal production systems are shown in relation to human population  
9 intensity When low population density occurs, the predominant production  
10 systems are gathering and long-fallow shifting cultivation, together with  
11 incipient extensive ranching for beef production When road infrastructure  
12 is available, timber extraction may also occur Under intermediate  
13 population densities, an intensification of resource management occurs,  
14 with timber extraction moving into reforestation and forest management,  
15 while shifting cultivation is forced into shorter fallows multipurpose  
16 trees become important and beef production systems move into dual-purpose  
17 cattle production systems When high population densities occur, the  
18 original forest practically disappears, trees are mostly in plantations  
19 (industrial products and timber), and crop production systems, greatly  
20 expanded in area, become high-input specialized systems Under these  
21 conditions, dual-purpose cattle systems decrease in relevance, yielding to  
22 specialized milk production ones

23  
24 This relation between intensification of land use and population  
25 density provides a perspective of the dynamics of the production systems  
26 Many areas of the humid tropics, depending on distance to markets and  
27 infrastructure, have different population densities at the microregional

1 level (e g , around cities) This unevenness in population density  
2 determines the predominant production systems For example, in the Amazon  
3 of Brazil, in regions closer to cities such as Belém, Manaus, and Porto  
4 Velho, medium to high population densities occur As a result, beef cattle  
5 production systems are shifting into dual-purpose production, slash and  
6 burn agriculture is no longer feasible due to short fallows, and  
7 plantations and multipurpose trees are becoming important as virgin forest  
8 area is reduced Simultaneously, in more distant Amazon areas, population  
9 density is still very low and gathering of products (such as Brazil nuts)  
10 and rubber tapping, etc , occur along with extensive cattle ranching More  
11 than 85% of the Brazilian Amazon is still untouched, harboring native  
12 ethnic groups under very low population densities

13  
14 Integration of trees, crops, and pastures is most likely to occur when  
15 intensification is spurred by higher population densities

## 16 17 2 Potential roles of trees

18  
19 It is important to visualize the different roles of trees at two  
20 levels the farm level and the regional or global ecosystem level Farmers  
21 hardly ever adopt a technology for its potential contribution to the  
22 ecosystem level New technologies based on the use of trees and pastures  
23 must be made attractive to farmers for their contribution to potential  
24 profit and management objectives On the other hand, awareness by  
25 decision-makers of potential benefits at regional levels should lead to  
26 policies fostering the adoption of silvopastoral systems

27

1 Roles at farm level

2

3 At the farm level, the potential roles of trees in silvopastoral  
4 systems are

5 Living fence Fencing in semi-intensive and intensive production  
6 systems is extremely important, and its establishment and maintenance  
7 are expensive. By reducing maintenance costs, living fences could be  
8 adoptable by farmers

9

10 Forage The role of forage trees in rain forest areas with no or  
11 reduced dry seasons is of little importance. However, the humid  
12 tropics include large areas with a definite three- to four-month dry  
13 season. During these periods, farmers may face shortages of  
14 high-quality feed. The possibility of utilizing tree foliage to  
15 supplement feeding and grazing during these dry periods may be  
16 important for farmers. Leucaena, Gliricidia, and Erythrina are some  
17 known possibilities for areas with higher fertility soils

18

19 Shade In the process of intensification of cattle production, the  
20 systems shift from beef ranching into more intensive dual-purpose  
21 ones. This shift occurs together with increases in European blood in  
22 crossbred animals in order to increase milk production potential.  
23 These more efficient animals will require lower temperatures in the  
24 paddock area. Thus, trees providing shade for this type of animal  
25 might be an essential component

26

27

1 Nitrogen fixation Nitrogen and phosphorus, in the predominantly acid  
2 soils of the humid tropics, are the most important nutrients for  
3 sustainability of production systems As inorganic sources are  
4 expensive, efficient N-fixing herbaceous and tree legumes could be  
5 adopted

6  
7 Income In addition, the benefits of trees and pastures in these  
8 systems should be measurable in economic terms Technologies  
9 contributing to savings in the use of inputs, increased productivity  
10 of land and animals, and reduced maintenance costs of the system are  
11 the ones to be adopted Timber, industrial and fruit trees are very  
12 important to generate additional income in these systems

13  
14 Roles at the regional-global (ecosystem) level

15  
16 As mentioned earlier, important benefits of the integration of trees  
17 and pastures may not be directly relevant to farmers However, they are  
18 extremely important for the conservation of land resources and the  
19 environment as a whole Politicians and decision-makers at the national  
20 and international level should be fully aware of these potential roles

21  
22 Soil conservation Utilizing deep-rooted adapted trees in association  
23 with high cover pastures effective in recycling nutrients can play the  
24 important role of preventing soil erosion in hilly areas in the humid  
25 tropics However, when slopes are steepest and in watershed areas,  
26 reforestation is probably the best alternative

27



1 Water regulation Trees and pastures can contribute to reduction in  
2 run-off by improving vegetation cover, as well as structure and  
3 permeability of soils, through profuse and deep rooting. These  
4 improved covers will also contribute to higher evapotranspiration,  
5 thus improving the hydrologic balance in the ecosystem and thereby  
6 minimizing waterlogging and flooding in the lower parts of the  
7 watershed, as well as tapping water and nutrients from deep in the  
8 soil profile during the dry season.

9  
10 Capture of CO<sub>2</sub> At the global level, the greenhouse effect is an  
11 important consideration for planting trees in association with  
12 pastures in the humid regions of the world. Higher biomass vegetation  
13 will capture CO<sub>2</sub>, thus compensating for imbalances caused by the  
14 release of CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere under deforestation.

15  
16 Albedo The color and reflective power (the fraction of the incident  
17 light of the electromagnetic radiation that is reflected by the  
18 surface of plants) of vegetation is different depending on the  
19 predominant species in the biomass. Open grass pastures tend to be  
20 yellow-green, when N fixing herbaceous and tree legumes are included,  
21 the albedo of the pasture becomes more blue-green, improving its  
22 capacity to capture solar energy and heat. This will greatly  
23 contribute to a better balance of air temperature at the ecosystem  
24 level.

25  
26 Economic growth If trees and pastures are effectively contributing  
27 to farmers' income, the ensuing diversification in economic growth

1 could increase regional sustainability Regional wealth will trigger  
2 the development of infrastructure and a better standard of living for  
3 the society

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## 1 SOME EXAMPLES OF SPONTANEOUS SILVOPASTORAL SYSTEMS

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3 On Hainan Island, China, rubber plantations are grazed Othocloa nodosa is  
4 the predominant grass which grows native under the trees. Grazing is done  
5 to produce beef as a plantation byproduct, and manure is also moved close  
6 to the trees manually to replace chemical fertilization. On Malaysian  
7 rubber plantations, families of laborers, mainly Indian in origin, own  
8 crossbred cattle. These cattle utilize the native grassland (mostly  
9 Axonopus spp and Paspalum spp ) growing under the trees in the plantation  
10 for milk production. Grazing is supplemented with cut-and-carry. Elephant  
11 grass (Pennisetum purpureum) Grazers return faeces into the forage crops  
12 systems. Also in Malaysia, young rubber plantations are grazed by sheep,  
13 to assist with weed control and to obtain extra income from mutton. In  
14 Chumphong, Thailand, coconut plantations are also grazed by cattle to  
15 utilize the native grasslands that spontaneously occur. These grasslands,  
16 mostly made up of Axonopus compressus and Paspalum conjugatum, are utilized  
17 to produce beef, as extra income to small- to medium-sized copra farmers.

