AGRICULTURE AND ORGANIC FARMING

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CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW AND CONCEPT OF ORGANIC AGRICULTURE

Thiruchitrambalam, Professor
Department of ISME,ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, India
Email Id-thiru.chitrambalam@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

An introduction and theoretical investigation of organic farming, a sustainable and green agricultural method. Organic farming places a strong emphasis on using biodiversity, ecological balance, and natural processes to improve soil health, lessen environmental impact, and produce food without the use of chemicals. The abstract explores the core tenets of organic farming, such as the avoidance of genetically engineered organisms, the encouragement of crop rotation, and the ban on synthetic pesticides and fertilizers. This overview addresses the comprehensive character of organic agriculture, taking into account its economic, environmental, and social components. It does so by drawing ideasfrom studies in academia and real-world applications. The main ideas of this investigation are captured by terms like biodiversity, eco-friendly, agricultural sustainability, and soil health. This study concludes by highlighting the role that organic agriculture plays in promoting a regenerative agricultural method, bolstering environmental resilience, and offering customers more sustainably produced and healthier food alternatives.

KEYWORD:

Biodiversity, Eco-friendly, Organic Agriculture, Sustainability, Soil Health.

INTRODUCTION

Acquiring food, textiles and other materials from plants and animals has been a significant endeavor Concern for human societies has been present from the earliest days as hunter-gatherers through pastoral and pastoralist societies. There was a trend away from nomadic to sedentary lifestyles during the Sweden phases. Yet, as agricultural production grew and expanded, its negative consequences began to manifest. There has been an increase in the underlying resource base. Environmental harm caused in the past. Air pollution from greenhouse gases is one of the impacts of agriculture. Land degradation as a result of clearing, cultivation, and carbon dioxide. Water pollution from fertilizers, herbicides, overuse and wetlands is caused by sloping land and salinity. Loss of biological and ecological variety[1], [2]. In the middle. In the realm of conventional weed research, for instance, considerable focus has been paid to herbicides, but this has failed to result in a sustained decline in the number of cultivable weeds.

The seriousness of these agricultural sustainability issues is demonstrated by the formal policies put in place in many countries to lessen those impacts and by the financial rewards available for (verified) good environmental performance, even though some may dispute the extent of the damage (OECD 2001). Bans on more pesticides, such as the fumigant methyl bromide, financial incentives for revegetation, fines for water pollution, and funding for studies into efficiency improvement (e.g. fertiliser applications) or damage abatement technologies are some of the policies aimed at improving the environmental sustainability of agriculture[3], [4]. The many policy tools may be used as needed or, better yet, strategically to combine the tools and foster an environment that is conducive to adoption and improvement. Environmental management systems (EMS) for agriculture have gained popularity lately among some farmers, government organizations, and consumers as a means of monitoring performance[5], [6]. Since EMS are still relatively new, they have a number of drawbacks, such as lack of confidence, complexity, financial risk, erratic customer demand, and sporadic proof of environmental improvements tailored to the regional agricultural, social, geographic, and meteorological conditions. Particularly in its present market-driven form, European organic agriculture is not always the most preferred one.

Suitable framework for other nations. The fundamentals of organic farming serve as a framework for customizing organic methods to each unique agricultural site. As an example, there will always beplaces where the existing organic range of techniques cannot be used to produce a certain crop in a sustainable or cost-effective manner. Rational judgments regarding the potential and constraints of organic agriculture may be made, and broad success criteria can be determined, as more is understood about the environmental, social, and economic performance of organic agriculture in an expanding number of contexts (OECD 2003). Environmental conditions more like to those in Europe, the birthplace of organic agriculture, would seem to be ideal. Nonetheless, it has also been shown that low-input systems in isolated areas with marginal environments such as rangeland grazing are excellent candidates for organic farming.

The early proponents of organic farming confronted extremely different agricultural circumstances in New Zealand and especially Australia than they did in Europe[7], [8]. Australia's old, degraded soils, widely scattered production bases, tiny consumption bases, and unpredictable and infrequent rainfall provide significant obstacles to both conventional and organic agriculture. It was going to take some experimenting and adapting. Due to insufficient usage of permitted organic fertilizers, organic farming in certain areas of southeast Australia causes soil phosphorus to be depleted. On the other hand, raising beef cattle organically is simple on the rangelands of western Queensland, farther north, and the farms seem to be just as sustainable as they were before to conversion. It is obvious that certain farm types must be considered while answering the sustainability issue.

The majority of agricultural and food production sectors have been impacted by organic agriculture in several nations; these sectors often began as "direct to customer" or on-farm processing niche industries. It has been modified to create workable sustainable farming techniques that take into account the agronomic and social circumstances of the area. As a consequence, a large number of lucrative and sustainable organic businesses have sprung up all over the globe, demonstrating the potential role that organic agriculture may play in ensuring that agriculture becomes completely sustainable. A tiny portion of the agribusiness industry, which in turn is a minor portion of the larger global socioeconomic system and its prevailing cultural norms, is comprised of organic agriculture[9], [10]. As a result, organic farming has less ability to impact areas such as labor relations, agrichemical regulation, and international commerce. In the US National Organic Program (NOP) discussions, representatives of the organic movement were subordinated to government agencies, exemplifying this lack of influence.

Global politics and markets unavoidably influence the movement's evolution, despite the fact that it may internally strive toward certain goals. Taking a step back to consider the success of the organic movement, it becomes clear that even with its phenomenal rise since the 1990s, organic agriculture still only accounts for a small percentage of all commercial agricultural production. This is in contrast to its roots in early 1900s Europe and its current status as a well-known and thriving niche sector in global agriculture. The chapter reflects on the state of organic agriculture in various nations across the globe and highlights some of the significant figures and developments that have created contemporary organic agriculture. It is also necessary to comprehend the development of the fundamental ideas in order to comprehend the objectives and methods of organic agriculture. Lastly, a few difficulties facing organic farming are noted [11], [12]. Because of the word's ambiguity, it's a troublesome term that may be used to signify a variety of things. In the 1940 book Look to the Land, Northbourne used the word "organic" in reference to farming, writing that "the farm itself must have a biological completeness; it must be a living entity, it must be a unit which has within itself a balanced organic life."

It's obvious that Northbourne was talking about farm management as an integrated, full system rather than just organic inputs like compost. Many nations have legislative restrictions on the use of the term "organic" in relation to food production and agriculture, and some certifying bodies have stricter compliance standards than others. Because it is in line with their customary production techniques, many farmers in less developed nations may automatically engage in organic agriculture. To provide an overview of the goals of the production methods, it is helpful to give a broad description of organic agriculture. The definition of "organic agriculture" as it is used here is taken from the Codex.

Nevertheless, the word is enlarged to include not just the on-farm production components but also the whole organic and biodynamic supply chain from inputs to finished manufactured items, as well as the cultural and social aspects of the movement. According to Cornish and Stewart (2002), the term "organic movement" may not be relevant anymore and that "organic industry" is the most accurate word. Nonetheless, the fact that organic agriculture continues to play a significant social and political role implies that it is more than simply a business. Reducing tillage in conservation farming is still a societal movement. Organic standards are dynamic; certification criteria are often revised every several years. Typically, certification bodies have a certification review committee that takes into account newly developed manufacturing and processing methods, updated information on currently permitted inputs, and newly made materials accessible for usage.

DISCUSSION

The phrase "conventional agriculture" often refers to the mainstream, dominant agricultural methods that are employed by growers and farmers all over the globe and are supported and studied by the majority of corporate and government organizations. Conventional agriculture often only places limitations on management that are mandated by law. Conventional and organic agriculture define one another to some degree. The notion of organic agriculture was not possible until the emergence of a different agricultural paradigm that made distinctions possible. In fact, the word "organic" did not gain widespread use until the 1960s. It is acknowledged that the term "conventional" conceals the wide range of management techniques employed. For instance, a permaculture orchardist may decide to use herbicides to control woody weeds on sloping land, while a conventional grain grower may use mineral fertilizers in addition to green manures and pesticides. The increasing use of EMS suggests that the need for better agricultural impact monitoring is being acknowledged at different stages of the supply chain.

The emergence of contemporary "industrially based" agriculture is closely linked to the beginnings of modern organic agriculture. Before the development of chemically synthesized fertilizers, biocides, medications, mechanization, and fossil fuels, which enable industrial agriculture to operate, many of the methods used in organic agriculture were the only options available to farmers. Farmers had little choice but to operate within biological and ecological systems in the absence of such tools. For instance, soil that had been fertilized with crops could only be replenished with nutrients from leguminous plants, manure from animals, and human waste. Pests accumulated since there were no insecticides to keep them under control when crops were not rotated. According to this viewpoint, "conventional" industrial agriculture is the kind that deviates from the methods that agriculture has been using from its start, whereas organic agriculture is the original and mainstream kind.

The distinction between industrial and organic agriculture began at the beginning of the 1800s when it was found that plants absorbed mineral salts found in humus and manure rather than organic materials. The main authors of this theory were Justus von Liebig (1840) and Sir Humphrey Davy (1813), who published their theories in Elements of Agricultural Chemistry and Organic Chemistry in its Application to Agriculture and Physiology. They claimed that by substituting inorganic mineral fertilizers for manures, agriculture might become more scientifically grounded and see gains in productivity and efficiency. The first commercial manufacturing of inorganic fertilisers coincided with the start of the agricultural revolution in the 1840s. Like all revolutions, however, there were setbacks, and major fertilizer use did not happen until the outbreak of World War Two.The 1960s saw a great deal of change and turmoil in the organic movement, which is why the beliefs of some of its pioneers are no longer relevant to the current organic movement. The release of Rachel Carson's book Silent Spring in 1962 marked a significant turning point and the beginning of the contemporary organic and environmental movements.

This shift may very well be seen as a revolution or, at the very least, a major advancement for the organic movement. In fact, just as most members of the present organic movement are unfamiliar with the politics and religion of certain pioneers, many of the concerns and ideas of environmentalism and modern organic agriculture would be foreign to many of the organic pioneers. One may make the case that environmentalism kept the organic movement from going extinct since it had lost the post-World War II debate over the future of agriculture and had been steadily declining through the 1950s. Thus, while there has been a continuity of membership and thinking from the beginning to the present, the current organic movement is quite different from its historical incarnations. In addition to the founders' concerns for healthy soil, good food, and healthy people, environmental sustainability is now at the center of it. The world became aware of the harm that poisons and pesticides were causing to the environment when Silent Spring came to pass. As a result, in addition to the arguments the organic movement had been making against industrial farming for many years, Silent Spring offered a whole new set of reasons against it.

