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Steeley, I.L. orcid.org/0009-0002-3544-5811, França, E.S. orcid.org/0009-0001-7277-3091, Epihov, D.Z. orcid.org/0000-0001-5711-5480 et al. (2 more authors) (2025) Agroforestry and enhanced rock weathering: a dual strategy for sustainable cacao. PLANTS, PEOPLE, PLANET. ISSN: 2572-2611

<https://doi.org/10.1002/ppp3.70097>

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REVIEW

Agroforestry and enhanced rock weathering: A dual strategy for sustainable cacao

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Funding information

Mondelez International, Grant/Award Number: X/177300-12-2; Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council, Grant/Award Number: X/177300-11-2; Mondelez International, Inc

Societal Impact Statement

Cacao production is both economically vital and environmentally intensive, presenting a major sustainability challenge as a crop largely cultivated by smallholder farmers in climate-vulnerable regions. This review synthesises evidence that integrating agroforestry with enhanced rock weathering (EW) may significantly reduce emissions from cacao production. Our projections indicate that applying EW to 10% of the cocoa harvest area gives a notably high mitigation potential. Although these findings suggest EW could substantially offset emissions, our review emphasises the urgent need for rigorous field trials to validate projections and explore possible synergies or unintended consequences. The integration of EW and agroforestry could offer a scalable solution to align cacao production with global climate and sustainability goals while supporting long-term agricultural resilience.

Summary

As one of the most emission-intensive foods, chocolate presents a significant challenge in meeting consumer demand and sustainability goals. Focusing on carbon sequestration and climate resilience, this review explores the potential of agroforestry and enhanced rock weathering (EW) as a dual strategy towards climate-positive cacao. Here, we describe how agroforestry systems, particularly multi-strata systems such as cabruças, can enhance carbon sequestration, tolerance to global climate change and ecosystem services. We analyse the mechanisms by which EW can augment these benefits, focusing on its impact on offsetting carbon emissions during production, nutrient release and improved soil health. The combined efficacy of these strategies is assessed. Research gaps and areas of concern are identified, principally around monitoring carbon removal, biodiversity impacts and nutrient cycling. Our review highlights the importance of integrated approaches to address the complex challenges facing the cacao sector. Further research is needed to quantify the economic and social benefits of agroforestry and EW, as well as to develop best management practices for different agro-ecological contexts.

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KEYWORDS

Agroforestry, Cacao, Carbon Dioxide Removal, Climate-smart agriculture, Enhanced Rock Weathering, Tropical Agroecosystems

1 | INTRODUCTION: COCOA'S CARBON PROBLEM

Theobroma cacao L., “Food of the Gods” has held profound social and economic significance as a food, drink and medicine for 5,300 years (Zarrillo et al., 2018), and this continues to the present day. The global chocolate market was estimated at \$119.39 billion in 2023 (Horizon, 2023), with a projected revenue forecast of \$23.54 billion for cacao beans by 2030. Globally, the industry supports approximately five to six million farmers, with 40 to 50 million people depending on cacao for their income (Beg et al., 2017). With an 8.4% compound annual growth rate expected between 2024 and 2030 (Horizon, 2023), cacao remains among the most valuable cash crops and agro-economic commodities and production has been increasing to meet this demand. However, over the past 60 years, a direct correlation has been observed between increases in cacao bean production and the area of land harvested (Figure 1). In contrast to typical row crops (e.g., corn), increased production has not been invoked by increases in yield.

Cacao has a significant yield gap problem; in 2023, the global yield average was 480.5 kg/ha (Faostat, 2024) approximately 90% lower than the modelled water-limited yield potential of 5,000 kg/ha (Zuidema et al., 2005) and 84% lower than the experimentally derived yield potential of 3,000 kg/ha (Appiah et al., 2000). This has been attributed to low technological adoption (Aneani & Ofori-Frimpong, 2013), disease outbreaks (Agyeman-Boaten & Fumey, 2021) and climate events (Gateau-Rey et al., 2018), among other factors. Many cacao farmers (30–58%) earn a gross income below the World Bank extreme poverty line, and the majority (73–90%) do not earn a Living Income in the two highest cacao-producing countries (Van Vliet et al., 2021); yield gaps and low farm-gate prices perpetuate this cycle of poverty (Bensch et al., 2023; Tittonnell & Giller, 2013). As identified by cacao farmers in Cameroon, barriers to

intensifying existing cacao farms include a lack of technical support and knowledge, prohibitive land ownership rights, limited financial assistance and labour and high input costs (Alemagi et al., 2015; Kenfack Essougong et al., 2020).

Climate change is expected to exacerbate these issues given the vulnerability of cacao to extreme weather events (Gateau-Rey et al., 2018). Maximum dry season temperatures and water availability are projected to become limiting factors, and climate suitability for growing cacao is shifting (Igawa et al., 2022; Schroth, Läderach, et al., 2016). To close the yield gap and improve livelihoods, the cacao industry must adopt productivity adaptations that are accessible, affordable and practical for smallholder farmers. Research on the implementation of climate-smart agricultural practices has become pertinent, particularly with cacao production being a driver of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions itself.

Chocolate is a GHG emissions-intensive food product, contributing to 2.4% of the food and drink sectors' GHG emissions within the UK and 4.7% of the primary energy consumption (Konstantas et al., 2018). The environmental impact of cacao production on GHG emissions has been studied extensively, as shown in Table 1. Chocolate, on average, is estimated to have a global warming potential (GWP) of 2.9–4.2 kg CO₂ eq./kg (e.g., Konstantas et al., 2018) with land use change and fertiliser use contributing the most to GHG emissions (Ntiamoah & Afrane, 2008; Ortiz-R et al., 2014). Land-use change (LUC), particularly deforestation for cacao expansion, is estimated to increase cocoa's GWP by a factor of three to four (Konstantas et al., 2018). Locally, deforestation can contribute up to 98% of cocoa emissions (Wiltshire et al., 2008). These high emissions are propelled in part by the short-term economic benefits of establishing new plantations on recently deforested land, rather than replanting existing low-yielding areas (Benefoh et al., 2018). Productivity on cleared virgin forests is high due to a phenomenon known as the 'Forest Rent', where soil nutrients become exposed, reducing fertiliser requirements, until the soil becomes depleted after 20–30 years, inciting further deforestation (Amponsah-Doku et al., 2022). Furthermore, the ever-increasing demand for cacao, with trading prices in April 2024 spiking to a record high of \$12,000 per tonne (cocoaprice, [tradingeconomics.com](https://cocoaprice.com)), could further incentivise unsustainable cacao expansion. Cacao-driven deforestation incurs significant carbon losses, with estimates exceeding 185 Mg C/ha-1 (Leuschner et al., 2013) along with soil degradation and biodiversity loss in critical hotspots (Sassen et al., 2022). Recent studies highlight the severe environmental consequences of cacao cultivation, revealing it as the underlying cause of over 37% of forest loss in protected areas in Côte d'Ivoire and over 13% in Ghana between 2000 and 2020 (Kalischek et al., 2023). These findings reflect the urgent need for sustainable and responsible practices within the cacao industry to mitigate its detrimental environmental impact.