18

19 Production systems in Latin America are different and integration is  
20 less obvious. However, some interesting cases also occur. In Napo,  
21 Ecuador, small-sized farming systems include coffee and subsistence crops  
22 in shifting cultivation and pastures based on Brachiaria humidicola to  
23 reduce the need for labor in weed control. Cattle are used for beef  
24 production and as a savings mechanism in an inflationary economy. In Rio  
25 Branco, Acre, Brazil, in predominant Alfisols, Brazil nut (Castaña du Pará)  
26 is a native tree present in the original forest. When clearing the area,  
27 farmers protect these trees from clearing and burning, establishing crop

1 and pastures around the trees In this way, a valuable tree crop  
2 contributes to the economy of the beef cattle production system In  
3 Central America and southern tropical Mexico, cattle production systems on  
4 moderately acid soils commonly use living fences of leguminous multipurpose  
5 nitrogen-fixing trees such as Gliricidia sepium and Frythrina spp In this  
6 way, fence maintenance cost is reduced, some shade for animals is provided,  
7 and a source of feed is available for use during the dry season

8  
9 These are a few examples of naturally occurring silvopastoral systems  
10 in the humid tropics As can be realized, totally integrated systems occur  
11 mostly in Southeast Asia, where cattle and small ruminants are a byproduct  
12 of plantations By contrast, in Latin America, trees are used mostly in  
13 support of the predominant cattle industry (fence, forage, shade, nitrogen  
14 fixation) or as a byproduct of the predominantly cattle-producing systems

## 1 RESEARCH RESULTS

2

3 The behavior of silvopastoral systems in a given ecological environment is  
4 mainly affected by interactions among their three components trees,  
5 pastures, and animals. The great majority of information available deals  
6 with relationships between two of the three components. Let us then  
7 analyze interactions between trees and pastures first, followed by those  
8 between trees and grazing management, as well as the shading effect on  
9 pasture species.

10

11 1 Interaction of trees and forage plants

12

13 Peck (1988) suggested Gliricidia sepium, Erythrina spp, Jathopa  
14 caracas, and Euphorbia cotinifolia as potential living fence-post species,  
15 based on their capacity to root from stakes. As shown in Table 1, some of  
16 these species, such as Erythrina poeppigiana, could also improve the crude  
17 protein content of grasses underneath, without reducing their dry matter  
18 yields (Daccarett and Blydenstein, 1968). On the other hand, grasses and  
19 legumes as cover crops in plantations contribute to the recycling of  
20 nutrients in the system. Chee Yan Kuan (1981) reported about 300 kg of N,  
21 20 kg of P, 100 kg of K, and 20 kg of Mg being recycled by a legume mix  
22 over five years in a young rubber plantation. This was by far greater than  
23 the recycling capacity of the native grassland made up of Axonopus  
24 compressus, Paspalum conjugatum, or the indigenous weed bushes (Table 2).  
25 Table 3 presents the effect of three different covers on the growth of  
26 rubber trees after five years. Imperata cylindrica does not contribute to  
27 recycling of nutrients and probably competes with the trees, resulting in

1 smaller trees than those that have the cover of Axonopus compressus and  
2 Paspalum conjugatum, or the legume mix, regardless of soil type

3

4 In Sri Lanka, Ferdinandez (1972) reported the effect of three improved  
5 grasses on coconut yield, compared with the weeds that naturally grow under  
6 the trees (Figure 2) Brachiaria milliformis and Brachiaria brizantha  
7 pastures favor productivity over time of the coconut plantation, while  
8 Panicum maximum, with higher soil nutrient demands, competes with the  
9 trees, thus reducing coconut yields

10

11 Figure 3 shows the dynamics of dry matter on offer in different sown  
12 and native species grazed with two beasts/ha, under a five-year- old oil  
13 palm plantation The rapid decline of the sown species, Stylosanthes  
14 guianensis and common Guinea grass (P maximum), contrasts with the  
15 increase and recovery of the native shade-tolerant grass Axonopus  
16 compressus Peng and Ibrahim (Table 4) study the dry matter yield of  
17 separate grasses under a closed canopy of oil palm plantation As can be  
18 seen, yields are low compared with the potential yield of these grasses in  
19 open environments, however, some of the species, such as Axonopus  
20 compressus, Brachiaria decumbens, Panicum maximum, and Figure 2  
21 Paspalum conjugatum, are able to produce more than Cynodon plectostachyus  
22 and Setaria sphacelata, which are strongly affected by shading

23

#### 24 Interaction of trees and grazing management

25

26 The relationship between tree growth/yield and grazing management

27

1 tends to indicate that the higher the stocking rate the lower the effect of  
2 grazing on adjacent trees

3  
4 The level of stocking rate is known to be inversely related to animal  
5 performance. However, Chen et al (1978) reported that high stocking rates  
6 tend to favor tree productivity. This can be explained by the effect of  
7 grazing on reducing root systems as well as water and nutrient competition  
8 of grasses in the sward (Table 5)

9  
10 Reynolds (1981) conducted a grazing trial under coconuts in Western  
11 Samoa, including different improved grasses and the local grassland, grazed  
12 with a stocking rate of 2.5 steers/ha. His results showed that animal  
13 production from improved pastures more than doubled the productivity of the  
14 local grassland, without a major change in coconut yields. However, some  
15 grasses reduced coconut yields slightly more than others (Table 6)

16  
17 Rika et al (1981) reported results from a grazing trial comparing  
18 different stocking rates on sown Brachiaria decumbens associated with  
19 Centrosema pubescens pastures, along with native grasses, in terms of  
20 animal production in relation to the local feeding system which utilized  
21 cut-and-carry native grassland materials supplemented with banana stems and  
22 coconut leaves. This experiment also compared the effect of the improved  
23 pasture with that of the ungrazed plantation native grassland in terms of  
24 coconut yields. The results of this trial are presented in Table 7, where  
25 liveweight gains on the improved grass-legume pasture are higher than the  
26 ones obtained with the local feeding system. Coconut yields were also

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TECA

1 higher than those obtained with the ungrazed native grassland Higher  
2 liveweight gains were obtained with lower stocking rates, and higher  
3 coconut yields with higher stocking rates

4  
5 In the Solomon Islands, Watson and Whiteman (1981) evaluated different  
6 stocking rates on an improved pasture made up of a mixture of three  
7 Brachiaria spp , together with the legume cocktail of Centrosema pubescens,  
8 Kudzu, and Stylosanthes guianensis This pasture was compared with the  
9 naturalized grassland made up of Axonopus compressus, Paspalum conjugatum,  
10 Centrosema pubescens, Mimosa pudica, and Calopogonium mucunoides A  
11 three-year average of liveweight gains and coconut yields for the different  
12 stocking rates in the two contrasting pastures is presented in Table 8 It  
13 should be noted that, during the experimental period, the sown pasture  
14 degraded to a dominance of the native species The naturalized sward gave  
15 significantly higher liveweight gains and better coconut yields

16  
17 The scant data available would suggest that improved pastures could in  
18 general benefit tree growth, but that will depend on the type of pasture  
19 species used and grazing management applied The presence of trees could  
20 improve the quality of the adjacent pasture But shade will probably be  
21 one of the most important factors in the interaction Different canopy  
22 structures and spatial arrangements of trees will affect the amount of  
23 light interference, while pasture plants show different degrees of  
24 tolerance to levels of sunlight interception