During the 1960s, when Silent Spring was released, there was also a great deal of social unrest and change. There were new schools of political and philosophical thought that were being vigorously discussed. Numerous of them had a significant impact on the evolving organic movement as well. What effects may economic growth have on the environment if it keeps up its present rate? What steps can be taken to guarantee that the human economy fits within the boundaries of the Earth and provides enough for everyone? Another was Small is Beautiful: A Study of Economics as if People Mattered by E.F. Schumacher, published in 1974. It had many radical concepts, such as the notion that economic development should be sacrificed in favor of a more meaningful working life and that the primary objective of economics should be quality of life. Schumacher served as The Soil Association's president as well.

During the 1970s, organic farming made a comeback as an eco-agriculture. Numerous organizations were established, many of which centered on the certification of farmers and growers, and those that already existed were strengthened. Organic farming was becoming more popular, but it was still very much outside the mainstream of both national politics and agriculture. Despite the movement's hard work, officials were not taking much notice of it. On the other hand, the degree of self-organization was rising quickly, moving from solitary groupings to more coordinated activity. One of the turning points in the history of social and political movements is the establishment of an official international network. This led to the establishment of the International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movements (IFOAM) in 1972, which is now the only non-governmental organization (NGO) dedicated to organic farming worldwide. It was not a simple process to create and maintain. In its early years, it was mostly dependent on unpaid labor, a great deal of goodwill, and the possibility of financial instability, much like many other organic organizations. It has developed into an organization that now commands the respect of national governments after being disregarded or contested by them.The 1980s saw an explosive rise in organic agriculture. There are many causes behind this, many of which were uncontrollable for the movement. The public's concerns about the increasing loss of important aspects of the agricultural landscape, the intensification of livestock production (such as battery hens), and food scares (such as bacterial contamination) had made the intensification of agriculture a national political issue. As a result, the public learned about the inner workings of industrial food production and processing systems, many of which they found shocking and disgusting. During food scares, consumption of organic food increased significantly because it provided an alternative.

In many industrialized nations, rising disposable income and affluence have made organic food very "fashionable" among upper socioeconomic categories. This is quite paradoxical since organic agriculture's guiding principles and philosophy are opposed to the buying and eating of organic food as a social status symbol. In the 1980s, organic agriculture saw significant expansion outside of the industrialized nations of western Europe and North America, particularly in Oceania, Central and South America, Asia, and Africa. In addition to having labor available, lucrative export profits, a large number of these locations had pre-existing indigenous agricultural methods that could be easily converted to organic agriculture, and some of these areas even got backing from governments, non-governmental organizations, and aid agencies. While there are other local and regional movements globally that bear resemblance to or are compatible with organic agriculture, organic agriculture has emerged as the most popular and extensively used supplementary agricultural method. The other systems demonstrate how, in response to their worldviews and the natural, intellectual, and financial resources at their disposal, many communities create their own methods of low-external-input or non-chemical farming. These native systems are very valuable in and of themselves.

The concept and practice of "agroecology," a scientific approach to low-input farming, have been developed using the principles and practices observed in the traditional farming systems of Central and South America, which have been the subject of extensive research over many years. Organic agriculture is ideally suited to the focus on supporting biological and ecological processes, making use of available resources, and engaging in local trade within the agricultural community. throughout terms of certified land area and the number of farms, organic agriculture has been widely adopted throughout Central and South America; Mexico has the most farms and Argentina has the second-highest amount of land worldwide under organic farming. Many organic producers in Central and South America have found success, mostly in export markets, because to their region's enormous agricultural base, variety of conditions, adequate labor supply, and closeness to North America. However, the process of farmers adopting and adapting to organic agriculture has been impacted by socioeconomic restrictions such land tenure and poverty. Aquaculture and mariculture are two very valuable facets of integrated farming that the organic movement has historically ignored. However, there are certain ecological farmers in Asia who have in-depth understanding of these topics and can easily incorporate them with organic farming practices. Although China has a long history of sustainable agricultural production, the 20th century saw the modernization of farming techniques, which resulted in the loss of traditional knowledge and methods.

When China started conducting an ecological agricultural research and demonstration program in the 1980s, this tendency shifted. With tea approved by a foreign body, they had joined the global organic market by 1990. The Organic Food Development Center was founded in 1994, and a set of national organic standards was released the following year In contrast to the majority of nations where organic agriculture has been a farmer/consumer-based movement that was first supported from the bottom up, China is unique in that the adoption of organic agriculture has been a top-down approach. For instance, Cuba is a socialist nation.Severe poverty and very challenging agricultural circumstances are prevalent over most of Africa. The task of creating solutions is a continuous one, and several tactics that are individually tailored to the requirements of the community being served will probably be required.

Only a few African nations have embraced organic agriculture. For instance, the Kenyan Institute of Organic Farming was founded in 1987, which facilitated the exchange of knowledge about organic farming practices. Despite initial opposition from the government, the country now boasts the highest number of IFOAM members of any African country West African nations like Senegal and Burkina Faso have also established non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that set local certification standards in order to lower the costs associated with external certification; offer training in organic food processing, labeling, packaging, and storage; and create local and remote markets for the sale of organic produce. These NGOs primarily do this by developing systems that demonstrate how the certification standards in the exporting and importing nations are equivalent, a system that is similar to and duplicates IFOAM's Organic Guarantee System. In international/intergovernmental organizations like the European Union (EU) and the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, significant political progress was also being accomplished. With subsequent "food scares" like the UK's bovine spongiform encephalopathy (BSE) and the public's growing awareness of "genetic engineering," which in some regions of Asia, Australasia, and especially Europe became a contentious political issue, public concerns about food and its production systems persisted.

science is being used more and more to highlight the advantages of organic farming and the drawbacks of industrial agriculture. This aided organic organizations in arguing for much tighter collaboration with other organizations that share their environmental values, such as nature conservation groups. It also shown that organic farms might be the site of fruitful research. Since the 1980s, a large number of international organic research centers and associations have been founded. They have also actively participated in new research projects in the fields of agronomy, environmental science, and social science, documented and published their findings to meet the high demand for information, and given farmers and advisors access to extension and training programs. A number of non-governmental organizations and businesses started serving as an additional role to the certifying authorities by independently evaluating items meant for use in certified organic cultivation, handling, and processing. Such organizations include Pesticide Action Network North America and the Organic Materials Review Institute. By the late 1990s, there was growing fear that organic agriculture was losing its vision and adopting the practices of industrial agriculture.

Serves both a substitute for traditional agriculture and a source of methods and ideas that traditional agriculture might use to become more sustainable. To get to this place, nevertheless, has led to certain conventional agricultural methods being adopted by organic agriculture that are incompatible with organic principles. There is now a push on to direct the organic movement toward resolving these difficulties; yet, compared to the progress made on the farm, many of these off-farm issues like food miles might be more difficult to resolve.India has had other revolutions throughout the years, including the green, yellow, blue, white, and brown ones, but the green revolution is the most well-known. Claiming that the revolution had made the country self-sufficient with excess food for the growing population, it was hailed as a success. The misuse of High Yielding Varieties (HYVs), excessive application rates of chemical fertilizers and pesticides, and extensive agricultural machinery contributed to the misguided glory of the Green Revolution and created previously unheard-of strains on our natural resource base.

The output of two primary crops wheat and rice increased during the early phases of the green revolution, but at the expense of other crops like millets, oilseeds, and pulses as well as overuse of rich soils and limited water supplies. The high chemical dose increased soil salinity and contaminated groundwater supplies while also degrading the physical, chemical, and biological qualities of the soil. Pesticide usage has been causing major issues for the environment and human health. The cultivation of HYVs has reduced the amount of green biomass produced on farms, which has altered the mode of traditional agriculture and caused cattle to vanish from the farms. This has also reduced biodiversity, biological productivity, and nutrient recycling, leading to a crisis of non-sustainability that is both ecologically and economically dire. Even though the world produces enough food to feed everyone, we haven't been able to effectively combat hunger at the family level. The cause is not a shortage of food production, but rather the erosion of rights due to either a lack of money to cultivate or pay for the food, or the theft of land, water, and other natural resources from the less fortunate members of society.

Despite the green revolution's original concentration on monocultures and externalization of ecological and environmental costs, it misrepresented a deceptive rise in yield despite the careless exploitation of natural resources. This "yield" was the consequence of expensive chemical fertilizers, insecticides, irrigation, and high-yielding crop types combined to produce an unsustainable amount of product. This lethal combination led to farmers being forced into a debt trap once the first subsidies were removed, which caused severe disruptions to the ecological, economic, social, and cultural fabric of rural India, which was once thriving and healthy. Globalization is making the problem worse by allowing avaricious and shrewd corporations to further indebt farmers via the use of hazardous agrochemicals and nonrenewable seeds. Due to rising production costs and plummeting farm produce prices brought on by globalization, the nation is seeing a "Suicidal Economy" in which thousands of farmers are taking their own lives.

CONCLUSION

The overview and conceptual investigation of organic agriculture highlight the critical role that organic farming has played in forming a more ecologically responsible and sustainable agricultural practice. With its focus on soil health, biodiversity, and avoiding synthetic inputs, organic agriculture offers a comprehensive and regenerative approach to food production. The study emphasizes that organic farming is a concept that supports ecological balance, environmental resilience, and human well-being in addition to being a technique of agriculture. Organic farming is becoming more and more important as customers place a higher priority on sustainable and healthful food choices. Adopting and promoting organic farming methods advances the larger objective of creating resilient and environmentally friendly food systems in addition to the sustainability of individual farms. Therefore, our investigation confirms the value of organic farming in promoting a peaceful coexistence of people and the environment, which will eventually result in a more sustainable and regenerative agricultural future.