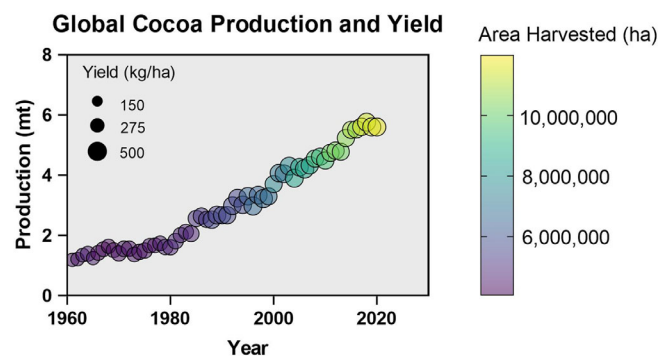


FIGURE 1 Global Cocoa Production and Yield from 1961 to 2023. Global cocoa production, yield and area harvested data extracted from Faostat, 2024.

TABLE 1 Life Cycle Analysis (LCA) values for Global Warming Potential for 1 kg of dried cacao beans across three cacao cultivation systems. N.A. indicates not applicable, as these values were not calculated in the cited research.

Country in which LCA was conducted	Conventional Monoculture (kg CO ₂ -eq/kg dried cacao beans)	Conventional Agroforestry (kg CO ₂ -eq/kg dried cacao beans)	Organic Agroforestry (kg CO ₂ -eq/kg dried cacao beans)	Reference
Ghana	0.050	0.060	N.A.	Parra-Paitan & Verburg, 2022
Ecuador	N.A.	0.300	0.034	Caicedo-Vargas et al., 2022
Bolivia	2.980	3.740	1.560	Armengot et al., 2021
Ecuador	1.900	1.090	0.841	Pérez-Neira, Copena, et al., 2020
Mean	1.643	1.298	0.812	
SD	1.482	1.687	0.763	

LCA studies were chosen for comparison based on their comprehensive impact assessment and unity in metrics –cradle to farm gate emissions.

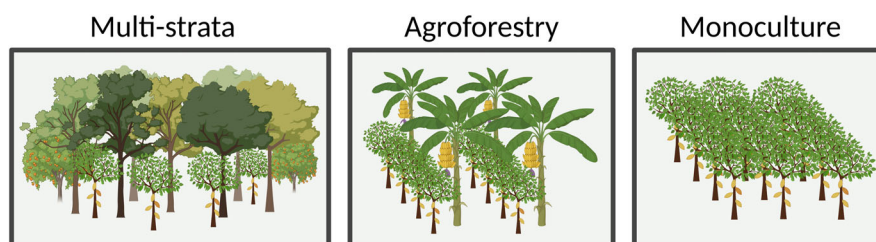


FIGURE 2 Cacao Cultivation Systems. (Steeley, 2025).

2 | CURRENT STRATEGIES TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE CHOCOLATE

Although cacao production is often associated with deforestation and environmental degradation, there is the potential for cultivation in multi-strata systems that may mitigate these concerns. As an understory tree, cacao can thrive in shaded, forest-like environments such as the Cabruca system practiced in Bahia, Brazil or the Chakra system in Ecuador (Luna & Barcellos-Paula, 2024; Neves Cavalcante et al., 2023). Within these systems, cacao trees are cultivated in association with native trees in a discontinuous and random manner, providing essential environmental services such as soil protection, shade and pest and disease resistance (Andres et al., 2018; Neves Cavalcante et al., 2023), refer to Figure 2. Climate resilience presents an additional incentive for shaded cacao farms as shade trees can provide a favourable microenvironment that buffers extreme climate events by reducing the mean annual temperature amplitude by 1.1°C compared to monoculture systems and increasing humidity by 2.7% (Niether et al., 2018).

While cacao agroforests do not match primary forests regarding species richness, they can support tropical biodiversity and key ecosystem functioning species (Cassano et al., 2009; Ferreira et al., 2023; Maney et al., 2022; Tadu & Djiéto-Lordon, 2014). In Cameroon, where agroforestry is the predominant system, threatened trees represent approximately 25% of total woody individuals associated with cacao, demonstrating the conservation abilities of cacao farms for vulnerable tree species (Saj et al., 2017). Additionally, multi-strata agroforests can act as habitat and wildlife corridors for endemic and threatened fauna,

including primate species such as the Golden-Headed Lion Tamarin in Brazil and the Rowloway Monkey and White-Naped Mangabey in Ghana (Asare et al., 2014; Oliveira et al., 2010; Yao et al., 2015). While studies report increased species biodiversity in cacao agroforests compared to other agricultural land uses, these systems continue to be drivers of species complexity, functional diversity and specialist loss (Jarrett et al., 2021; Maney et al., 2022; Reitsma et al., 2001).

Adoption of multi-strata cacao systems remains low in most cacao-producing countries, largely due to the reduction in yield associated with high levels of shading (Ruf, 2011). However, management of shade trees can mitigate these yield penalties, with research showing that the overall shade tree cover, rather than the complexity of the shade structure, triggers yield reductions. In a study by Clough et al. (2011) increasing shade quantity, measured by overall shade tree cover, was correlated with a reduction in cacao yield, whereas qualitative aspects of shade, such as the number of tall trees and the number of forest tree species, were revealed to maintain species richness without having a significant correlation with yield (Clough et al., 2011). Shade trees can also provide pollinator habitat, which could increase yields, as low pollination is a known limiter of cacao production (Forbes & Northfield, 2017; Lander et al., 2025). Consequently, targeted shade management that maintains moderate shade levels and a complex habitat structure can support high yields without compromising biodiversity in cacao farms, along with supporting broader environmental goals, including re-agro-forestation and increased carbon sequestration.

Cacao agroforests planted on formerly cleared land could be a type of “re-agro-forestation” which is the reinstatement of forest

cover that enhances biodiversity while simultaneously maintaining agricultural productivity. This land-sharing approach has gained interest in Brazil with the Forest Act of 2012, which puts pressure on land-owners to convert illegally deforested land, often cleared to make way for cattle, back under forest cover (Nepstad et al., 2014; Schroth, Garcia, et al., 2016). Cacao is considered a native tree, which this law acknowledges as permitted reforestation if planted with other native trees. If cacao demand and price continue, re-agro-forestation could become economically favourable to reforest cleared land, and similar legislation could be implemented in other countries.

Establishment of new farms with re-agro-forestation in Brazil has been estimated to reduce emissions by 135 Mg C ha⁻¹ in comparison to planting cacao after forest clearing (Schroth, Garcia, et al., 2016). Cacao agroforestry can store considerable amounts of soil carbon, recorded to be around 302 Mg ha⁻¹ to 1 m depth, in some cases equivalent to natural forest (Gama-Rodrigues et al., 2011). Low-shade cacao agroforests (<30%) can store 210% more above-ground carbon than monocultures, and within multi-strata systems, a 660% increase was documented (Blaser et al., 2018). Building on the potential of agroforestry systems to promote biodiversity and enhance carbon sequestration, it is equally important to consider the role of farm management practices in reducing environmental impacts.