25

26

27



### Shading effect on pasture grasses and legumes

The effect of shading on pasture grasses and legumes was reported by Eriksen and Whitney (1982). Figure 4 shows the effect of increasing shade on dry matter yield of several pasture legumes. While Stylosanthes guianensis linearly reduced productivity under increasing levels of shade, Desmodium intortum and Centrosema pubescens showed better tolerance to the reduction of full sunlight. Figure 5 shows the effect of shading on dry matter yield of Panicum maximum, Brachiaria decumbens, and Brachiaria milliformis. Some degree of tolerance to shading was shown (0%-30% shade) by these grasses. This information is confirmed by Wilson and Wong (1982), who reported a positive response of Panicum maximum cultivar Green Panic to shade of up to 40% light interception. Figure 6 presents the results of Toledo and Fisher (1988) on the response of Andropogon gayanus to increasing levels of shading in total dry matter yield and in terms of root, stem, and leaf partitioning. This data confirms the capability of some C<sub>4</sub> grasses to respond to low levels of shading. But, this positive shade response of C<sub>4</sub> grasses is not yet well understood. In fact, Burton et al (1959) and Ludlow (1978) postulated that both growth and rate of photosynthesis of C<sub>4</sub> grasses are linearly reduced by shade. A possible explanation of these latter findings could be that the effect of interception of solar radiation on photosynthesis and transpiration rates were confounded, suggesting that higher photosynthetic efficiencies were obtained at slightly lower transpiration levels. Another possible explanation is that nitrogen levels in the tissues are increased with shade, implying that nitrogen content in leaves has an important effect on the efficiency of the plant photosynthetic system. In fact, Fleischer et

1 al (1984) reported an increase in nitrogen content of Panicum maximum with  
2 increasing levels of shade (Figure 7), corroborating the findings of  
3 Daccarett and Blydenstein (1968) reported earlier

4  
5 It is clear that variability exists among grasses and legumes in their  
6 capacity to tolerate shade It must be recognized, though, that most  
7 improved grasses in the tropics have been collected originally in open  
8 grassland environments (tropical savannas) This is the case with  
9 Hyparrhenia spp , Andropogon spp , Brachiaria spp , and Panicum spp  
10 However, some grasses, such as Axonopus compressus, Paspalum conjugatum,  
11 and Stenotaphrum secundatum, do grow in the wild in shaded environments

12  
13 Figure 8 shows data from Wong et al (1985) on the effect of shade on  
14 the cumulative dry matter yield of several grasses It is clear that  
15 Panicum maximum (common), Brachiaria decumbens, and Setaria sphacelata  
16 drastically reduced their productivity below 60% full sunlight In  
17 contrast, other grasses, such as Panicum maximum (Green Panic), tolerate  
18 higher levels of shading Axonopus compressus slightly increases  
19 productivity under shade, while Paspalum conjugatum is essentially  
20 insensitive to shading Similar work by Smith and Whiteman (1983) reported  
21 drastic reductions in yield of Brachiaria decumbens and some moderate  
22 decline in yield of Brachiaria milliformis and Paspalum conjugatum,  
23 contrasting with the more uniform performance of Axonopus compressus and  
24 Stenotaphrum secundatum grasses under shade The level of productivity  
25 potential of these grasses is lower than that of those which prefer full  
26 sunlight However, their competitiveness increases under shade (Figure 9)  
27 Winstead and Ward (1974) reported that Stenotaphrum secundatum does not

1 change its rate of net photosynthesis and dark respiration under shade In  
2 contrast with Cynodon dactylon (Table 9), this finding suggests that S  
3 secundatum might be a C<sub>3</sub> tropical grass CIAT collected about 40  
4 accessions of Axonopus spp , Paspalum spp , and Stenotaphrum secundatum  
5 under shaded environments in Southeast Asia, Africa, and Latin America  
6 These collections were evaluated in Quilichao by Toledo et al (1989) under  
7 open and shaded environments Some of the materials were not able to  
8 survive during the dry season under full sunlight, others reduced yields  
9 under open environments, and some were essentially insensitive to shade  
10 Variability exists within species and among them The most promising  
11 species from which to select shade-tolerant material were Axonopus  
12 compressus, Paspalum conjugatum, and Stenotaphrum secundatum It was found  
13 that their dry season performance depend on the depth of their rooting  
14 systems  
15  
16 Axonopus compressus was found to be the grass with the shallowest root  
17 system which enable them to utilize superficial water under shade without  
18 competing with trees for deep water and, consequently, it is drastically  
19 affected during the dry period in open environments Other shade tolerant  
20 grasses such as Paspalum conjugatum and Stenotaphrum secundatum have  
21 somewhat deeper root systems, which allow them to also perform well in the  
22 open Table 10 shows the positive effect of shading on root length at  
23 different depths of the soil profile in Axonopus compressus and the  
24 nonsignificant effect of shading in root development of Paspalum conjugatum  
25 and Stenotaphrum secundatum This work of Toledo et al (1989) concluded  
26 with the selection of a few accessions from these three species that have  
27 potential for association on tree plantations

1 RESEARCH NEEDS

2  
3 The previously selected results summarize studies made on the integration  
4 of trees and pastures in the humid tropics. It should be recognized that,  
5 so far, this integration is limited to occur only in specific environmental  
6 and farming conditions. It should also be recognized that the integration  
7 of silvopastoral systems has an important potential role for the  
8 development of semi-intensive production systems of higher yield and  
9 sustainability for already deforested areas of the rain forests. However,  
10 for the expansion of silvopastoral systems, several constraints of a  
11 biological and socioeconomic nature must be overcome.

12  
13 Biological constraints

14  
15 This subject is more easily presented in components. Let us first  
16 look at biological constraints for pasture species. Given the promising  
17 results of research activities of the RIEPT (International Tropical  
18 Pastures Evaluation Network) and CIAT's Tropical Pastures Program for the  
19 development of acid-tolerant pasture legumes and grasses, the adaptation of  
20 pasture species to shade and compatibility with trees appear to be the most  
21 important biological constraints. Even though the principles of grazing in  
22 open areas apply directly to shaded environments, the levels of intensity  
23 of grazing and days of utilization and rest will certainly require  
24 adjustments for the efficient utilization of the swards under tree  
25 canopies.

26

27

1 The main biological constraint for tree species is adaptation to poor,  
2 acid soils At present grasses and legumes are becoming available for  
3 poor, acid soils, however, there are no commercial trees available for the  
4 typical Oxisols and Ultisols that predominate in rain forest environments  
5 Pictures 5 and 6, taken the same day, show Gliricidia sepium planted on the  
6 same date in two contrasting soils, a fertile Vertisol on the left and an  
7 Ultisol on the right Promising shrub species, such as Cratylia floribunda  
8 and Flemingia macrophila, shows better adaptation to acid poor soils  
9 Other important constraints for the integration of tree species are the  
10 slowness of establishment from seed and the difficulties of rooting from  
11 stakes for the easy establishment of trees and early grazing of pastures  
12 Finally, a technical constraint that is also important is the lack of  
13 knowledge about optimum densities and grazing management of plantations  
14 when used with pasture covers for animal production

15

#### 16 Socioeconomic constraints

17

18 Technologies are not adopted if the socioeconomic environment is not  
19 appropriate and their use is not attractive to farmers In Latin America,  
20 pasture and cattle production have essentially no major socioeconomic  
21 constraints for development, in contrast with major limitations in relation  
22 to tree planting The constraints which arise are mainly occasioned by  
23 marketing Valuable fruit/timber species, such as Pupunha (piguayo) or  
24 Guaraná, have extremely restricted market The long-term nature of timber  
25 tree investment and the risk related to future revenues are also  
26 constraints investments are made today and harvesting is several years  
27 ahead in an extremely dynamic economic world

1     Research priorities

2  
3       On the basis of these constraints and in light of existing knowledge,  
4 the following research needs and priorities can be suggested

5 a)   For the pasture component

6 -   Including shade tolerance as a criterion in the collection and  
7       screening of forage grasses and legumes

8  
9 -   Studies on compatibility of pasture species with trees in terms of  
10       competition for water, soil nutrients, and allelopathic factors

11  
12 -   Adjustment of grazing management in terms of grazing intensity and  
13       days of occupation and rest   These studies should be conducted with  
14       different animal species (cattle, sheep, goats)

15  
16 b)   For the tree component

17 -   Collection and screening of multipurpose trees for adaptation to poor,  
18       acid soils

19  
20 -   Studies to characterize the ability of different species to root from  
21       stakes, for the purpose of providing living fence posts

22  
23 -   Regrowth capacity and palatability of different tree species after  
24       defoliation, for selection of plants to be used as forage trees