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CHAPTER 2

ANALYSIS OF THE PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIC AGRICULTURE

Poonam Singh, Associate Professor
Department of ISME,ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, India
Email Id-poonam.singh@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:
The tenets of organic agriculture, a farming method that is sustainable and ecologically friendly. The fundamental ideas of organic agricultural practices biodiversity, ecological balance, and soil health are examined in this study. The research clarifies how these principles direct organic farmers in producing crops without synthetic pesticides and fertilizers, encouraging crop rotation, and avoiding genetically modified organisms via a thorough assessment of academic literature and real-world implementations. The key elements of this study are captured by terms like agroecology, biodiversity, organic agriculture, sustainability, and soil health. The paper's conclusion highlights how crucial these ideas are to creating an eco-friendly and regenerative agricultural paradigm that improves human health, the environment, and the sustainability of our food systems as a whole.

KEYWORDS:

Agroecology, Biodiversity, Organic Agriculture, Sustainability, Soil Health.

INTRODUCTION

Organic Agriculture in order to comprehend the intentions, methods, and driving forces of organic farmers. These guidelines provide the essential objectives and warnings that are thought to be significant for producing high-quality food, fiber, and other products in an ecologically responsible manner.As the organic agricultural movement has grown, so too have its guiding ideals. The broader environmental movement's alliance with modern organic agriculture has led to the development of concepts that are more environmentally focused than those from the first half of the 20th century. Furthermore, the ideas have just been formalized and made public in the past 30 years[1], [2]. The tenets of organic agriculture remained unwritten for a large portion of its history since farmers' practices and thinking were predicated on them. Up to now, the IFOAM "basic standards" of the organic guarantee system have included the concepts. Accordingly they functioned as an introduction to the standards, outlining the objectives of organic agriculture. Throughout the years, there have been several additions and modifications to the initial seven principles. The process of revision was carried out at the biannual General Assembly, when participants presented amendment proposals for discussion and voting. As part of the standards reform, they have also been modified.

Principle aims of organic agriculture for production and processing are the result of this process. The list as of right now There has been a growing perception in recent years that the core objectives have eroded, gotten bloated, and lack consistency. A global board taskforce was established in 2002 to rewrite the principles as a consequence of a resolution that was approved by the IFOAM General Assembly[3], [4]. The taskforce's findings, which were reached after extensive deliberation, will be presented to the 2005 General Assembly for approval. They are thus now a work in progress, with the first draft having been released. In addition to this effort, other people have been discussing and improving upon the draft principles of organic principles. In order to provide stakeholders and decision makers a uniform framework on which to base suggestions, Benbrook and Kirschenmann produced a concise set of principles during the 1990s when US governments were creating regulations to regulate the manufacture, marketing, and sale of organic foods[5], [6]. Around the same period, in response to perceived ambiguities in the guiding principles of organic agriculture and the necessity for specific principles to direct research planning, the Danish Research Centre for Organic Farming (DARCOF) launched a nationwide discourse on the subject.

The principles of organic agriculture ought to be the same as those of natural ecological systems. Ecological systems are thought of as self-sufficient, self-contained, and self-maintaining. For instance, the majority of plant nutrients are constantly cycled within the ecosystem, and the systems are thought to be self-regulating because a variety of both positive and negative feedback mechanisms work together to keep plant and animal populations within predetermined bounds. This means that farms should not use interventional techniques like pesticides derived from natural sources, but rather should work within a closed system for nutrients, steer clear of fossil fuels, and design farming systems that are self-regulating, like growing plants that increase biological control agent populations so that they control pests. The fairness concept is concerned with guaranteeing the ethical treatment of animals as well as the interactions between the many groups of people engaged in agriculture, such as landowners, workers, and consumers.

The social equality aspect of organic agriculture has always been significant, and although it was less prominent in the 1980s and 1990s, there are growing requests for it to be given more attention. This implies that farmers should be paid fairly for their produce, workers shouldn't be exploited, and customers should be able to purchase high-quality goods at a fair price. Workers should also get a fair salary for their labor that enables them to live in dignity. The organic and fair trade movements are now collaborating closely to implement these concerns, which are also central to the "fair trade" movement. The idea that the actions of the current generation shouldn't have an adverse effect on future generations also applies to generations to come.

With regard to livestock, the concept mandates that farmers handle animals with compassion and morality. This is a complicated and divisive topic since opinions on how animals should be treated have evolved significantly in the last several years and vary greatly across cultures. As a result, the organic movement continues to debate issues such as animal rights, ethical animal care, and even the need of livestock in organic systems. In this discussion, the main points of contention include making sure that animals are housed in healthy, stress- and pain-free environments that are in harmony with their physiology and natural behavior[7], [8]. This results in certification requirements for the design of livestock buildings, stocking densities, refraining from feeding animals anything they wouldn't normally consume, and not breeding animals to have innate defects like turkeys' weak legs.

The "Precautionary Principle," which was defined at the Wingspread Conference Centre in Wisconsin in January 1998 (Montague 1998), is embodied in the principle of care. According to this definition, "When an activity raises threats of harm to human health or the environment, precautionary measures should be taken even if some cause-and-effect relationships are not fully established scientifically." The logic of risk management and cost-benefit analysis is actually reversed by the precautionary and care principles, which state that an activity must be shown to be detrimental in order to be prohibited from being used. Activities that have the potential to be dangerous must demonstrate their safety before being approved, according to the precautionary and care principles. The care principle makes sure that new technologies that might be detrimental are not used in organic agriculture without a full knowledge of them and precautions against possible damage[9], [10].This perspective, which holds that the technology has a high potential for causing unintended negative effects and that people other than those who benefit from it will bear the cost of such effects, is a key component of the organic movement's argument against the use of genetically modified organisms. The organic movement believes that appraising new technology is challenging and will be a topic of discussion. In contrast, a number of new technologies, such ensilaging grass and innovative equipment, have been avidly embraced by organic agriculture. This is because these technologies have a minimal potential for unanticipated bad effects, can be discontinued, and the user is most likely to suffer from any issues that arise. The concept of care encompasses not just current generations but also the environment in its whole, aspects that are sometimes overlooked in risk assessment and cost-benefit evaluations.

DISCUSSION

Fundamentally, organic farming is a whole-systems/holistic approach to agricultural production and land management. This is shown by the method of controlling pests, which involves the design and interaction of the farm as a whole as opposed to industrial agriculture, which views pests as isolated entities that must be managed with pesticides. This holistic approach has its roots in the early days of organic farming, when the farm was seen as a unified, self-governing organism rather than a dispersed set of components. The word "organic" came from this idea that the farm is an organism, and it follows the same reasoning as James Lovelock's thesis that the earth is one big organism. Common resource exchanges (labor, inputs, and output) at the village or district level between farms would have sounded natural to the early proponents of organic agriculture. It is possible for agricultural laborers from a third nation to use inputs from another country in order to produce food for a fourth country.

Another perspective held by organic agriculture is that people are obviously a part of nature, neither apart from it nor in charge of it. This viewpoint highlights the need for people to cooperate with ecological systems and other natural phenomena, rather than oppose them. Using renewable energy, maintaining closed nutrient cycles, and avoiding pollution production are a few examples. Organic agriculture, however, is a part of a larger civilization, and it can only accomplish these goals in tandem with the rest of society. For instance, when the community consuming organic products lacks a practical way to return the nutrients in the food to the farm, it is difficult to operate within closed nutrient cycles. agriculture takes the ecological stance that such systems are extraordinarily complex and, at certain points, fundamentally unpredictable, and considers the state of scientific understanding and knowledge of such systems as incomplete. When people alter or meddle with natural systems, this perspective on unpredictability is particularly relevant since it raises the possibility that the unfavorable consequences will likely outweigh the positives. The precautionary principle is used in this case as well since it may take decades or even centuries for harmful impacts of modifications to ecological and other natural systems to manifest, after which it will be hard to reverse them.

In addition, organic farming is a very moral method of producing food since it prioritizes the welfare of both people and animals. For example, it makes sure that farmers are paid fairly for their labor and are not taken advantage of by customers. Additionally, there is a strong undercurrent of social justice that dates back to the early proponents of organic farming and is present in all "green" movements worldwide. There is a belief that agriculture is more basic and distinct from other "industries," and that people should get back in touch with it. Reestablishing such ties is seen as a crucial first step in tackling the societal issues that the organic movement has identified.

These ideas underpin organic agriculture, which stands in stark contrast to industrial farming and its underlying "reductionist" philosophy, which permits the cultivation of every crop in isolation and treats problems with nutrition, pests, and diseases on an individual basis rather than as a system. The military commercial names of numerous pesticides and herbicides, such Invade, Ambush, and Warrior, show how industrial farming also reflects a hostile mindset and a separation between humans and environment! Additionally, farming is seen as simply another kind of production, not a vital component of a civilization, and as such, it shouldn't be given any more privileges or restrictions than other production sectors.

Industrial agriculture and its underlying ideology are fundamentally different from organic agriculture and the philosophy that supports it. The fast rise of market-driven organic agriculture during the 1990s has blurred this distinction between them. Understanding the organic movement's worldview and guiding principles which often contain views that are drastically different from those of mainstream society is crucial to comprehending the movement in its entirety. Although organic agriculture seeks to be ecologically sustainable, there are still problems that need to be solved and it has not yet achieved its full potential. The influence of tillage in organic agriculture and the industrialization of organic production systems are two important themes that were chosen for special consideration. Many of these concerns are covered in depth in other chapters of this book. Regarding its yields, the organic movement is often questioned can organic agriculture feed the world? Similar to problems of sustainability, a variety of variables influence productivity, such as the farmer's educational background, the inventiveness of the farm, and the availability of local and federal support systems. Is the world now effectively fed by traditional agriculture? could be a better question to ask. The world is presently not being fed by high input-high yielding systems due of issues with social organization, poverty, racism, and gender inequality, as well as issues with food distribution and production.

From the 1980s, organic literature has often included comparisons between organic and conventional farming. The researchers have examined a broad range of metrics on a variety of farm types, such as dairies, orchards, and mixed cropping farms, including yield, economics, resource usage efficiency, environmental consequences, and social variables. More basic, underlying disparities between systems may also occur. Some significant instances of comparative study have been published in renowned publications, lending vital legitimacy to assertions that organic agriculture is sustainable and productive. Certain agricultural methods aim to do more than just cultivate products for market. In addition to managing agricultural factories, organic farmers must also take on the role of stewards of the land.