GHG emissions from conventional cacao production are high, mainly due to chemical fertiliser use, in one study accounting for 96.7% of the carbon footprint (Miharza et al., 2023). Recent studies have demonstrated that cacao farms managed organically can substantially lower GHG emissions compared to both conventional agroforestry (6.3% - 10.7%) and monoculture systems (22.7% - 34.2%) as they are 4–5 times more energy efficient than monocultures and require fewer chemical inputs (Pérez-Neira, Copena, et al., 2020; Pérez-Neira, Schneider, & Armengot, 2020). Although there are discrepancies among LCA studies, resulting from variations in input

parameters and system boundaries, refer to Table 1 and Figure 3. Systems that include conventional Good Agricultural Practices (GAP) are associated with higher emissions (2.29 kg CO₂e per kg of cacao), despite assumptions of zero deforestation (Vervuurt et al., 2022). The emissions associated with inputs and residue management aimed at pest and disease control outweighed the increase in cacao yield. The trade-off between high cacao yields and GHG emissions highlights the need for a revision of GAP recommendations to better align with climate mitigation objectives. This stresses the fact that merely boosting yields in the hope of minimising land use is not sufficient to mitigate carbon emissions. It necessitates the implementation of CO₂ removal (CDR) to reduce the industry's ecological footprint.

3 | THE POTENTIAL OF ENHANCED ROCK WEATHERING

Enhanced rock weathering (EW) may be a promising solution to achieve net-zero carbon targets in the cocoa industry. EW involves accelerating the natural process of rock weathering to sequester carbon dioxide (CO₂) (Hartmann et al., 2013). This is accomplished by crushing silicate rocks rich in Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺, to increase the reactive surface area (Moosdorf et al., 2014). This rock dust can then be spread across a range of grasslands, forests or agricultural land and incorporated into the soil, where rocks can dissolve faster under the elevated CO₂ released from roots and decomposers (Beerling et al., 2018; Schuiling & Krijgsman, 2006). Increases in alkalinity export are driven by increases in pH caused by the sequestration of protons by the silicate matrix and the formation of monosilicic acid. The increase in pH allows for increases in the concentration of aqueous bicarbonate ions (HCO₃⁻) with CO₂ (aq) acting as a buffer. These are summarised by the weathering equation for diopside below:

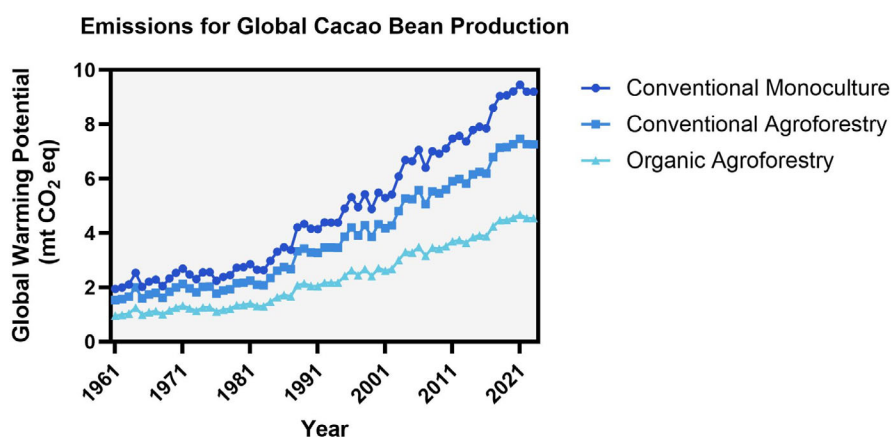
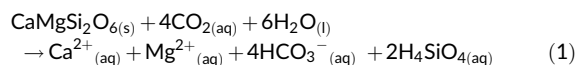
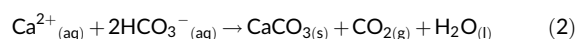


FIGURE 3 Estimated Emissions for Global Cacao Bean Production from 1961 to 2023. Average global warming potential (GWP) values for 1 kg of dried cacao beans at farm-level production are sourced from Table 1. These values were multiplied by the average global production value for each year (Faostat, 2024) to calculate total GWP for three cultivation systems: conventional monoculture, conventional agroforestry and organic agroforestry. Under each scenario, it is assumed all cacao is grown using the respective cultivation system, which is an oversimplification of the methods used to produce cacao. See Dataset S1 for further information.



Silicate weathering reaction allows for a carbon sequestration ratio of 2 mol CO₂/mol divalent cations.

Subsequently, bicarbonate together with its counterbalancing cations is transported through groundwater and runoff; in many cases, ultimately makes its way to the oceans (Equation 1) (Green et al., 2024). This leads to CO₂ storage as dissolved inorganic carbon or more enduringly as carbonate compounds (Equation 2) (Knapp & Tipper, 2022; Pokrovsky et al., 2009). This is illustrated by the formation of calcite below:



Silicate weathering with carbonate precipitation is unlikely to occur in acidic tropical soils but instead occurs over a 10,000-year timescale, leading to a carbon sequestration ratio of 1 mol CO₂/mol divalent cations and the transfer of carbon from the atmosphere to the geologic record (Renforth, 2019).

The large-scale CDR potential of EW remains a subject of debate. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) estimates that EW could sequester between 2 and 4 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹ globally (IPCC, 2022) and one modelling study projected the cumulative carbon sequestration potential of EW to be 215 Gt CO₂ with a fixed application rate of 10 t ha⁻¹ of basalt dust across 2006–2080 (Baek et al., 2023). The warm and humid climates in which cacao is cultivated may enhance chemical weathering rates, as increased precipitation and temperature facilitate mineral dissolution by lowering activation energy (*E_a*) barriers (Haque et al., 2023; Kump et al., 2000; Ryan et al., 2024). However, while dissolution kinetics are more optimal in these regions, the anions charge-balancing cations released during weathering may originate from non-carbonic sources in low-pH soils (Li & Ji, 2016; Taylor et al., 2021). In a tropical EW field trial in Northeastern Australia, soil acidity was shown to preclude CDR, as acids stronger than carbonic acid, mainly surface-bound protons, were the primary weathering agents (Holden et al., 2024). Similarly, strong acid weathering caused by nitrogenous fertilisation was shown to perturb CDR in a field trial with crushed returned concrete in Ireland (McDermott et al., 2024). The mechanism for this is nitrification, where ammonium (NH₄⁺)-based fertilisers in the presence of O₂ are converted into nitrate (NO₃⁻) by nitrifying soil bacteria, releasing protons into the soil (Goulding, 2016; Nishio & Fujimoto, 1990). Alternatively, NO₃⁻-based fertilisers (e.g., CaNO₃) could be utilised as a measure to prevent nitrification-driven acidification and strong acid weathering (Weng et al., 2022). In the process of uptake, plants acquiring nitrate also export bicarbonate, thus driving the alkalisation of the surrounding soil (Haynes, 1983; Pierre & Banwart, 1973). However, nitrogenous fertilisation in excess will cause NO₃⁻ to leach through the soil (Quan et al., 2016); caution must be exercised in supplying reasonable rates of CaNO₃ fertilisation.