25  
26 -   Agroindustry and marketing of tree products for the expansion of their  
27       utilization in the humid tropics

1 c) Finally, the following research needs are suggested for tree/ pasture  
2 interaction

3 - Development of establishment methods, including timing, for the  
4 establishment of components and the use of inputs and financing of  
5 pioneer annual crops

6  
7 - Studies on the biological and economic competition of trees and  
8 pastures in relation to tree densities, age of plantation, and  
9 carrying capacity of pastures under the tree canopy

10  
11 - Studies and documentation of the N fixation capacity of tree and  
12 herbaceous legumes, and their effect on productivity and quality of  
13 the integrated silvopastoral system

14  
15 - Studies to evaluate the effect of trees, pastures and grazing animals  
16 on soil physical and chemical conditions (compaction, OM%, pH )  
17 through time

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19 - Studies to optimize the whole system in terms of integrated management  
20 for maximum productivity and conservation of natural resources

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## 1 FINAL REMARKS

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3 Silvopastoral systems offer great potential for the development of  
4 efficient, highly productive, and sustainable systems in the disturbed  
5 lands of the rain forests. An intensive research effort towards study the  
6 integration of trees and pastures is required, in order to technically  
7 overcome the previously mentioned constraints by means of genetic  
8 development and improvement, systems management, and socioeconomic  
9 understanding

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1 Table 1 Dry matter yield and crude protein of grasses under different  
2 trees

3 Tree cover	Grasses*	
	DM yield (kg/ha)	Crude protein (%)
4		
5 Leguminous		
6 <u>Erythrina poeppigiana</u> (Poró)	6390	8 4
7 <u>Pithecolobium saman</u> (Samán)	7200	6 7
7 <u>Gliricidia sepium</u> (Madero negro)	6390	6 5
8 Boraginaceae		
9 <u>Cordia alliodora</u> (Laurel)	7520	6 2
10 No trees	7500	6 0

11 \* Mix of Panicum maximum, Paspalum fasciculatum, Homolepis aturensis,  
12 and Digitaria decumbens

13 SOURCE Daccarett and Blydenstein, 1968

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Table 2 Total amount of nutrients returned to the soil by different cover plants over five years in a young rubber plantation

Cover plants	kg/ha			
	N	P	K	Mg
<u>P phaseoloides</u> + <u>C pubescens</u> + <u>Calopogonium mucunoides</u>	226-353	18-27	85-131	15-27
<u>A compressus</u> + <u>P conjugatum</u>	24-65	8-16	31-86	9-15
Indigenous bushes	13-117	3-10	46-140	3-18

SOURCE Chee Yan Kuan, 1981

1 Table 3 Effect of cover with Imperata cylindrica, naturalized  
 2 grasses, and legumes on the growth of rubber trees over  
 3 five years

4 Cover	5 Girth (cm)	
	6 Inland soil	7 Coastal soil
8 <u>I cylindrica</u>	16 3	23 9
9 <u>A compressus</u> + <u>P conjugatum</u>	36 3	40 1
10 <u>P phaseoloides</u> + <u>C pubescens</u> 11 + <u>Calopogonium mucunoides</u>	39 6	41 4

12 SOURCE Chee Yan Kuan, 1981  
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Table 4 Dry matter yield of grasses  
under closed canopy of oil  
palm plantation

Species	DM yield (kg/ha/year)
<u>A</u> <u>compressus</u>	929 a
<u>B</u> <u>decumbens</u>	1728 a
<u>C</u> <u>plectostachyus</u>	63 c
<u>P</u> <u>maximum</u>	1029 a
<u>P</u> <u>conjugatum</u>	1146 a
<u>S</u> <u>sphacelata</u>	322 b

SOURCE Peng and Ibrahim, 1983



1 Table 5 Liveweight gains and oil palm yields resulting from grazing  
 2 native sward under five-year-old plantation

Cover	Stocking rate (head/ha)	Liveweight gains (kg/head/day)	No of bunches/palm
Native pasture	1	0 304	6 7
	2	0 112	10 6
	0	--	5 2

7 SOURCE Chen et al , 1978

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Table 6 Liveweight gains and coconut yield in coconut plantation combined with different grasses in Western Samoa, with a stocking rate of 2.5 steers/ha

Pasture	Liveweight gains (kg/head/year)	Coconut yield (nuts/ha)
Local	51 b	4407
<u>I indicum</u>	109 a	3812
<u>B mulliformis</u>	155 a	4482
<u>B brizantha</u>	158 a	4053
<u>B mutica</u>	143 a	3065
<u>P maximum</u>	134 a	3497

SOURCE Reynolds, 1981

Table 7 Effect of <sup>\*</sup>sown improved grass-legume pasture and grazing on animal liveweight gains and coconut yield in Indonesia

Treatment	Stocking rate (beasts/ha)	Liveweight gains (kg/head/day)	Nut yield (kg/ha/month)
Sown <u>B</u> <u>decumbens</u>			
+ <u>C</u> <u>pubescens</u>	2 7	0 321	507
	3 6	0 313	516
	4 8	0 293	713
	6 3	0 249	779
Native grasses under coconut		--	483
Local feeding system <sup>**</sup>		0 235	--

\* Bali cattle (Bos banteng) were used

\*\* Animals fed on cut natural pasture + banana stem + coconut leaf

SOURCE Rika et al , 1981

Table 8 Effect of stocking rate and pasture type on liveweight gains and coconut yield over three years grazing under coconuts

Pasture	Stocking rate (head/ha)	Liveweight gains (kg/head/day)	Coconut yield (nuts/tree/year)
Sown*	1 5	0 398	87
	2 5	0 340	84
	3 5	0 273	96
Natural**	1 5	0 427	93
	2 5	0 368	90
	3 5	0 270	91
SE for comparisons within pastures		0 019	4

\* Brachiaria mutica + B decumbens + B humidicola + C pubescens +  
P phaseoloides + S guianensis

\*\* Axonopus compressus + P conjugatum + C pubescens + Mimosa pudica  
+ Calopogonium mucunoides

SOURCE Watson and Whiteman, 1981

Table 9 Rate of net photosynthesis and dark respiration ( $\text{mg CO}_2/\text{dm}^2$  land area/hr) of two grasses grown under two light environments

Grass	Light environment	Net photo-synthesis	Dark respiration
<u>Cynodon dactylon</u>	Sun	57.9 a	15.9 a
	Shade	29.4 b	5.6 b
<u>Stenotaphrum secundatum</u>	Sun	31.4 b	3.9 b
	Shade	34.1 b	5.4 b