Conventional farmers are not subject to the same constraints as organic farmers; instead, they have to abide by an expanding array of environmental and social regulations. In a recent interview, Wes Giblett, a biodynamic dairy farmer in Western Australia, emphasised that the goal is to increase topsoil. He highlighted that successful sustainable farming is based on effective agricultural management, which is evidenced by deepening topsoil. Operating the only organic dairy in Western Australia, Wes provides services to a population of about 1.5 million people in a State spanning 2.5 million square kilometers, which is ten times bigger than Germany. Despite running a highly profitable vertically integrated dairy products company, his main agricultural interests are topsoil, his cows' wellbeing, and advancing organic agriculture in his area. Seeking the fundamental principles and underlying processes of organic agriculture is a more valuable endeavor than restricting the investigation to a comparison approach. It is possible to make improvements for organic farmers and communicate pertinent information to conventional farmers who are open to it by analyzing the advantages and disadvantages of the organic system. For many farmers and consumers, organic agriculture is a viable alternative in a world full with options. Improving the productivity and environmental effect of organic agriculture requires careful review and the backing of reliable research.The difficulties faced by organic farmers may vary depending on the region and the products being grown, but certain issues will be shared by all organic farmers. Farmers are still concerned about agronomic restrictions such as soil fertility, weeds, and animal health. Farmers, processors, and consumers all get frustrated by the shortcomings in marketing and regulatory frameworks. Extensionists and researchers have a harder time attracting money because of the limited government backing, the absence of major commercial sponsors, and the incapacity of smaller business operations to pay research and development. It will also be difficult to stay true to the organic agricultural tenets. Organic agriculture has gained widespread acceptance after almost a century of development and has enormous economic, social, and environmental potential. Many organic growers and consumers are consciously choosing to purchase cleaner, safer products that are produced with minimal environmental impact and with consideration for the welfare of people and animals involved in production, hidden behind the million-hectare farms and billion-dollar markets. Chemical fertilizers began to take the place of organic farming with the onset of the green revolution. Although it seemed that the green revolution increased agricultural productivity and output, it was discovered that over time, these techniques permanently harmed the soil's structure. In order to maintain agricultural output, farmers had to increase the dose of artificial fertilizers when the soil productivity graph started to drop. The increasing chemical inputs hampered the recycling of organic matter by causing soil toxicity and upsetting the microenvironment of the soil. Due to increased pesticide bioconcentration upon introduction, soil, water, and crops were poisoned.

The primary elements of the green revolution are the usage of fertilizers and insecticides. Before the green revolution, India's agricultural systems relied heavily on crop diversification. Because of this variety, the systems were resilient and stable, and the farmers had financial security. Green revolution farming practices, on the other hand, promote monocropping and highly automated farming that concentrate on the single function of a single species and fail to take into consideration the yields of multiple species and varied functions. The convenience of planting, weeding, fertilizing, spraying, and harvesting a single crop was the driving force behind the promotion of monoculture, which replaced the conventional method of cultivating a variety of crops (polyculture). The agro-ecosystems' foundation of genetic diversity was eroded as a consequence. A The transformation of multifunctional, integrated agroecosystems into production units, or "factory farms," is the primary cause of the loss of agrobiodiversity.

Before the green revolution, there were more trees on farms in northwestern India than in forests. Trees, hedgerows, and communal forests have all been removed. The loss of agrobiodiversity has prevented marginal farmers from receiving a variety of goods from their crops.The single major factor contributing to the decline of biodiversity throughout the nation is monoculture. The nation was compelled to adopt this approach initially by green revolution regulations, and now by big multinational corporations looking to dominate the market with a single product in an effort to attract and hire manufacturers. As a consequence, mixed cropping has been abandoned, which guaranteed family food security and sustainability via the mutually beneficial connections between species, such as cereals and nitrogen-fixing pulses. Many individuals plant crops that are not appropriate for the agroclimatic zone. For example, in many dry places, the World Bank lending conditions have encouraged the monoculture of sugarcane in Maharashtra and Gujarat, which has resulted in the non-sustainable use of already limited ground water supplies.

CONCLUSION

Organic agriculture's guiding principles reveals how much they have influenced the development of a regenerative and sustainable agricultural paradigm. Organic farmers are guided by the ideas of agroecology, biodiversity, soil health, and sustainability to cultivate crops in a way that is environmentally friendly. The research shows that these ideas are fundamental to agriculture's overall sustainability, the resilience of ecosystems, and the promotion of human health via the consumption of food free of chemicals. The tenets of organic agriculture serve as a guide for a more peaceful coexistence of agriculture and the environment as the globe struggles with environmental issues and looks for solutions to lessen the effects of conventional farming.

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CHAPTER 3

SOIL FERTILITY IN ORGANIC FARMING SYSTEMS

Raj Kumar, Assistant Professor
Department of uGDX, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, India
Email Id-raj.kumar@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

The vital component of soil fertility in organic agricultural systems, with a focus on sustainable methods that support soil fertility and health. The abstract explores the fundamental ideas of organic farming, including crop rotation, cover crops, and the avoidance of synthetic pesticides in favor of natural soil supplements. It talks about how these methods support a healthy microbial population, higher nutrient content, and better soil structure. The study investigates the interdependent link between soil fertility, organic farming, and environmental sustainability, drawing on scientific research and real-world applications. The main ideas of this investigation are captured by terms like cover crops, organic farming, soil fertility, soil health, and sustainable agriculture. The study concludes by highlighting the critical role that organic farming systems play in promoting biodiversity, improving soil fertility, and advancing resilient and sustainable agriculture practices.

KEYWORDS:

Cover Cropping, Organic Farming, Soil Fertility, Soil Health, Sustainable Agriculture.

INTRODUCTION

For the sake of the ecology and the economy, soil fertility must be maintained in all agricultural systems. Understanding the mechanisms behind the soil's chemical, physical, and biological components is essential for managing soil fertility effectively, albeit soil chemical fertility has historically received more attention. The intrinsic physical and chemical properties of soils differ widely, which affects how well they can sustain biological activity. Of course, agricultural techniques have an impact on soil fertility as well, but how much depends on the particular soil and surrounding circumstances. Thus, understanding the impact of agricultural techniques on soil fertility requires local knowledge.It cannot be assumed that organic management in and of itself is more or less sustainable than some other farming methods, even if organic farming incorporates elements of "sustainable" agriculture[1], [2]. Many different organic farming techniques are utilized on both "organic" and "conventional" farms, even though all organic farming systems function without the use of artificial chemical inputs. Many traditional farming methods successfully manage sustainability-related challenges, including biodiversity, conservation tillage, proper rotations for the landform and soil type, efficient use of nutrients, and the use of legumes. Organic farming techniques are characterized by their inherent dependence on the biological fertility of the soil, which in turn affects the chemical and physical fertility.

The goal of organic farming systems is to increase the temporal and geographical variety of microbes, plants, and animals. Conversely, agricultural practices that rely solely on artificial fertilizers may neglect crucial components of soil biological fertility, which may boost both the chemical and physical fertility of the soil. While agricultural systems' reliance on inputs is influenced by variations in the distribution of fundamental plant nutrients, there are local exceptions to these worldwide generalizations. The development of certified organic agricultural techniques occurred in areas with chemically productive soils[3], [4].Physical fertility of the soil provides the foundation for biological and chemical processes that feed plants with nutrients and prevent soil erosion, which in turn helps to the sustainability of organic farming systems. In organically managed systems, soil physical fertility is often higher than in conventional methods.

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It cannot be assumed that organic management in and of itself is more or less sustainable than some other farming methods, even if organic farming incorporates elements of "sustainable" agriculture. Many different organic farming techniques are utilized on both "organic" and "conventional" farms, even though all organic farming systems function without the use of artificial chemical inputs Many traditional farming methods successfully manage sustainability-related challenges, including biodiversity, conservation tillage, proper rotations for the landform and soil type, efficient use of nutrients, and the use of legumes[5], [6]. Organic farming techniques are characterized by their inherent dependence on the biological fertility of the soil, which in turn affects the chemical and physical fertility.

The goal of organic farming systems is to increase the temporal and geographical variety of microbes, plants, and animals. On the other hand, agricultural practices that rely mostly on artificial fertilizers may neglect crucial components of soil biological fertility, which may boost both the chemical and physical fertility of the soil. While the degree to which agricultural systems rely on inputs is influenced by variations in the distribution of fundamental plant nutrients, there are local exceptions to these worldwide generalizations. The development of certified organic agricultural techniques occurred in areas with chemically productive soils.Physical fertility of the soil provides the foundation for biological and chemical processes that give nutrients to plants and prevent soil erosion, which in turn helps to the sustainability of organic farming systems. In organically managed systems, soil physical fertility is often higher than in conventional methods.

Crop variety has declined significantly, and the range of cultivars within a given crop has also shrunk. A few dwarf rice cultivars have displaced thousands of other kinds. According to a recent Chinese research, diversifying rice crops lowers the incidence of pests and illnesses while increasing yield per unit area. Furthermore, yields from native types aren't usually poor. Sometimes the quality of cultivars like "Sharbati" wheat and "Basmati" rice allows farmers to earn twice or three times as much. The constant and careless use of chemicals is the curse of the current agricultural system. In addition to contaminating the food and grains we consume, these chemicals are also to blame for the general decrease in the soil's fertility. Chemical usage is eradicating native populations of organisms like actinomycetes and mycorrhizal fungus, which disrupts the soil eco-system's nutrient cycle[7], [8]. Chemicals have accumulated in the tissues of both crops and people, who are ultimately the major consumers, as a result of the damage caused by the processes of bio-magnification and bio-concentration.

Because many pests are becoming resistant to pesticides and because agricultural and dairy products include pesticide residues, the extensive use of pesticides in agriculture is a major reason for worry. The earliest reports of pesticide resistance in agriculture date back to 1963 in India, when it was discovered that some harmful pests had developed resistance to DDT and HCH, two of the most widely used pesticides in the 1960s and 1970s. Pests that are resistant to pesticides have become more common since then. American bollworm is a significant pest in cotton, which has the most severe resistance issue. In certain areas, the bollworm has become resistant to almost all insecticides; in Punjab, Haryana, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, and Maharashtra, the infestation is very severe.