Carbonic acid is a weak acid with a p*K_a* of ~6.4 (Loerting & Bernard, 2010); therefore, CDR in highly acidic soils (<pH 5.2) will

be low until proton neutralisation through continued silicate application and weathering is sufficient for carbonic acid dissociation (Dietzen & Rosing, 2023; Holden et al., 2024; Oh & Raymond, 2006). A correction factor for non-carbonic weathering in soils below pH 6.3 has been proposed (Dietzen & Rosing, 2023), but the effect of strong acids on CDR potential has not reached a consensus.

In addition to these purely abiotic controls, rock weathering is significantly influenced by the rhizosphere environment. A rhizosphere, the soil region influenced by plant roots, exhibits variations in pH and nutrient levels compared to bulk soil, with differences of up to two units (Youssef & Chino, 1989). Plant roots, micro-organisms and decomposing plant materials can also produce additional acidity by releasing protons and organic acids into the soil (de Almeida Leite et al., 2024; Fujii, 2014; Hinsinger et al., 2003; Perez-Fodich & Derry, 2019). Organic acids can complex with metal ions, weakening mineral surface bonds and facilitating silicate dissolution, even at near-neutral pH levels where proton-promoted dissolution is typically constrained (Sun et al., 2023; Welch & Ullman, 1993). While this may increase weathering rates, organic acids and protons could compete with carbonic acid, impeding inorganic carbon formation (Lei et al., 2025; Taylor et al., 2021). This may be compensated by the increase in pCO₂ from root and microbe respiration, which increases bicarbonate concentrations in soil above what is expected from carbonate solubility, promoting CDR (Bloom & Inskeep, 1986; Poschenrieder et al., 2018).

Agroforests have additional advantages for weathering, including deep tree roots, which regulate water fluxes and create macropores, facilitating weathering and exportation of reaction products (Billings et al., 2018; Wen et al., 2020). Tropical forested systems could exert greater biological weathering rates than temperate systems. Owing to their higher net primary productivity and faster microbial decomposition, tropical agroforestry soils have increased CO₂ production and concentrations available to react with rocks (Hashimoto et al., 2007). This could trigger carbon capture at greater rates in tropical systems' soils than temperate systems, particularly in the top 0–10 cm, where rock amendment would be spread. The interplay between strong acids, pCO₂ and CDR rates requires further investigation.

Modelling studies assessing the CDR potential of EW in tropical Brazilian croplands have estimated that deployment on over 25% and 75% of cropland could remove 0.1 and 0.2 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹, respectively (Beerling et al., 2020). Similar estimates have been reported elsewhere (Jerden et al., 2024); however, field verification is lacking, as no trials have yet spanned a decade. Long-term experimental data on CDR potential in tropical systems, where weathering rates are expected to be high, remain scarce. Reported CDR rates vary considerably, with a field experiment in Malaysia estimating ~1 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ sequestration after three years of basalt application (Larkin et al., 2022), and a laboratory study in Costa Rica projecting 3.2 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ following a 50 t ha⁻¹ basalt application (Ryan et al., 2024). Currently, there is a high level of uncertainty associated with these CDR rates given the lag time of weathering products in the soil (te Pas et al., 2025),

the potential re-release of CO₂ downstream (Zhang et al., 2022) and the emissions associated with the mining, crushing and transportation of rock dust (Moosdorf et al., 2014).

To assess the potential for EW to offset emissions from cacao production, CDR rates from these studies were applied to 10% of the available cocoa harvest area (Figure 4). This 10% scenario was selected as it represents a pragmatic, conservative estimate of partial adoption, allowing for a proof-of-concept scale while accommodating limitations in implementation capacity, financial resources and policy support. The results suggest that EW could substantially mitigate emissions from cacao cultivation through CDR. EW could lower GHG emissions through reduced chemical fertiliser requirements and suppressing N₂O release, but this is not considered here due to the lack of life cycle assessments of EW with cacao production. Field trials are essential to validate these projections and to account for strong acid weathering in tropical soils, potential synergies with other sustainable practices, or unintended consequences not captured in modelling studies.

4 | ENHANCED WEATHERING FOR CACAO CULTIVATION: SOIL HEALTH, NUTRIENT CYCLING AND SUSTAINABILITY

A relatively limited set of soil characteristics is required for productive cacao agroecosystems, including a pH range between 5.7 and 6.22, organic carbon content close to 3%, available phosphorus and potassium levels greater than 16 and 90 ppm, respectively, and a cation exchange capacity between 9 and 15 cmol c/dm³, among other parameters (Souza et al., 2018). Beyond its role in carbon sequestration, EW holds the potential to improve soil conditions necessary for cacao farming, foremost providing a means to increase and buffer soil pH. In tropical regions, where soil acidity frequently arises from high rainfall

and leaching (Ng et al., 2022), the application of EW feedstocks could serve as an alternative to conventional agricultural lime (CaCO₃) (Edwards et al., 2017). Silicate rocks, which are rich in bases, could neutralise excess hydrogen ions (H⁺) in the soil solution, thereby raising soil pH and improving conditions for nutrient uptake (Guo et al., 2023). Further, the solubility and consequently, the mobility of heavy metals such as nickel (Ni), lead (Pb), cadmium (Cd) and mercury (Hg), are strongly influenced by pH, reducing their solubility as the pH rises (Omokaro et al., 2025; Villalaz-Pérez et al., 2024). Corroborating this, numerous studies have highlighted the importance of maintaining soil pH to reduce the mobility of potentially toxic trace elements in cacao plantations (Araujo et al., 2018; Doe et al., 2022). Soil aluminium (Al) levels, which can be a problem in highly acidic soils, pose a significant concern for cacao cultivation. Elevated Al concentrations can adversely affect shoot and root biomass, stem height, root length, relative growth rate and net assimilation rate (Baligar & Fageria, 2005). Increasing soil Al saturation further inhibits the uptake of essential nutrients, including potassium, calcium and magnesium (Bossolani et al., 2020). The application of dolomite lime to acidic soils reduced exchangeable Al levels from 26 to 0.2 cmol kg⁻¹ and increased root and shoot biomass in cacao by 1.31 and 0.39 g plant⁻¹, respectively (Baligar & Fageria, 2005). These findings have prompted further research into soil amendments aimed at preventing trace metal toxicity through pH regulation (Ramtahal et al., 2019). A study by Shamshuddin et al. (2011) demonstrated that the application of ground basalt, a key rock type for EW, at a rate of 20 t ha⁻¹ increased pH, reduced exchangeable Al in infertile Oxisols, and simultaneously promoted cacao dry matter weight from 709 to 873 g pot⁻¹. These findings have been supported by additional studies (Shamshuddin et al., 2015).