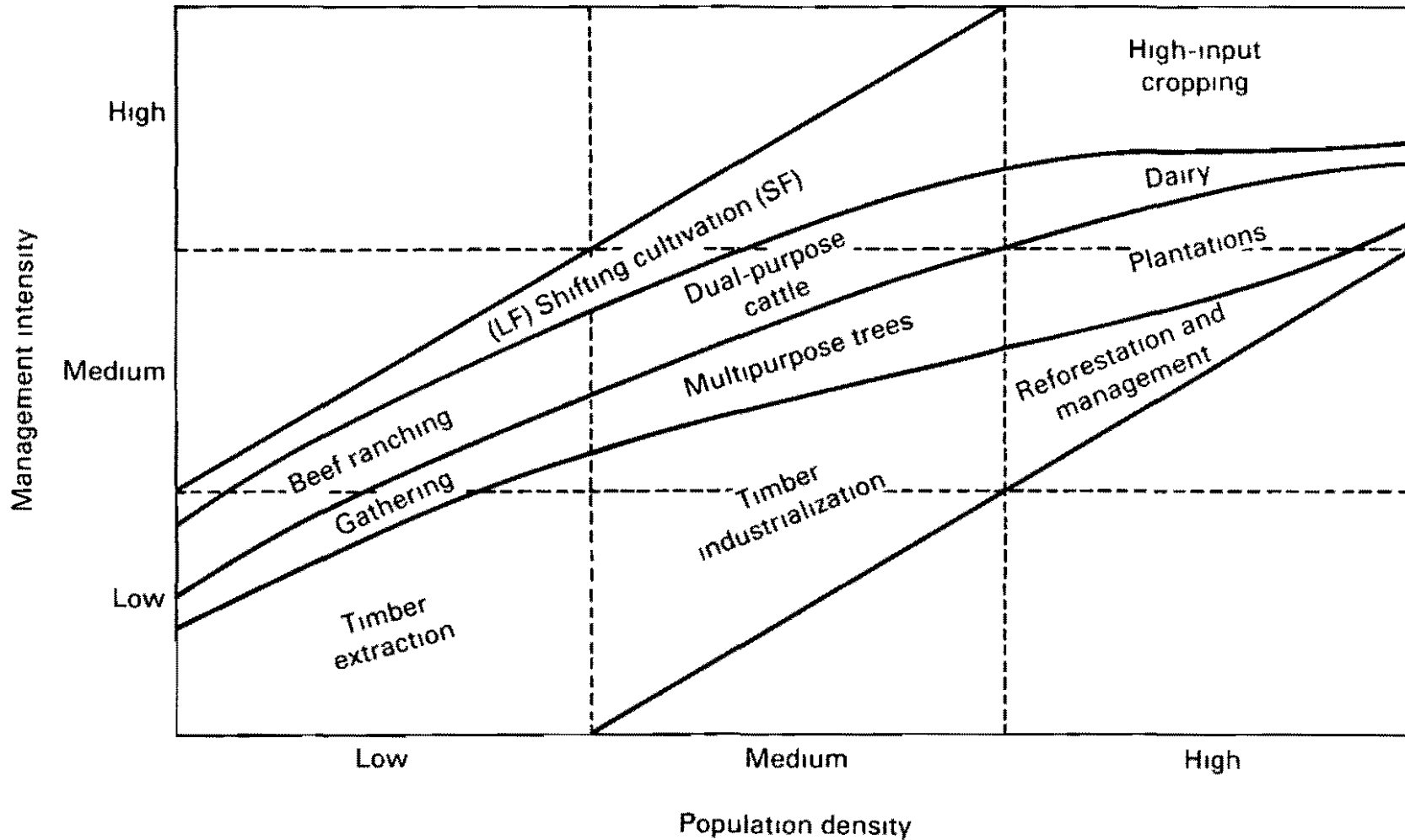
SOURCE Winstead and Ward, 1974

Table 10 Root length (km/ha) in the soil profile of grasses under full light (-S) and shade (+S)

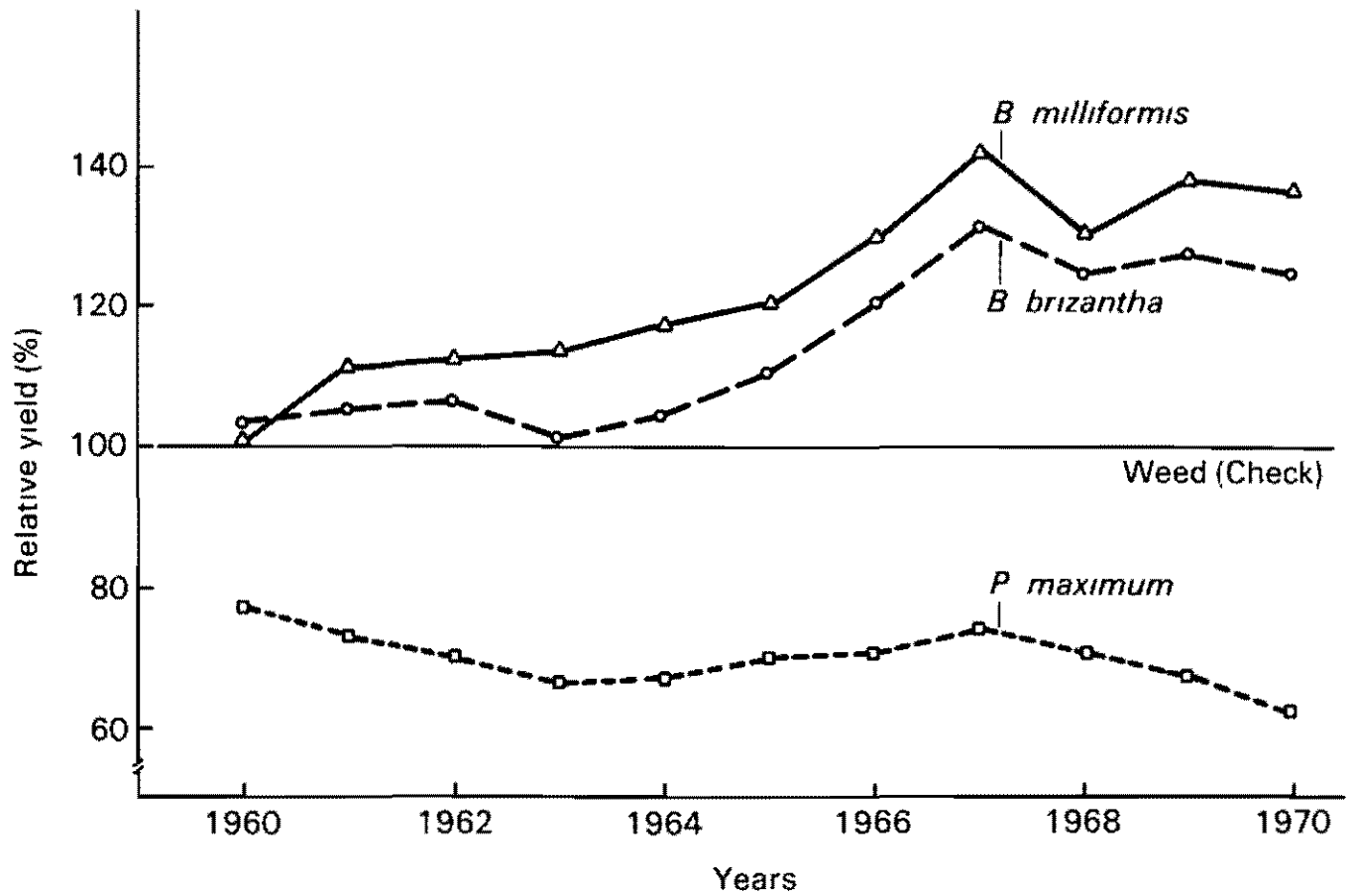
Soil depth (cm)	Shade level	<u>Axonopus compressus</u> (11 accessions)	<u>Paspalum conjugatum</u> (14 accessions)	<u>Stenotaphrum secundatum</u> (1 accession)
0-10	-S	7384	6327	9531
	+S	10816*	5741	8281
10-20	-S	1887	1967	3396
	+S	3199*	2132	2558
20-30	-S	1222	1304	1596
	+S	1643*	1243	1205
30-40	-S	732	1077	1363
	+S	1351*	1160	1305
40-50	-S	372	901	1187
	+S	875*	998	962