In some areas, other significant cotton pests including jassids and white flies have also become resistant to pesticides. Pests now account for a significant amount of agricultural productivity loss due to growing chemical resistance. Some estimates put the magnitude of these losses across all crops at 20–30% of the entire yield. The losses in cotton are especially severe; in 1997 and 1998, Punjab's cotton output fell by around 50%, leading to a number of suicides among cotton farmers. Agricultural insecticides are broad-spectrum. That is to say, they do not discriminate between beneficial and dangerous insects on farms. The spray causes both beneficial predators and dangerous pests to be completely eradicated. In general, pests have a brief life cycle but a high rate of reproduction[9], [10]. Thus, in a short amount of time, these pests modify their genetic makeup to become resistant. However, because of their relatively longer life cycles and low rates of reproduction, predators require a significantly longer time to become resistant to pesticides. Pesticides eliminate all beneficial insects from agricultural fields by killing them all. The resistant pest populations flourish when there are plenty of food sources and no predators around.

DISCUSSION

The term "soil biological fertility" refers to soil processes that include creatures that enhance plant development. It is unknown how much more activity, variety, and number of soil organisms would affect plant growth and soil function. Because soil biological fertility measurements react quickly to changes in soil conditions, they may be helpful as markers of long-term changes in total fertility. The organic and conventional arable farming systems showed similar gross mineralization rates with respect to location and functional diversity. Additional fieldwork revealed that crops grown in conventionally and organically managed soil responded to rock phosphate treatment in the same way, suggesting that organic management had not enhanced the availability of rock phosphate to crops. The precise nature of biological activity under long-term organic and conventionally managed agricultural systems requires further scientific investigation, particularly in extensively worn soils.

Activities that enhance Using agricultural inputs, it could be able to raise the activity and abundance of certain soil organisms in a targeted manner. Simple organic molecules like sugars and complex humic substances, for instance, have the ability to promote microbial activity, which may result in brief increases in biological activity as well as the possible release of nutrients and increased physical fertility. shown that some bacteria and fungus only existed on particular silicate minerals. If soil fertility benefits from the selective stimulation of microorganisms in this way, then this discovery is highly important. In all agricultural systems, a deeper understanding of the variety and dynamics of soil biological activities is essential, yet there may be "too much" biological activity in a soil. This may happen if organic matter is often disturbed and subjected to quick deterioration, losing its significance as a source of slow-release nutrients and a factor in preserving or enhancing soil structure.

Inorganic chemical preparations known as chemical fertilizers are applied to the soil to make up for nutrient deficiencies. Chemical fertilizers boost yields, but when they are applied often, they harm the soil ecology by immobilizing many vital soil nutrients, which leads to eutrophication in aquatic systems and kanker pan in terrestrial ecosystems. The chemical plants that produce them emit exhausts that are highly concentrated in nitrogen and sulfur oxides, which may cause acid rain. Organic certification regulations limit which fertilizers and, in some situations, how much may be used in certified organic agricultural systems. They may be broadly classified into two groups: (i) naturally existing organic materials and (ii) naturally occurring geological resources (minerals). In organic agricultural systems, the following minerals may be used as fertilizers: dolomite, gypsum, rock phosphate, guano, elemental sulfur (S), lime, and different powdered silicate minerals.Organic materials come from both on- and off-farm sources, such as fish, blood and bone meal, seaweed extracts, and microbial products. On farms, they include things like green manure, animal dung, and compost. The different organic certification requirements provide comprehensive lists of fertilizers that are allowed in organic agricultural systems. Certain limitations may not be supported by scientific assessments.

Conversely, in conventional farming methods, crop wastes, cow dung, and bone meal are added to the soil on a regular basis to enrich it. Earthworms, bacteria, fungi, actinomycetes, protozoa, millipedes, insects, spiders, and a variety of other organisms that are vital to maintaining the soil's health and enhancing the movement of soil nutrients from the soil to the plant root system are all supported in a healthy population by the soil in this system. Inputs such fertilizers, growth-promoting hormones, weed killers, insecticides, and fungicides are crucial to the modern agricultural system. However, the majority of them harm farm animals' and people's health as well as the environment. The following components have been impacted by the effects, which extend beyond crops and agricultural soil and include the surrounding natural ecosystems in the landscape. The ongoing use of pesticides has contaminated our land, water, atmosphere, and people's health in general. Poisonous substances, pesticides are unable to differentiate between beneficial insects and dangerous pests. On all kinds of life, they behave similarly.Any living creature that comes into touch either perishes instantly or endures excruciating pain for a while. Farmers are also more and more exposed to the negative effects of chemical farming; they experience anything from minor illnesses to respiratory problems, and in rare instances, they get cancer and become infertile due to overexposure.

The impact of organic farming methods on sustainability in semi-arid regions, where it is challenging to raise soil organic matter concentrations or biological activity, requires more study. It is still uncertain whether species variety is essential to the integrity and long-term viability of soil ecosystems, as is sometimes suggested. These variations between trials highlight how crucial it is to adapt techniques to soil types, climates, and production systems. Both the conventional and organic soils in the DOK study underwent almost similar tillage techniques, the same rotation, and manure treatments. The volume of all the big pores and bulk density did not change across the treatments. Although splash erosion measurements revealed no change, it was hypothesized that the increased aggregate stability in the organic treatment would translate into decreased soil erodibility. The practice of simultaneously cultivating two or more crops on one field is known as mixed agriculture. Some excellent examples of mixed agriculture include growing wheat with peas, wheat with mustard, groundnuts, or sunflower. Because the date of harvesting varies, seeds are either planted in separate rows within the same field or blended and sprinkled in the soil throughout this operation. Mixed agriculture is the practice of growing crops with raising milk-producing animals.

In this kind of agricultural activity, one receives cash from both the crops and the animals. Multi-cropping on the same field at the same time is known as mixed agriculture. The loss of organic matter, which aids in soil aggregation and reduces nitrate and pesticide pollution, and soil erosion brought on by mechanized plowing are the main causes of intensive agriculture's negative impacts on ground and surface water. Chemical agriculture's primary threats to water quality are: high levels of available nitrogen after harvest, high stocking rates combined with high levels of inorganic fertilization, excessive mineral fertilizer application, lack of protective soil cover, frequent tillage and narrow crop rotations, and water contamination from synthetic pesticides.There is little chance of pesticide-related contamination of surface and ground waters since organic agriculture does not utilize synthetic pesticides. It demonstrates that nitrate leaching rates per hectare in organic agriculture are much lower than those in conventional agricultural systems in the circumstances of western Europe. The prohibition of inorganic N fertilizers and reduced animal populations are the causes of the decreased nitrate leaching rates in organic agriculture.

The lack of nitrogen has significant economic ramifications for organic farms: the opportunity costs the price of generating one kilogram of nitrogen on the farm can be seven to sixteen times higher than the price of conventional N fertilizers. Therefore, it is not surprising that organic farmers are compelled to develop effective nitrogen management strategies like intercropping, catch cropping, optimal plowing in of legume crops, or limiting the use of liquid manure to avoid nitrogen losses, in contrast to conventional farms when manure and slurry are often a waste problem The usage of nitrogenous and phosphatic fertilizers has expanded, which has had a large negative influence on the environment and raised concerns in both developed and developing nations due to the rising nitrate concentrations in surface and ground water.

There is a high nitrate issue in several areas of India. A 2003 study by the Center for Science and Environment (CSE) found that high concentrations of pesticide residues, including organochlorines like dialdrin and endosulphan and organophosphorus pesticides like dimethoate and methyl parathion, were found in raw water samples taken from ground water. Additionally, the enormous quantity of pesticides that are indiscriminately utilized for agricultural activities was brought to light once again by CSE's results. In the event that pesticides do find their way into groundwater, the contamination may not denaturate and dilution may take years, and the contamination may spread over a wide region.A research on pesticide residues in bottled water has been done by the Centre for Science and Environment (CSE). The findings demonstrated that pesticide residues were present in every sample. The deadliest kind of pesticide residues were discovered. The most common among these were DDT and gamma-hexachlorocyclohexane, sometimes known as lindane or g-HCH.

Of the 34 samples, 24 had DDT residues. Minscot reported the lowest value of 0.0001 mg/l, while Volga recorded the highest concentration of 0.0037 mg/l. This is 37 times more than the European Economic Community's (EEC) standard for a single pesticide. Of the 34 samples, 29 were positive for malathion. The concentrations in Bisleri were as high as 0.04 mg/l and as low as 0.0004 mg/l in Aquafina.In 28 of the 34 samples, chlorpyriphos was found. For example, the amount in No. 1 Mc Dowell – I (0.037 mg/l) was 370 times higher than the maximum amount allowed by the EEC for that specific pesticide. The EEC's allowable limit for a single pesticide was 23 times higher for Bisleri (109 times), Kinley of Coca-Cola (109 times), and Aquafina of Pepsi. The CSE laboratory's examination unequivocally demonstrated that every sample had many pesticide residues. one of the biggest challenges confronting contemporary agriculture is using bio-pesticides to manage pests and safeguard crop production while avoiding the use of chemical pesticides that are harmful to our soil, surface water, and ground water resources. This can only be accomplished by using organic agricultural methods, which rely on conventional, all-natural methods to combat hazardous pests.

The discharge of hazardous chemicals, pesticides, and herbicides into our water and land resources, such as the catchment regions of lakes and rivers, poses a significant human danger to the variety of species. The careless use of dangerous plant chemicals has led to the emergence of mutant pest varieties, an increase in secondary pest outbreaks, a decline in the biodiversity of natural predators of harmful pests, the development of pesticide resistance, contaminated food, and ecosystem poisoning. The drop in the predator composition in the rice ecosystem by 3.5 times and in the cotton ecosystem by 12 times, respectively, has been documented under chemical control, which amply illustrates the deleterious impacts of pesticides. Navdanya started an agro-ecological farm as part of its ongoing efforts to revitalize the biodiversity in agroecosystems. This farm seeks to advance low-input sustainable agriculture in order to preserve natural processes and lower farmer cultivation costs. According to Navdanya, biodiversity is the only practical and effective substitute for chemical farming, which contaminates the farmer's body and the land.Worldwide, chemically fertile and infertile soils have given rise to organic farming methods; nevertheless, the origins of national and worldwide organic certification standards may be traced back to areas with younger, chemically rich soils. Although organic farming may increase the biological and physical fertility of the soil, consistent benefits are not always seen. Moreover, soil chemical fertility may be decreased if inputs do not equal outputs' removal of nutrients, which might result in nutrient mining.