Depending on the mineralogical composition of the applied rock, EW may also elevate nickel and chromium concentrations in soils

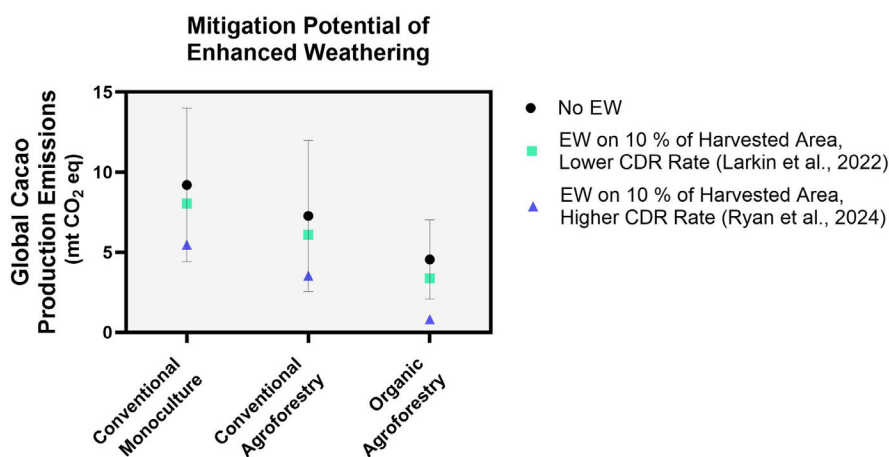


FIGURE 4 Predicted Global CO₂ Emissions for 2023 Dried Cacao Bean Production with Enhanced Weathering. Average production emissions were calculated using the same method as above. Error bars represent the Standard Error Mean. The potential of Enhanced Rock Weathering (EW) to mitigate carbon dioxide emissions was calculated using two carbon removal (CDR) rates (Larkin et al., 2022; Ryan et al., 2024), representing a high and low scenario. The CDR rates were multiplied by 10% of the global harvested area for cacao cultivation (Faostat, 2024) to generate a mitigation value, which was subtracted from the original average production emissions for each system. See Dataset S1 for further information.

(Vienne et al., 2022). To address these concerns, Brazil, recognised as a global leader in the application of natural rock powders for soil remineralisation, has implemented regulatory measures to manage the chemical risks associated with rock dust applications in agriculture (Presidência da República, 2013). Careful selection of rock sources, combined with rigorous and transparent monitoring of trace element concentrations, is crucial for balancing the climate mitigation potential of EW with its social acceptance and environmental safety considerations (Levy et al., 2024).

The slow release of nutrients from EW necessitates the presence of healthy soil organic matter (SOM) to support sustained plant growth and heterotrophic soil respiration, which in turn elevates CO₂ levels in the soil air, increasing EW efficiency for soil carbon sequestration (Bertagni et al., 2025). Evidence suggests that finely ground silicate rock residues can increase mineral-associated SOM by 22%, as a result of the release of Al and Fe forming poorly crystalline minerals (e.g., imogolite, allophane, ferrihydrite) which interact with SOM to form complexes protected from microbial decomposition (Buss et al., 2024; Xu et al., 2024). Similarly, a study reported a positive correlation between weathering rates and soil organic carbon storage in regions characterised by high humidity and mineral abundance at temperate locations (Slessarev et al., 2022). However, redox fluctuations characteristic of tropical systems with alternating dry and wet seasons put into question the stability of the newly formed complexes, necessitating further research into rock weathering-SOM interactions at tropical EW trials (Chen et al., 2020).

An incubation experiment reported a substantial increase in soil CO₂ efflux following the application of wollastonite, a widely used mineral in EW, suggesting faster SOM decomposition (Yan et al., 2023). These findings suggest that EW may accelerate SOM mineralisation, especially in acidic soils, and potentially induce a “priming effect,” whereby microbial activity stimulates the decomposition of existing SOM (Fang et al., 2023). A two-year trial conducted in the United States observed a decline in mineral-associated organic matter following silicate rock application; however, this was not accompanied by a corresponding reduction in soil organic carbon (Sokol et al., 2024). This could be understood by the increase in soil pH, influencing the decomposition of organic matter and microbial activity, responsible for the degradation and mineralisation of carbon. Conversely, there is evidence to suggest that in agroforestry systems, an increase in pH is associated with greater organic carbon retention, increased biomass and microbial activity, favouring the stabilisation of organic carbon (Soilueang et al., 2025).

Application of crushed silicate rock has the potential to enhance soil fertility and cation exchange capacity (CEC) in highly weathered tropical Oxisols (Gillman, 1980). Soil CEC is a measure of the negative charge of the solid phase of soil balanced by exchangeable cations (mEq/100 g) and describes the number of cations in the soil solution that are exchangeable, and therefore available for uptake by plant roots (Reganold & Harsh, 1985; Wang et al., 2023). Understanding soil nutrient dynamics is essential for optimising agricultural practices and meeting the increasing global demand for cacao. Although studies are limited, under field conditions, basalt application can significantly

increase cocoa growth, as evidenced by increasing stem height and diameter over 24 months (Anda et al., 2013). Building on these findings that basalt amendments enhance overall soil nutrient status and promote cacao growth, it is crucial to examine the role of individual macronutrients in sustaining and further improving cacao production.

Potassium (K) is a key macronutrient for cacao production, promoting root development (Nguyen et al., 2002) and enhancing water stress tolerance, which improves the plant's resilience to environmental conditions (Boyer, 1973). Potassium is also essential for pod and bean development, with cacao pods containing 4.2–5.5% K in dry matter and beans containing 2.2–2.4% K (Mengel, 1980). Given that cacao cultivation depletes K from trees, it has long been established that K replacement requirements are directly linked to yield (Mengel, 1980). Field trials have demonstrated that K supplementation enhances cacao growth (Kaba et al., 2022). Basalt application as an EW amendment has been proposed as a source of K for cacao cultivation. Studies indicate that plants in tropical soils can access K from silicate rock amendments (Manning et al., 2017). A four-year field trial in the U.S. Corn Belt found that annual applications of crushed basalt (50 t ha⁻¹) released at least 23 kg K ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ (Beerling et al., 2024), in addition to potential increases in available K due to changes in soil pH. While this amount may be sufficient for average-yielding cacao trees, it is unlikely to meet the K demands of high-yielding trees or those in K-deficient soils (Mengel, 1980; Snoeck et al., 2016). However, there is an obvious need to generate K release rates during EW with a range of feedstocks in cacao agroecosystems.

The effectiveness of basalt as an alternative to chemical K fertilisers may depend on the specific agricultural system. Bahia et al. (2021) found that in shaded systems, there was a lower need for N, P and S and a greater need for K by cocoa trees compared to cacao grown in full-sun systems. Consequently, shade levels must be considered when assessing the fertilisation potential of EW, as responses may vary across different management systems (Ahenkorah et al., 1987). Given these factors, basalt application may be most effective as a supplement to conventional fertilisers, potentially reducing environmental impacts and costs associated with chemical fertilisation.