\* Significant differences ( $P > 0.05$ ) between shade levels

SOURCE Toledo et al , 1989

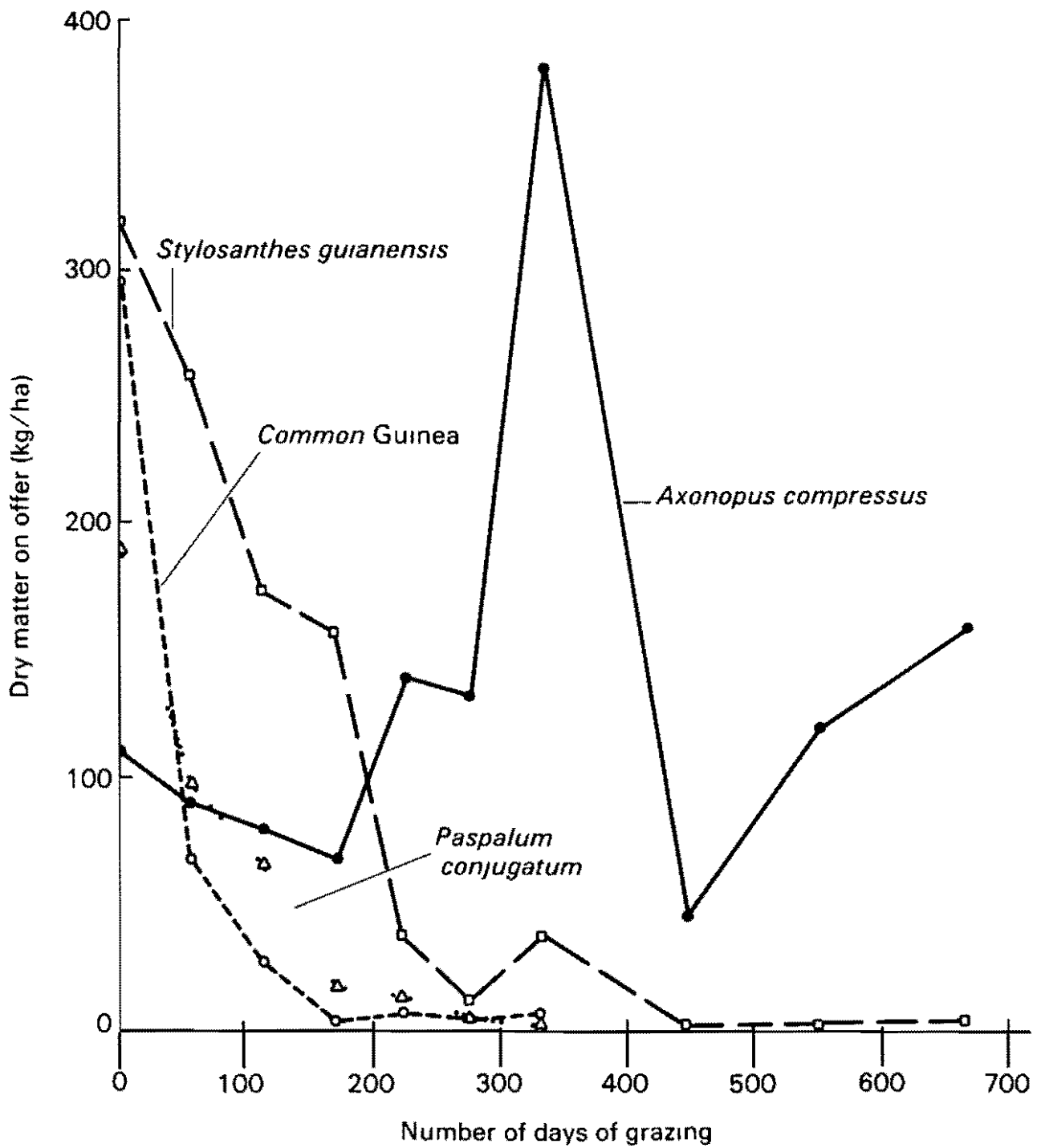


**Figure 1** Land use and management intensity of different rural production systems in relation to population density LF = long fallow, SF = short fallow (Taken from Serrao and Toledo, 1988)