In some severely worn soils and semi-arid regions, organic farming operations may not be able to grow organic matter (and soil biological fertility), which might result in unsustainable practices based on existing certification requirements. Sustainable organic farming systems cannot be achieved simply by following national or international organic standards that only address soil fertility. Instead, comprehensive management that considers the climate, topography, and type of soil is necessary. If the soil has poor chemical fertility and is heavily weathered, problems are more likely to arise. This highlights the need of having local knowledge in order to respond appropriately to a decrease in soil fertility components. Changes in commodities and a focus on long-term, preventive remedies as opposed to reactive ones are examples of adjustments that might be made. A key element in the creation of more sustainable agricultural systems generally may be the degree to which organic farming techniques, which increase soil fertility, may be integrated into conventional management systems.

Nanoscale methods to soil dynamics and the growing field of "soil priming" research have the potential to enable more thorough scientific examination of claims made about organic farming that have only been supported by anecdotal data. Research on soil microbial diversity, microbial cocktails, compost tea, and relatively insoluble minerals is gaining traction, and these areas of convergence could reveal intricate nutrient release processes in extremely biologically active soils. In soils that get flushes of highly soluble nutrients, such in typical agricultural methods, the contributions of activated biological processes to soil fertility are likely to be minimized. However, this may also happen in situations when large amounts of manure or poorly decomposed organic matter are employed. Moreover, it is doubtful that organic farming methods would exhibit the quantitative and qualitative increases in soil biological fertility required to be considered sustainable if they solely imitate the focus on "nutrient replacement" that is often used in conventional farming systems.

Lastly, compared to conventional farming systems, organic farming systems may provide more opportunity to investigate the idea of "sustainable yield" for a given site. This is a challenging subject since, in reality, production may occur without soil for example, in hydroponics. In current agricultural systems, chemical inputs are often limitless (apart from cost) and have the ability to outweigh the potential contributions of some biological processes). In more nutrient-limited organic farming systems, where controlling soil organic matter has a bigger impact on nutrient cycling, this is less likely to occur. In this case, it is possible to predict the sustainability of the soil resource under the specified parameters (commodity, management approach, climate, and soil type) without running the risk of "overfertilization," or increasing output to the point where it might result in one or more types of land degradation. In any agricultural system, it is uncommon to see production as "too high," although this can be the case if heavy fertilization or soil disturbance led to nutrient loss via leaching or soil erosion. Calculating the potential sustainable yield for any agricultural land use is likely to need management strategies that create a long-term balance among the three components of soil fertility.

CONCLUSION

This investigation highlights the critical role that soil fertility plays in organic agricultural systems and highlights sustainable measures that support the long-term health of the soil. Organic farming is a comprehensive method that improves soil fertility, supports biodiversity, and adds to environmental sustainability via techniques like cover cropping and natural soil additives. The study emphasizes the relationship between soil health and organic farming's performance, highlighting the benefits for crop output and the mitigation of environmental effect. Adopting organic agricultural techniques is becoming more and more important as agriculture deals with the problems of a changing climate and an expanding global food demand. Organic farming methods prioritize soil fertility, which is in line with the concepts of environmental stewardship and long-term agricultural resilience. This makes them a feasible and environmentally sound route towards sustainable agriculture.

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CHAPTER 4

INVESTIGATION OF CROP AGRONOMY IN ORGANIC AGRICULTURE

Thejus R Kartha, Assistant Professor
Department of uGDX,ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, India
Email Id-thejus.kartha@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Crop agronomy in relation to organic farming, emphasizing sustainable methods that maximize crop yield while upholding organic values. Important facets of organic crop management are covered in detail in the abstract, such as companion planting, crop rotation, soil health, and organic pest control techniques. It examines the integrated, holistic approach of organic agronomy, with a focus on the use of cover crops, diverse cropping systems, and organic inputs. This investigation evaluates the effects of organic agronomy on crop productivity, nutritional quality, and environmental sustainability by drawing on empirical studies and scientific research. The main concepts of this research are captured by terms like companion planting, crop rotation, organic agriculture, organic inputs, and sustainable methods. The study concludes by highlighting the importance of organic agronomy in developing resilient and sustainable crop production systems that put environmental health first and support organic farming as a whole.

KEYWORDS:

Companion Planting, Crop Rotation, Organic Agriculture, Organic Inputs, Sustainable Practices.

INTRODUCTION

The methods described in the many organic standards that have been created and recorded in several nations serve as the foundation for organic crop husbandry. IFOAM (International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movements) publishes the most generally recognized organic standards. Organic farming practices prioritize the use of in-house, on-farm inputs above externally procured inputs in order to meet crucial objectives related to plant protection, nutrient management, and soil fertility[1], [2]. Organic plant production is supported by important organic farming concepts such as self-regulation within an agroecosystem, multi-year management cycles, and an emphasis on prevention rather than response.

The management of a crop rotation that is site-specific and focused on the market is the fundamental component of organic crop husbandry. A farm's soil resource may be used more effectively by rotating a broad variety of crops throughout time and place. This is because different crops have different profiles of nutrient supply and demand, growth habits, and phytosanitary traits. Crop rotations become more crucial for managing nutrients as stockless farming becomes more specialized on a regional and international scale, and there is an increasing dependence on off-farm manure sources[3], [4]. While some may question the sustainability of the move toward stockless systems, conflicts are more likely to occur when sound organic agricultural practices are compromised in crop husbandry that is market- or commercially-driven. For instance, the need of prioritizing additional components as cash crops above enough soil fertility-building legumes or cattle in a cycle.This chapter covers a variety of alternative cultural farming techniques, in addition to crop rotations, that are used in organic farming to meet different farm management goals. An essential component of more comprehensive landscape management is organic agriculture. A holding's percentage of unproductive land may rise and even be improved by small-scale farming. It might be challenging to develop permanent features like hedges, tree lots, or ponds in certain situations, particularly on farms that are rented. Alternatively, as an annual enrichment of the agroecosystem, blooming field edges or corridors may be included to increase the quantity of faunal components for improved self-regulation among neighboring fields[5], [6]. Rather than focusing only on perennial agricultural systems like tree and vine crops, this chapter mostly discusses mixed and stockless annual cropping systems.

Effective weed control is also critical to the success of organic crop husbandry, however opinions on the matter vary on whether "clean" crops are necessary or if a field's natural, wild flora components may contribute to greater agrobiodiversity. According to several reports, weeds are a significant obstacle to organic farming, and they may cause significant crop losses, especially during conversion and rotational phase transitions such as switching from pasture to arable cropping. The next chapter provides an overview of plant diseases and pests in organic farming. While there are many significant generalizations regarding plant development, soil processes, and other topics, the effectiveness of specific farming systems, crop rotation strategies, and crop types will always depend on the local environment. In the past, western Europe the birthplace of contemporary organic agriculture has been the focus of the majority of research on organic farming. However, organic farmers must be resourceful and take into account local expertise when dealing with environmental and market situations that vary from those found in western Europe.

Creating healthy, biologically active soil via the use of approved inputs and land management techniques is the main goal of organic farming. Plant leftovers, animal manures, rock dusts, and biological activators are among the inputs utilized in rotations. Furthermore, the promotion of biological activity facilitates soil processes, including nitrogen cycling and soil structure development Shepherd. The mineral nutrients that are made accessible in the soil are subsequently what crop and pasture plants depend on. According to agricultural methods vary in the relative rates and significance of particular activities, but the underlying soil processes and nutrient pools are identical in organic and conventional soils[7], [8]. According to other study, changes in soil under organic management are often "subtle rather than dramatic," even if many of them may be obviously important. Particularly at higher pH values, phosphorus (P) is a very immobile nutrient, and P from organically certified sources often has limited solubility.

As a result, a number of recent studies have drawn attention to how unsustainable the current organic P management is in many contexts. Used farm-scale nutrient budgets to establish that although N was typically not an issue, P and K were being depleted in some systems, especially arable cropping. Due to their extremely little dependence on outside inputs, dairy farms had low nutrient budgets, but horticulture farms had notably higher budgets, most likely because they received a lot of manure from outside sources. Brought attention to the longer-term loss in P soil reserves in a few German organic farms; the tendency is not seen in matched conventional farms, and the older organic farms had less P than the younger organic.

Organic farmers may reduce the danger of environmental contamination while storing nitrogen and other nutrients for crop use in the future by increasing carbon (C) inputs into the soil In fact, Shepherd claimed that regular and probably substantial inputs of fresh organic matter a regular practice in organic agriculture were necessary for enhanced soil structure.

When comparing the long-term (20–120 years) effects of fertilizers and manures (farmyard manure, slurry, and green manure) on crop production and soil properties, reviewed a number of conventional field trials. The results showed that crop yield was unaffected by the use of large amounts of manures and other organic inputs, but that improved soil chemical and physical properties required them.

Exploration increases biodiversity levels both spatially and temporally. Green manure may be used as a primary crop, an intermediate crop, or a companion crop, depending on the growing season and goal. Intermediary crops are often referred to as catch crops or cover crops. The first phrase makes it apparent what is expected of the crops mostly fast-growing crucifers and grass species in terms of N-conserving activities. Similar in meaning, the second phrase likewise highlights the role that plants plays in conserving soil[9], [10]. By merging many partners at the same time, undersowing or, more recently, living mulch systems, enhance the complexity of a growing system. Such a planting design strategy is sometimes referred to as the "intercropping system," a notion that was widely used in ancient farming systems all across the globe. These days, it includes a broad variety of methods including windbreaks, shelterbelts, agroforestry, dual cropping, strip cropping, and undersowing. all of these techniques include a greater variety of plants on a farm, which may lead to more chances for agroecological processes to take place. Enhancements in soil fertility, resource capture, pest and disease control, weed management, and risk management are among the possible advantages of intercropping. Nonetheless, in order to fully meet the agronomic requirements of many crops, intercropping necessitates competent farm management abilities.