Phosphorus (P) is also a critical, commonly limiting nutrient in cacao cultivation, contributing to flowering, dry matter production and canopy development, which enhances light capture and photosynthetic efficiency (Asomaning et al., 1971). However, P availability in tropical soils is often limited due to fixation in unavailable forms, particularly in highly weathered, acidic conditions (Chacón et al., 2008). Soil pH plays a key role in regulating phosphate availability, as it influences the adsorption of phosphate anions onto soil colloids (Devau et al., 2009). Higher pH levels increase the solubility of iron and aluminium phosphates, reducing phosphate fixation and improving P availability (Sandim et al., 2014). Given these constraints, P deficiencies can limit cacao productivity, necessitating effective fertilisation strategies that align with the agricultural practices and tree health. Older, unshaded cacao plantations require higher P inputs than younger trees grown under shade (Ahenkorah et al., 1974; Ahenkorah et al., 1987). Additional studies have shown that P supplementation

can enhance productivity and improve the effects of N, particularly in low-yielding trees (Isaac et al., 2011; Snoeck et al., 2010; Wessel, 1971).

Given the challenges of P fixation in tropical soils, EW may improve P availability over time. Silicon-rich rock amendments have been shown to increase soil P availability by promoting competition between silicate and phosphate anions for adsorption sites (Sandim et al., 2014). In a tropical rubber plantation, EW using wollastonite increased total soil P levels and P availability through enhanced microbial P cycling and the release of root exudates in a two-year field experiment (Bi et al., 2024). Basalt, which shares similar mineral properties with wollastonite, may also serve as a slow-release source of P. A four-year field trial in the U.S. Corn Belt found that annual applications of crushed basalt (50 t ha^{-1}) released at least $7 \text{ kg P ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Beerling et al., 2024), but as with K, release rates are needed for cacao sites.

Nitrogen (N) fertilisation stimulates leaf flushing, canopy formation and vegetative growth, influencing cacao yield, especially in younger trees (Cañarte et al., 2023). While basalt application will not directly increase levels of N through its mineralogy, it has been shown to significantly reduce N leaching from the soil. The average decrease in N leaching has been estimated to be as high as 45% upon basalt amendment (Vienne et al., 2022), possibly due to Mo released during weathering, which is a central co-factor in the nitrogenase enzymes of bacteria involved in N_2 -fixation to ammonia (Seefeldt et al., 2009; Epihov et al., 2017). Additionally, basalt application can enhance N assimilation and nitrogen use efficiency (Beerling et al., 2024). This may be through increased availability of soil Mo for plant uptake, which is often limited in acidic tropical soils (Barron et al., 2009). At a long-term trial in the US corn belt, Mo was shown to mechanistically increase nitrogen use efficiency through upregulated expression of a Mo co-factor, important for N cycle enzymes, within plants in response to basalt treatment (Beerling et al., 2024). Increases in available Mo may therefore enhance asymbiotic N_2 -fixation by free-living soil bacteria (Epihov et al., 2021) and further contribute to the N nutrition of cacao, particularly in unfertilised or organic settings.

A further co-benefit of N retention could be a reduction in N_2O emissions, a potent GHG with a GWP of up to 298 times that of CO_2 (Mosca et al., 2014). One modelling study using field observations in the US predicted N_2O emissions could decrease by 16% in maize and 9% in miscanthus (Blanc-Betes et al., 2020). This result is supported by a maize mesocosm in the US in which cumulative N_2O emissions were reduced by 29–32% upon a basalt application of 5 t acre , likely caused by increased soil alkalinity and changes in soil structure (Chiaravallotti et al., 2023). Extrapolating to five regions that have high CDR potential (North America, Brazil, Europe, India and China), EW was shown in one model to reduce emissions from N_2O and NO by 18% but increase NH_3 by 2% (Val Martin et al., 2023). Despite limited corroboration from field trials, the curtailment of non- CO_2 emissions offers an additional mechanism to reduce the GHG footprint of cacao production.

Calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg) are necessary for healthy cacao seedlings and plant vigour (Carmona Rojas et al., 2022).

Calcium, among a wide range of critical functions in cacao (see Lubis et al., 2022), contributes to cell wall integrity (Van Stkveninck, 1965) and disease resistance (Butler & Engelhard, 1990). For instance, higher Ca levels can reduce susceptibility to pathogens such as *Phytophthora* spp. (Campanella et al., 2002). Meanwhile, Mg is essential for chlorophyll synthesis and enzyme activation, facilitating photosynthetic activity and metabolic processes within the plant (Ishfaq et al., 2022). Basalt applications have been demonstrated to elevate levels of both Ca and Mg in the soil solution through multiple trials (Conceição et al., 2022; Plata et al., 2021). In fertiliser trials, specific nutrient ratios of Ca/Mg have exhibited positive correlations with cacao yield (Marrocos et al., 2020), and rock dissolution could impact these crucial ratios.

The essential micronutrients (B, Cl, Cu, Fe, Mn, Mo, Ni and Zn) and the elements not yet widely recognised as essential but which can contribute to the development of crops (Co, Se, Na and Si), are of vital importance for cultivated plants (Chepote et al., 2013; Epstein & Bloom, 2004; Souza et al., 2018; Taiz et al., 2014). Of these, zinc (Zn) is the micronutrient with the highest frequency of deficiency in soils cultivated with cocoa trees; essential for auxin prevention, enzyme activation, carbohydrate formation and indoleacetic acid (IAA); its deficiency results in shortening of the internodes and cell reduction (Chepote et al., 2013; Souza et al., 2018). The use of silicate rocks on soils with low starting TE contents may induce a 'micronutrient fertilisation effect' and alleviate issues associated with zinc deficiency (Dupla et al., 2023).

Except for Fe, Cl, Mo and Ni, whose demand for cacao is often met due to low requirements or indirect supply, other micronutrients require regular supplementation. In this context, the application of silicate rocks, containing traces of micronutrients in their composition, represents a viable alternative to complement the supply of these elements. Sodium (Na), classified as a beneficial element, may perform functions similar to those of potassium (K) (Epstein & Bloom, 2004). Gattward et al. (2012) demonstrated that, in clonal cocoa seedlings, the partial replacement of K by Na resulted in greater net photosynthesis and water use efficiency. In addition, studies indicate that the application of small doses of Na can stimulate the rooting and production of cocoa fruits, without compromising clay flocculation, soil aggregation and porosity (Erwiyono et al., 2002). These findings highlight the need for further research on the role of Na in cocoa cultivation, especially considering its presence in silicate rocks.