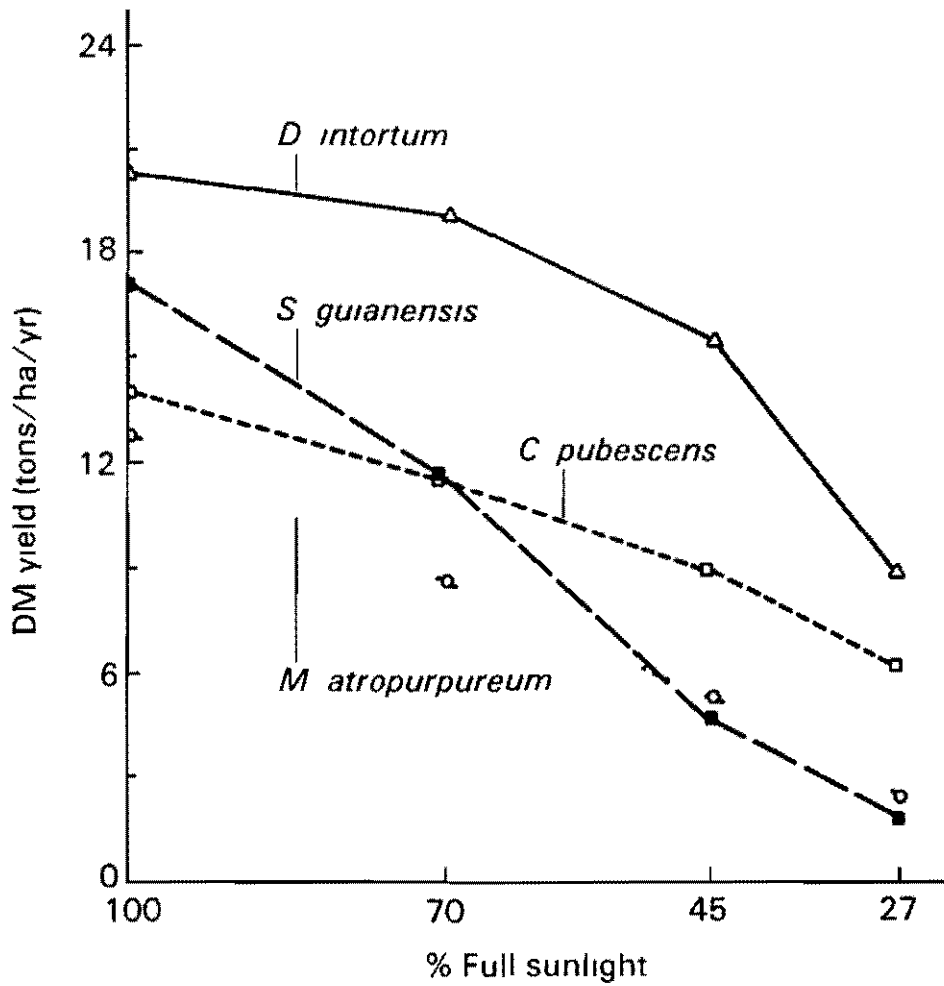


**Figure 2** Relative yield of coconut under different grass and weed (control) covers (Adapted from Ferdinandez, 1972 )

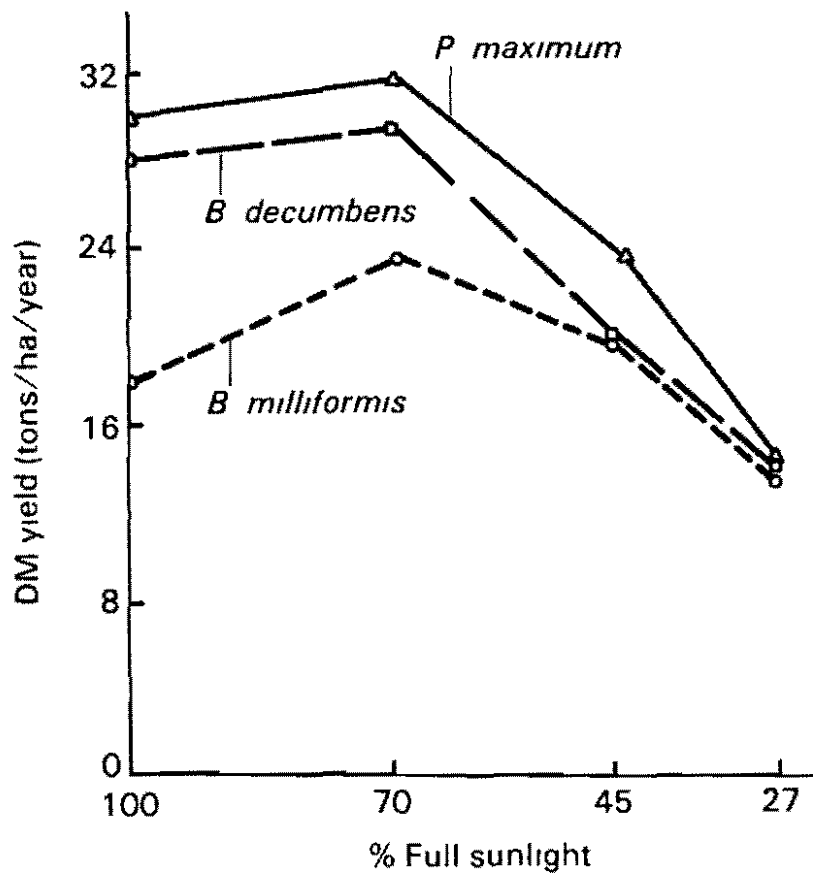




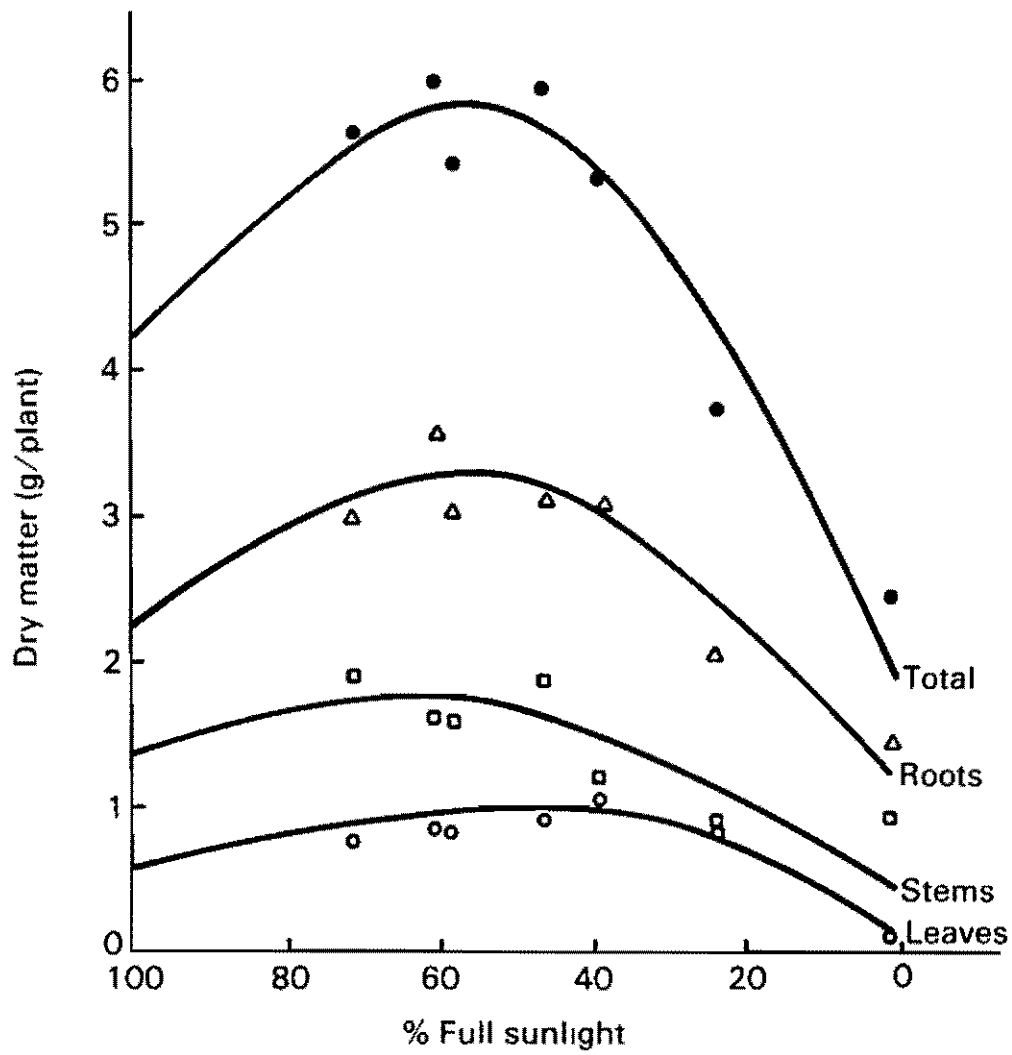
**Figure 3** Dry matter on offer of sown and native species under grazing (2 beasts/ha) in a five-year-old oil palm plantation (Adapted from Chen et al, 1978)



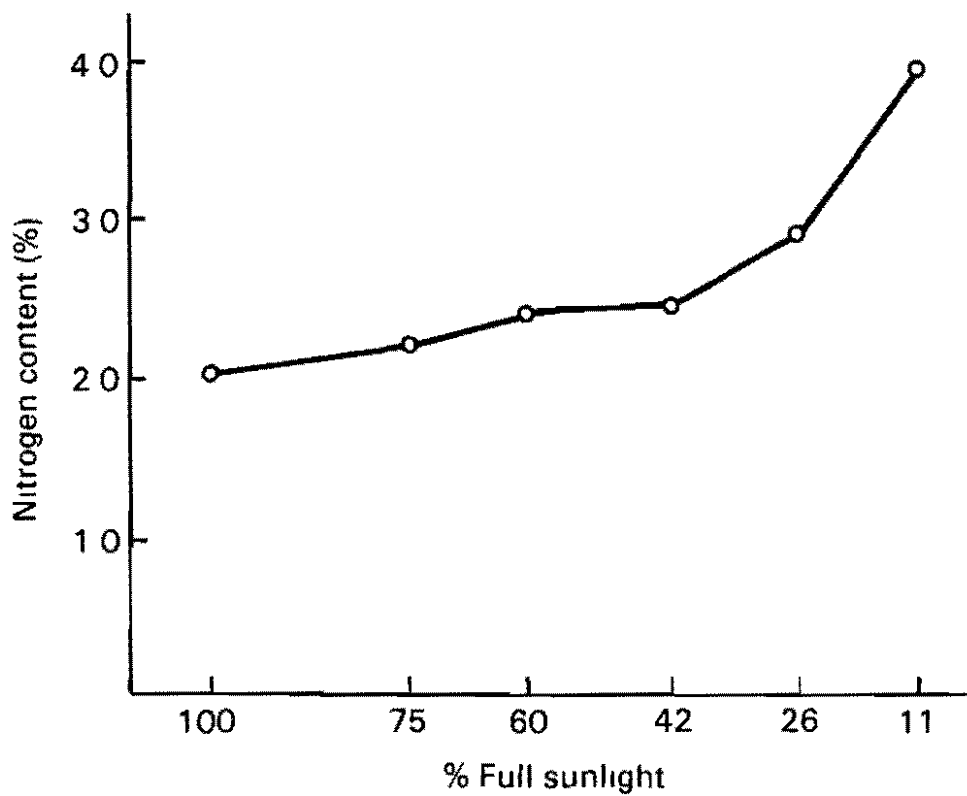
**Figure 4** Shade effect on annual DM yield of legumes (Adapted from Eriksen and Whitney, 1982 )