DISCUSSION

The variety of possible cover crops and undersowings used in the rotations serves as an example of how organic farming increases species diversification. Forage legumes may be included into the rotation as undersowing in the cereals before them, provided certain requirements are met. A stubble crop seeded after grain harvest should take the place of the undersown crop if its performance is subpar. For the rotation to be successful overall (e.g., for N fixation and other activities), the one- or multi-year forage legume portion is too crucial, therefore a "poor" performance is not acceptable. When replacing winter crops, cover crops could be the most appropriate option. Rough fodder from mixed farms with ruminants is mostly produced, and it may be rotated with between 30 and 50% grass-clover or grass-alfalfa combinations. Cereals and grains of legumes are the primary sources of nutrition for monogastric animals like pigs and poultry. As a result, the ratios of cereals to legumes are changing, with more going from pasture to grain legumes. From an economic perspective, less fodder legumes are needed on arable fields. However, these farms need to continue using a set-aside approach for at least a year from a sustainability standpoint.

Spring cereals may work better than winter cereals in more dry climates. It is necessary to choose early maturing cultivars for cultivation if harvest times often occur too late for the timely seeding of subsequent crops. Cover crops may be used in the rotating plan in place of partial fallows, depending on the soil moisture conditions. Narrow economic criteria alone cannot be used to determine their worth. Over an extended period, indirect benefits become increasingly evident, such as enhancements in soil organization, as per the evaluation of various farm types and landscapes in Europe. Environmental and ecological parameters were used to evaluate the quality of the (a)biotic environment. Psychological, physiological, and cultural geography criteria were used to analyze the cultural environment, while economic and sociological components of the social environment were examined. While this method necessitates multiple site visits and working sessions, a different group of Dutch agronomists created a methodology for farming system prototyping that placed a distinct emphasis on farms and production, with an emphasis on ecological infrastructure management as a crucial element in determining each system's environmental friendliness.

Arms are a part of the landscape, ingrained in it. As a result, the field, farm, and regional levels of environmental quality are directly impacted by the management of agricultural systems. Comprehensive approaches to the subject were gathered in a coordinated effort supported by funding from the EU. Traditional subsidies were considered by Spanish and Italian farmers to be the most significant benefits. Organic farmers in Switzerland and the Netherlands ranked biodiversity as their top priority, whereas integrated farmers in Switzerland prioritized preventing erosion above improving their reputation, biodiversity, and subsidies. Better image was the only significant factor given by Dutch integrated farms. The loss of productive space was most often stated (three times), followed by weed infestation issues (one mention), and obstacles to equipment operation as the main drawbacks of integrating natural components. The viewpoints of the farmers revealed varying personal histories, contingent on factors such as terrain, farm size, organic farming motivation, and experiences.

It's interesting to note that studies conducted in Northern Germany revealed a significant rise in glutene content above 2.0% of wheat that was typically sown as well as increases in the protein content of grains Cultivars of winter wheat were less receptive to the drilling strategy than spring wheat. The use of fewer seeds had favorable economic results, including a reduction in seed expenses and an increase in compensation for superior grain quality. Undersowing should be incorporated, at least at appropriate areas, because of the increased spacing. Becker and Leithold (2003) measured reduced erodibility. More space, lighter, and better growth conditions for the undersown species in an undersowing-oriented system seem to boost biodiversity, but this needs to be offset by increased labor input in the form of numerous mulching passes, labor expenses, and the original investment. Nonetheless, it is feasible to regulate weeds extremely aggressively.

Determining crop densities and planting arrangements involves weed control in and of itself. In order to facilitate tillage and manual weeding, wider rows are beneficial. However, this might pose a significant ecological and financial challenge if ongoing leaks throughout the cycle cannot be prevented. It is possible to balance supply and demand for agricultural practices like applying fertilizer and managing green manure, nevertheless, by carefully scheduling these activities. The goal of conventional "best practice" is to reduce nitrate leaching by increasing crop N use efficiency and shielding soil N from leaching during heavier rains. The choice of a suitable crop variety, keeping a green cover throughout as much of the year as is practical, and planting crops early are crop management considerations that impact N dynamics. The computation of fertilizer requirements using a recommendation system (taking into account soil mineral N and any manures applied), the uniform application of fertilizers with a properly calibrated spreader (perhaps in split applications), and the use of banding when necessary are all aspects of fertilizer management to be taken into account. Additionally, irrigation water has to be applied properly in accordance with schedule specifications.

In an effort to reduce the overall environmental effect, research is increasingly concentrated on the analysis of whole agricultural systems and the relationships between N losses and other environmental contaminants. Furthermore, computer models with ever-higher levels of sophistication and dependability are being created to provide predictive capabilities for farm management duties. Making decisions on when to complete chores within crop rotations is a process that has a lot of alternatives, making modeling an excellent choice. Computer models for predicting N fluxes in agroecosystems have been created and verified.

Artificial chemicals are bad for the environment. In general, this entails applying insecticides and pesticides. When pesticides are applied to organisms, there are two ways in which this affects them: directly and indirectly. The loss of prey brought on by the removal of certain creatures from the food chain has secondary impacts on organisms. Due to pesticide residue contaminating their food and water supplies, birds and animals (wildlife) have also been negatively impacted by chemicals. Chemicals from each trophic chain accumulate in the bodies of species as they eat a host of smaller organisms in their food chain, a process known as bioaccumulation, which is how pesticides concentrate. Plants are essential to the existence of all living things, whether directly or indirectly. Plants utilize solar energy to make food. Thus, they are referred to as producers. Herbivores are animals that consume plants; they are directly dependent on plants for their development and sustenance.

We refer to them as main consumers. Carnivores, or creatures that devour meat, rely on herbivores for food and survival. We refer to them as secondary consumers. Each organism is thus interdependent and dependent upon the others. The term "trophic structure" refers to each level of what is known as the food chain. In nature, the whole food chain and web are impacted by an imbalance at one level. As a result, each creature has a place in the ecosystem; this place is known as an ecological niche, and the graphic below illustrates this. The populations of the predator (an creature that consumes the pest) and prey are so reliant on one another that sharp shifts in one population results in a corresponding reduction in the other. Agrochemical usage in agriculture has changed the populations of both pests and predators, which has had a significant impact on production.

Bioconcentration and biomagnification Pesticides may be biomagnified that is, they become more concentrated in an organism's body if an insect that is feeding on plants that have been treated with pesticides is eaten by another insect, which may then be eaten by a bird. This is known as the biological concentration of pesticidal residues in an organism. Traces of pesticides too minute to kill the intended pest might build up to levels high enough to affect species higher on the food chain. While a lot of pesticides degrade quickly in the environment, others, like dieldrin and DDT, are hazardous for up to 20 years after they enter the body, where they continue to kill insects and injure other living things.As pollinator species, many insect species, including flies, butterflies, beetles, and bees, are crucial to human existence; nonetheless, their contributions are sometimes overlooked or taken for granted. Such creatures often irritate us, so we squash, whack, and spray them mercilessly.

But since farmers and other commercial producers understand how crucial insect pollinators are to the development of their crops, they often pay for these species' unpaid pollination services, which enable humans to eat a wide variety of fruits and vegetables. Let's look at the function of pollinators in daily life. An essential component of every ecosystem is pollinators. According to reports, the overuse of pesticides in an agro-ecosystem is the reason for the decline in butterflies and honeybees. It is often recognized that via the process of pollination, butterflies and bees contribute significantly to agriculture. The process of pollination involves the assistance of bees and butterflies in cross-fertilizing the pollens in the nearby field, so expanding the crop's genetic foundation. This facilitates pollination, which sets the seed itself and greatly improves fruit and seed harvests or quality. Pollinators must be shielded against overexposure to pollutants such as pesticides and other substances that may poison them or hinder their ability to reproduce. These substances may also deplete bee nesting materials, kill larval host plants for moths and butterflies, and remove nectar supplies for pollinators.

As shown above, there are a few indirect ways of controlling weeds in organic cropping. A variety of weed-controlling methods were covered in the sections on rotations and cultural strategies. These methods included planting two or more complementary crops in the same space, timing input applications carefully, and strategically placing crop plants to maximize yield and resource efficiency. Organic farmers also use a few more indirect techniques to control weeds in a coordinated manner.The expression "many little hammers" exemplifies the function that each of these strategies plays in an integrated weed control plan, even though many of them may not independently contribute to significant reductions in weed effects.

Köpke has enumerated many methods or strategies for enhancing the primary crop's ability to compete with weeds (2000). Bigger seeds are often associated with higher emergence rates and early vigor, since seed quality has a significant impact on the development and establishment of crops in their early stages. Discovered a favorable correlation between seed P levels and germination, root biomass, and shoot biomass, as well as a greater P content in heavier wheat seeds. To enhance weed control, cereal cultivars may be chosen based on their morphological habits (e.g., the position of their leaves erectophile vs. planophile). Whereas chemical weed control frequently achieves 100% efficacy against various monocotyledonous or dicotyledonous plants, mechanical weeding tools are much less effective and reliable. For example, the shadowing caused by the position of planophile leaves acts more against creeping dicotyledonous species. Their efficacy is dependent on a number of variables, including the kind and condition of the soil, the kind of target plant and its stage of development, and the implement's technical design. Tillage tools have a number of drawbacks, including poor precision, soil damage, and the encouragement of more weed flushes. If weather conditions are unfavorable, they also cannot be utilized on time. However, notes that enhanced soil structure and quicker seedling development may occur following plowing, boosting the competitiveness of crops against weeds. Mechanical cultivation is still a key component of most organic weed control systems. For more on how plowing affects soils in organic farming.

Dierauer and Stöppler-Zimmer state that the harrow comb and chain harrow are excellent choices for cereals and all other crops and crop groupings The day of treatment, the kind of weed flora present, the site's features, and the extent of weed management may all affect how selectively harrows work While various kinds of harrows work better for controlling weeds in cereal crops, cultivators provide the greatest results in almost all cultivated crops. Potatoes, maize, and beets are the ideal crops for finger weeders. Only high gross margin crops, such market gardens or other high-value crops like medicinal herbs, can afford high investment costs (brush hoes) and high energy costs (flame weeder) showed that farm size also affected the cost-effectiveness of flame weeding using modeling and empirical data.