Silicon (Si) application to cacao can increase photosynthesis, formation of lignin, stomatal density (Fantinato et al., 2018) and protection from harmful UV-B radiation (Zanetti et al., 2023), leading to structural integrity in cacao plants. Importantly, Si content in plants is essential for disease defence (Fantinato et al., 2018) and stress resistance (Eneji et al., 2008), along with tolerance to heavy metals (Liu et al., 2020). However, cacao is often grown on highly weathered soils, and the reservoir of silicate minerals is frequently in crystalline structures with slow dissolution rates (De Tombour et al., 2020) and plant-available Si pools can become depleted over time (De Tombour et al., 2020). The potential of EW to increase plant-available Si

remains a subject of debate. While silicate rock dust dissolution can release Si into the soil (Reynaert et al., 2023), the associated increase in soil pH may reduce Si bioavailability (Meunier et al., 2018). Si

release rates vary depending on soil type, as pH influences the reactivity of different soil Si pools (Lim et al., 2023). Nonetheless, studies on basalt (Kelland et al., 2020) and wollastonite (Jariwala et al., 2022)

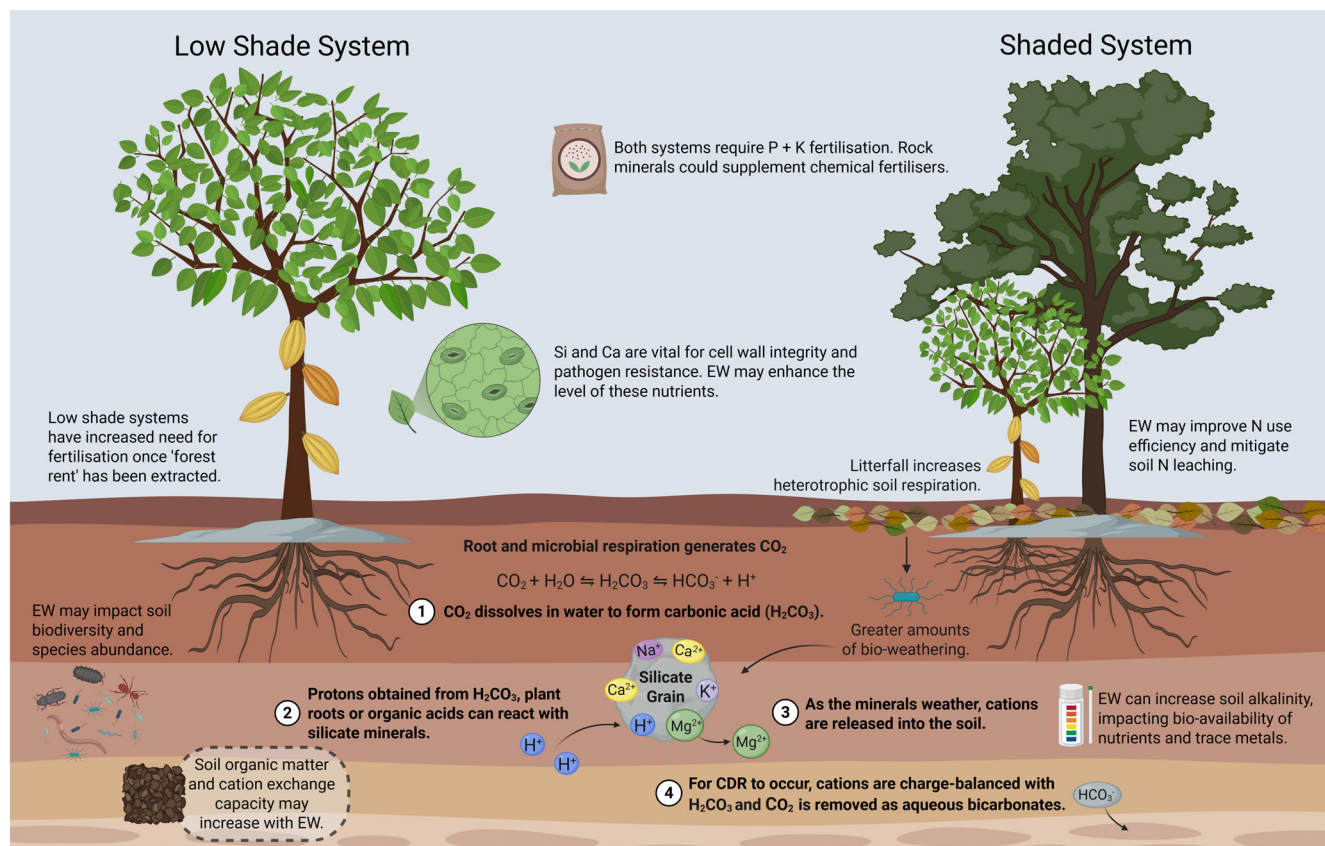


FIGURE 5 Potential Co-benefits of Enhanced Weathering for Cacao-Agroforestry. (Steeley, 2025).

Global Distribution of Basic and Intermediate Rock

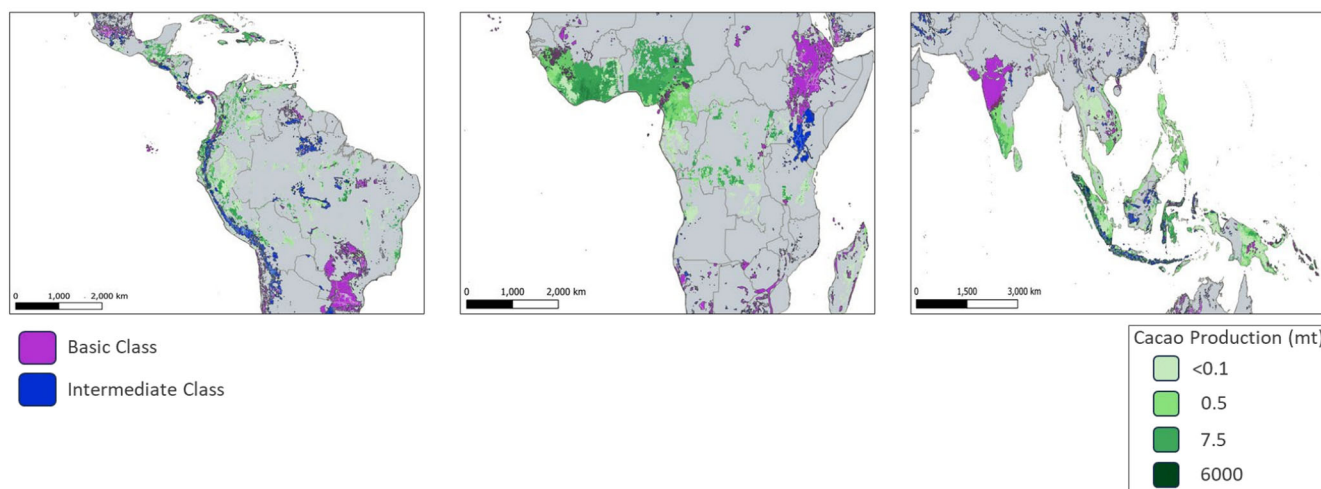


FIGURE 6 Global lithology distribution map of Basic and Intermediate rock. Rock sources were identified from the GLiM rock database and rock class is classified as detailed in Hartmann et al., 2013. Cacao production was retrieved from International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), 2024. Map was created in QGIS software (<https://qgis.org>) and with Natural Earth physical vectors (scale 1:10 m). Map does not represent all silicate rock deposits or cacao producing areas.

have demonstrated increased plant-available Si in the short term during mesocosm incubations, as pH increases are relatively limited after a single rock dust application. However, long-term trials in the US Corn Belt (Beerling et al., 2024) and Malaysia (unpublished data) show that basalt-amended crops do not benefit from increases in biomass Si, as the stable 0.5–1.0 pH unit increase in soil promotes Si adsorption into an amorphous opaline pool not immediately available to plants. These findings suggest that silicate rock weathering may offer a viable and sustainable strategy for replenishing depleted Si pools in agricultural soils.