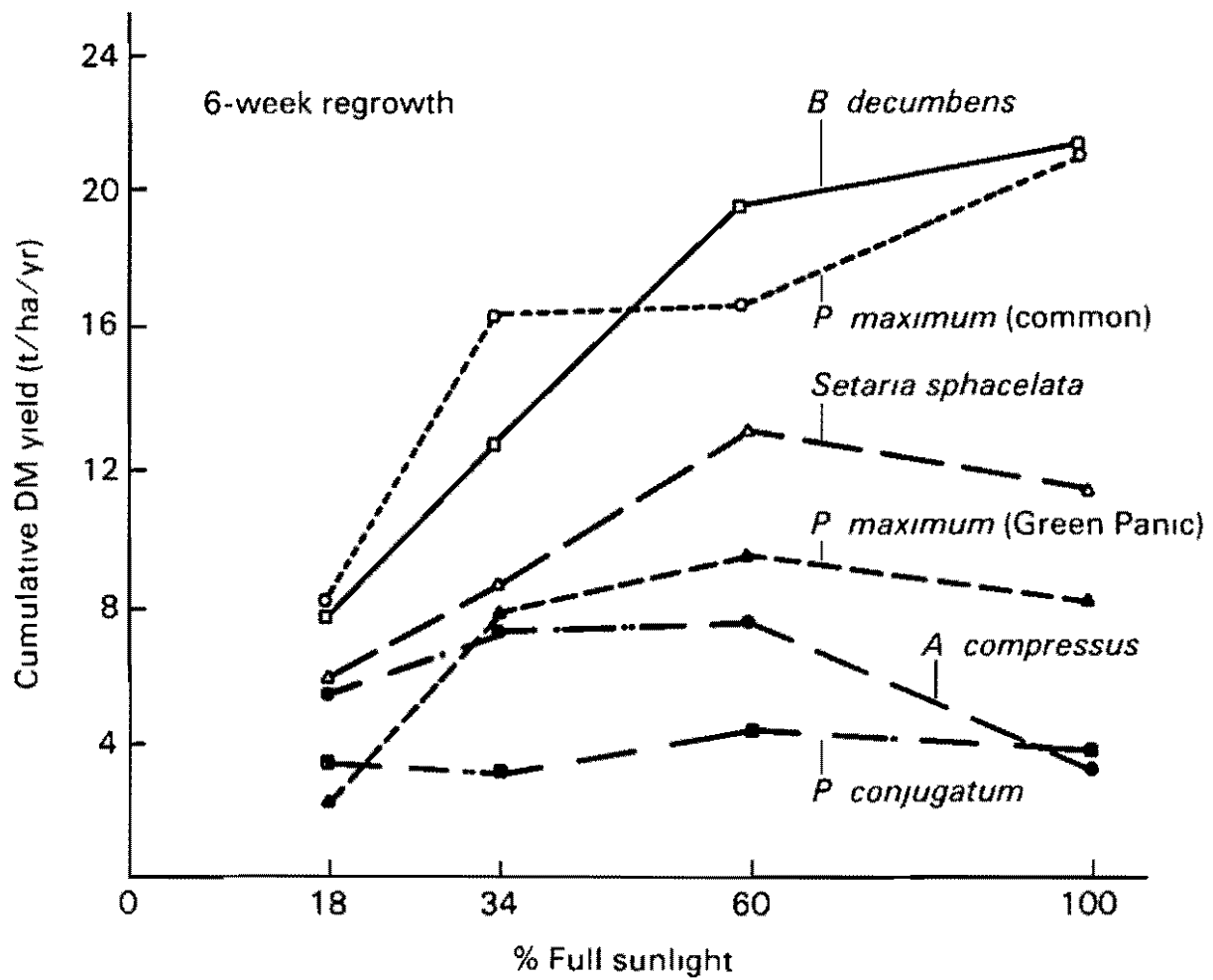
**Figure 5** Shade effect on annual DM yield of grasses (Adapted from Eriksen and Whitney, 1981 )



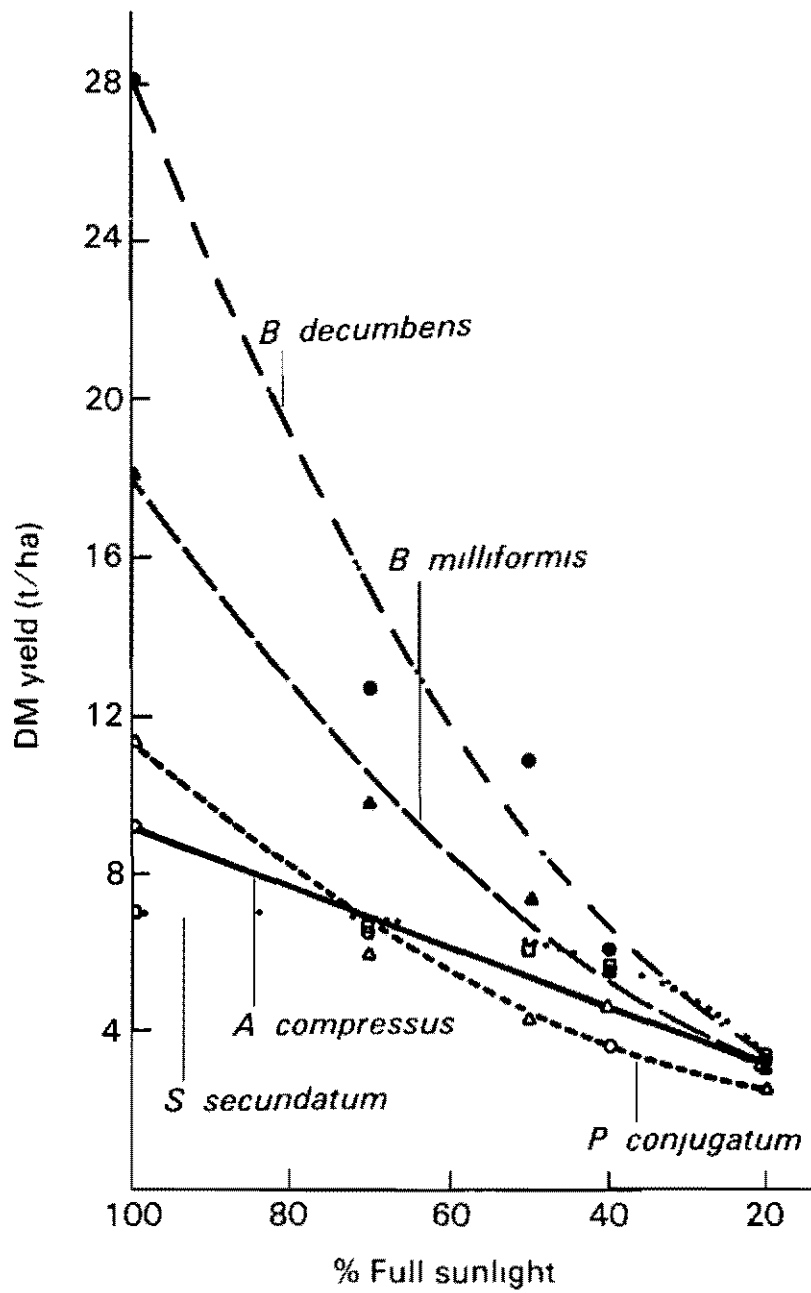
**Figure 6** Yield of biomass of *A. gayanus* after five weeks regrowth under different levels of shading (Adapted from Toledo and Fisher, 1988 )



**Figure 7** Effect of shading on N content in *P. maximum* (Adapted from Fleischer et al , 1984 )



**Figure 8** Mean annual dry matter production of six tropical grasses under four shade intensities and defoliated at six-week intervals (Taken from Wong et al , 1985 )



**Figure 9** Total aboveground DM yield of grasses over six harvests at different light transmission sites under coconuts (Adapted from Smith and Whiteman, 1983 )



Picture 1 Cattle grazing under a rubber plantation in Hainan island, China





Picture 2 Trees as living fences in Bugaba, Panama



Picture 3 Shade loving Axonopus compressus grass, in Quilichao, Colombia



Picture 4 Superficial root development of Leucaena leucocephala cv Cunningham, in a limed oxisol in the Brazilian, Cerrados