These findings highlight the potential of EW materials in cacao cultivation, although current research has primarily focused on short-term effects, necessitating long-term studies for sustainability assessment. Variability in silicate rock composition and soil-specific interactions requires further investigation, urging comprehensive geochemical analyses. Evaluating rock dust's influence on soil microbial communities and resilience to climate change stressors is imperative. In conclusion, while previous studies have addressed the potential benefits of EW application in cacao farming, ongoing research is essential to fully understand its impact on soil health, productivity and nutrient cycling; refer to Figure 5.

5 | FEASIBILITY

The feasibility of implementing EW practices in cacao farming depends, in part, on the proximity of farms to sources of weatherable silicate rock feedstock (e.g., basalt, gabbro, andesite, pyroxenite), as this relationship influences both transportation costs and the GHG emissions associated with material distribution (Eufrazio et al., 2022). Geographic separation introduces logistical and economic complexities for EW implementation. For instance, in a life cycle assessment of EW in São Paulo State, 990 ± 116 km was the limit for basalt transport above which the emissions associated with transport severely limit the potential capture (Lefebvre et al., 2019). By strategically utilising existing infrastructure for agricultural lime distribution and repurposing basalt waste, disruption to established practices can be minimised while reducing environmental impact. For cases where natural silicate rock deposits are located far from established cacao farms, refer to Figure 6; alternative CDR and sustainability strategies may be more appropriate. As demonstrated by Eufrazio et al. (2022), a clean energy mix and electrification of transport and rock grinding processes will improve the environmental and sustainability capacity of EW. Therefore, the CDR potential of EW on cacao farms needs to be determined holistically. Addressing these logistical tasks could support a challenging but potentially transformative solution for carbon sequestration in the cocoa industry.

6 | ADOPTION AND APPLICATION

EW could sustainably boost yields and reduce liming and fertilisation costs, with carbon credits helping to offset silicate rock application

expenses and improve financial viability for farmers. However, as seen with other sustainability payment initiatives such as the Ghana Cocoa REDD+ (Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation), engagement and uptake will be low if policy backing is weak and the financing does not improve living income for farmers and cover costs to transition (Dugasseh & Zandersen, 2025). Using current technologies to track CDR, monitoring and verification (MRV) processes for EW is labour-intensive, along with the physical spreading of the rock dust. Interventions to improve yield in smallholder farmers, including pest and disease management, received poor uptake when the increased production was not sufficient to cover the labour costs associated with the management practice (Scudder et al., 2022). Therefore, to increase adoption, low-cost MRV needs to be developed along with careful design of rock application rates. To minimise the machinery and labour costs associated with spreading, high rates, representing multiple applications of rock

TABLE 2 Knowledge Gaps in Enhanced Rock Weathering.

Knowledge Gap	Description
Quantifying Carbon Sequestration	Accurate measurement of carbon removal (CDR) through enhanced rock weathering (EW) remains challenging. Robust methodologies are needed to assess weathering rates, carbon storage and associated co-benefits, particularly in diverse agroforestry settings.
Biodiversity Impacts	The potential effects of EW on biodiversity within cocoa agroforestry systems, including shade trees and associated fauna, require further investigation.
Nutrient Cycling Dynamics	A deeper understanding of EW's impact on nutrient cycling, including nitrogen (N) dynamics, phosphorus (P) availability, and the release of potentially toxic elements, is crucial for optimising its application in cocoa production.
Soil & Rock Grain Microbial Interactions	The interplay between EW, soil properties and microbial communities remains poorly understood. Research is needed to determine how EW influences microbial activity, organic matter decomposition and nutrient availability.
Long-Term Effects	Most studies focus on short-term impacts. Long-term field trials are needed to assess the sustainability of EW practices and their effects on soil health, crop productivity and ecosystem services.
N ₂ O Emissions	The impact of EW on N ₂ O emissions is under-researched and could present an additional pathway to reducing cacao's climate impacts.
Socioeconomic Considerations	Research is needed to evaluate the economic feasibility and social acceptability of EW for cocoa farmers, including equitable benefit-sharing mechanisms and strategies to mitigate social and environmental risks.

dust, could be spread before the trees are planted, with further applications being targeted around the base of the tree, at the width of the canopy, where root density and therefore agronomic benefits will be highest.

Beyond logistical considerations, the application of finely crushed rock dust poses potential risks to human health, particularly for individuals directly involved in its handling and distribution. Fine particulate matter has been associated with respiratory risks, including silicosis, a condition linked to the inhalation of silica particles (Merget et al., 2002). Such risks may be higher without appropriate protective equipment, such as masks or respirators. For smallholder farmers in resource-limited settings, limited access to safety measures could increase the likelihood of adverse health outcomes. Addressing these challenges may require investment in technologies and training programs tailored to the needs of smallholder farmers, along with the provision of protective equipment, to mitigate health risks associated with rock dust application.

7 | KNOWLEDGE GAPS IN ENHANCED ROCK WEATHERING FOR COCOA AGROFORESTRY

This review highlights several critical knowledge gaps that hinder the effective implementation of EW in cocoa agroforestry systems, which are listed in Table 2.

8 | CONCLUSION

Cacao production faces complex and interlinked challenges, including low yields, poverty among smallholder farmers and substantial environmental impacts caused by land-use change and input-intensive practices. This review highlights the potential of integrated climate-smart strategies, specifically agroforestry and enhanced rock weathering, to mitigate greenhouse gas emissions, enhance soil health and improve climate resilience. However, key knowledge gaps persist regarding long-term effects, nutrient cycling and the socio-economic feasibility of these approaches. Given the multidimensional nature of these challenges, multifaceted, systemic responses are essential. The cocoa sector must adapt through scalable, evidence-based interventions that align environmental sustainability with the economic realities of smallholder farming systems.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

I.L.S., E.S.F., D.Z.E., N.J.P and D.J.B wrote the manuscript.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We acknowledge the financial support of the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC) and Mondelēz International, Inc. (Project Reference: 2850515). The authors would like to thank the editorial team and the anonymous reviewers for their insightful comments and suggestions, which significantly improved

the manuscript. The authors would also like to thank Euripides Kantzas for his insight on GIS mapping.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

D.J.B has a minority equity stake in companies (Future Forest/Undo) and is an advisory board member of The Carbon Community, a UK carbon removal charity. N.J.P. was a co-founder of the CDR company Lithos Carbon but has no remaining financial ties to the company. E.S. F is an independent contractor at the Cocoa Innovation Centre, which is part of the Southern Bahia Science and Technology Park. The remaining authors declare no competing interests.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available in FAO-STAT at <https://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/QCL>, reference number 44. These data were derived from the following resources available in the public domain: International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI). (2024). Global Spatially-Disaggregated Crop Production Statistics Data for 2020 [10.7910/DVN/SWPENT](https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/SWPENT).

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How to cite this article: Steeley, I. L., França, E. S., Epihov, D. Z., Planavsky, N. J., & Beerling, D. J. (2025). Agroforestry and enhanced rock weathering: A dual strategy for sustainable cacao. *Plants, People, Planet*, 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ppp3.70097>