Although other writers were unable to corroborate these results, night-time culture, or planting under dark circumstances, was a successful approach for lowering weed levels, further study and eventual practical application of the photobiological control of light-germinating weeds are required. A variety of less popular techniques that depend on heat in some way have been tried and tested to manage weeds and their seeds. These strategies are often used in the preliminary stage, before sowing or planting, and have the benefit of providing complete control of at least one cohort of weeds without the need for mechanical cultivation. In higher-value intensive agriculture, soil solarization is a feasible substitute.However, this technology is selective in the weeds it controls, requires prolonged warm weather, and often calls for single-use, non-recyclable plastic sheeting.

The study of pollinating insects, including birds, bees, and butterflies, as well as other pollinating wildlife, is known as folination biology. While some are big and vibrant, others are dull and little, yet they're all necessary for the survival of natural ecosystems. A large number of them have significant functions in agriculture. Annual variations in insect populations are attributed to climatic conditions and other environmental factors.

Additionally, certain human activities pose a danger to them, and worries about the long-term health of pollinator populations are mounting. Our approach will include making several observations at fixed sites in order to study variations over time.Over three quarters of a million insect species are fed by over 25,000 types of blooming plants. Ten times as many unexplained insect species, largely found in the tropics, are predicted under conservative estimates. One factor contributing to the enormous diversity of plants and insects by contrast, there are roughly 6,200 species of birdsand 5,800 species of reptiles is the emergence of specialized pollinator relationships, whereby flowers have evolved to use fragrance and vibrant coloration to draw pollinators. Then, as they try to get to the nectar food supply that the bloom provides, the pollinators unintentionally pollinate the flower. There is no other natural event that better exemplifies the idea that conservation efforts should focus on ecological systems rather than simply specific species.

CONCLUSION

This investigation demonstrates sustainable methods that maximize crop yield while adhering to organic principles, underscoring the critical role that crop agronomy plays in organic agriculture. A comprehensive approach to crop management is exemplified by organic agronomy, which places a strong focus on soil health, diverse cropping systems, and natural pest control techniques. The study highlights the benefits of organic agronomy for crop productivity and nutritional quality, demonstrating how organic farming may effectively address the demands of contemporary agriculture in a sustainable manner. An emerging response to the global agricultural systems' search for more ecologically friendly and sustainable methods is organic agronomy. Organic agriculture prioritizes soil health and uses a variety of regenerative crop management approaches to promote agricultural resilience while also promoting environmental sustainability on a larger scale. Thus, a route towards crop production methods that are more environmentally sensitive and sustainable is provided by the tenets of organic agronomy.

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CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND DETERMINATION OF ORGANIC AGRICULTURE

Aditya Kashyap, Assistant Professor
Department of ISME,ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, India
Email Id-aditya.kashyap@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Investigation and evaluation of organic farming, including its tenets, methods, and wider consequences for ecologically responsible and sustainable farming. The main principles of organic agriculture are examined in the abstract, including the encouragement of biodiversity, the avoidance of synthetic fertilizers and pesticides, and the importance placed on soil health. It explores the holistic approach to organic farming, taking into account elements like crop rotation, organic inputs, and non-chemical pest management techniques. Based on a survey of scientific literature and real-world applications, this study assesses how organic agriculture affects crop quality, soil fertility, and ecological sustainability. The main issues of this investigation are summed up by terms like biodiversity, organic farming, soil health, organic inputs, and sustainable agriculture. The report concludes by highlighting the role that organic agriculture plays in promoting a regenerative and sustainable farming model, which is in line with the increasing demand on a worldwide scale for healthier and more environmentally friendly food production systems.

KEYWORDS:

Biodiversity, Organic Agriculture, Organic Inputs, Soil Health, Sustainable Farming.

INTRODUCTION

Organic farming is based on the ideas and reasoning of a living organism, where all the components soil, plants, animals, insects, farmers, and environmental factors are intimately related to one another. This is achieved by using mechanical, biological, and agronomic techniques wherever feasible, adhering to the principles of these interactions, and employing natural ecosystems as a mode of operation. Many of the practices utilized by other sustainable agricultural approaches such as intercropping, crop rotation, mulching, and the integration of animals and crops are also shared by organic agriculture[1], [2]. Nonetheless, the fundamental principles that distinguish organic agriculture as a distinct agricultural management system are the use of natural (as opposed to synthetic) inputs, the enhancement of soil fertility and structure, and the application of a crop rotation strategy.

The goal of organic agriculture is to maintain and improve the health of ecosystems and all living things, from the tiniest soil creatures to humans. This includes growing, processing, distribution, and consumption. Because of this, it should refrain from using pesticides, fertilizers, medications for animals, and food additives that might be harmful to human health. Organic farming needs to be grounded in live ecological systems and cycles, collaborating with them, modeling them, and contributing to their continued existence. Organic management has to be adjusted to the environment, size, culture, and circumstances of the area. Reducing inputs via recycling, reuse, and effective material and energy management can help to save resources and enhance environmental quality. This concept highlights the need for those working in organic agriculture to treat all parties fairly in all interactions farmers, employees, processors, distributors, merchants, and customers[3], [4]. Additionally, it maintains that living circumstances and possibilities for animals must be tailored to their physiology, natural behavior, and overall wellbeing. Resources from the natural world that are utilized for production and consumption need to be managed fairly from both an ecological and social standpoint, and they ought to be preserved for the benefit of future generations. Systems of production, distribution, and commerce must be transparent, egalitarian, and take into consideration the true costs to society and the environment.

According to this philosophy, the main considerations for management, development, and technology selection in organic agriculture are responsibility and prudence. To guarantee that organic agriculture is safe, healthful, and environmentally sound, science is required. It must, however, take into account workable solutions derived from real-world situations, gathered traditional and indigenous knowledge, and avoid major dangers by embracing suitable technology and shunning unproven ones, like genetic engineering. The development of sustainability is the aim of organic agriculture. However, what is meant by sustainability? Sustainability in the context of agriculture refers to the effective management of agricultural resources to meet human needs while simultaneously preserving or improving the environment and safeguarding natural resources for future generations. Thus, organic farming's approach to sustainability has to be comprehensive, taking into account social, economic, and ecological factors. Justice within and between generations is another aspect of sustainability[5], [6]. By lowering the losses of arable land, water pollution, biodiversity erosion, greenhouse gas emissions, food losses, and pesticide poisoning, organic agriculture promotes societal well-being. The foundation of organic agriculture is customary knowledge and culture. Its agricultural practices adapt to the specific biophysical, socioeconomic, and environmental limits and possibilities in each place. The economic situation and rural development may be enhanced by using local resources, local expertise, and establishing connections between farmers, consumers, and their markets[7], [8].

In order to promote food security via increased farm output and less susceptibility to weather fluctuations, organic agriculture places a strong emphasis on diversity and adaptive management. This may be achieved through the farmers' own produce or through the sales of their goods. In rural places, organic farming seems to provide 30% more jobs, and labor produces more returns per unit of labor input. Organic agriculture relocalizes food production in places that are neglected by the market and makes it easier for smallholders to access markets and generate money by making greater use of local resources [9], [10]. In wealthy nations, organic yields are typically 20% lower than high-input systems, but in dry and semi-arid regions, they may be as much as 180% greater. While the productivity of the primary crop is lower for perennials in humid environments, rice paddy yields remain similar, and agroforestry offers extra benefits. In comparison to conventional production, organic agriculture has much reduced operating expenses (seeds, rent, labor, repairs, and maintenance), which range from 50–60% for grains and legumes to 20–25% for dairy cows and 10–20% for horticultural goods. This may be attributed to decreased input prices for synthetic inputs, decreased expenses for irrigation, and labor expenses related to hiring and family labor. However, overall costs are only somewhat cheaper than traditional since additional investments made during conversion orchards, animal homes and certification result in a rise in fixed expenses.

There are more export prospects due to the growing demand for organic goods. Exports that are produced organically fetch remarkable premiums, sometimes 20% more than equivalent goods produced on non-organic farms. In the correct conditions, the market returns from organic farming may raise family incomes and enhance local food security.It's not simple to get into this profitable sector. Farmers must employ an organic certifying body to visit their farms and companies once a year to ensure they comply with the organic requirements set by different trade partners. Farmers are unable to charge more for their goods while the two- to three-year transition phase to organic management is in effect. This is related to customer expectations that produce labeled as organic would be residue-free. Though relatively few markets have emerged for such items, products produced on land under organic management for at least a year, but less than the two- to three-year threshold, might be marketed as "transition to organic," according to the Codex Guidelines on Organically Produced Food. While the majority of producers in poor nations have traditionally focused on exporting their goods to the EU and North America, there are growing local markets for organic food around the globe. Alternative certification schemes have arisen globally, acknowledging the relevance of local organic markets in sustaining a thriving organic industry. In industrialized nations, direct methods for home delivery of non-certified organic products have been established by customers and organic growers (e.g., Community Supported Agriculture). Farmers that sell tiny amounts of organic goods in the USA are legally free from certification requirements. In emerging nations, Participatory Guarantee Systems are becoming more common.

Organic farming has emerged as a viable alternative in recent times for increasing family food security and lowering input costs. This behavior is seen in industrialized nations as well because of the economic crisis. Farmers either utilize produce for their personal use or sell it on the market at a fixed price since it is not certified. Organic farmers are driven by a variety of goals in addition to economic ones. These include preserving natural nutrient and energy flows, maximizing the interactions between land, animals, and plants, enhancing biodiversity, protecting the health of family farmers, and advancing the broader goal of sustainable agriculture.

Larger farms are the bulk of intensively managed farms that heavily depend on outside inputs across Africa, Latin America, and Asia. These farms mostly cultivate a small number of income crops, either annual or perennial, and mainly depend on the use of pesticides and herbicides to manage weeds, diseases, and pests, as well as fertilizers for plant nutrition. These farms often produce crops without a scheduled rotation, and the animals raised there are not included in the cycle of nutrients. These farms often have minimal levels of diversification. To allow for substantial automation, trees and shrubs are mostly eliminated, and crops are farmed primarily by themselves. On the same plot of land, farmers using traditional methods and few external inputs may cultivate a wide variety of crops in a densely mixed system, rotating their crops at random. There may be a small number of animals maintained, such as goats, pigs, chickens, and/or cattle, which distribute the manure in their feeding areas, leaving relatively little dung for the plants. For the purpose of making charcoal and firewood, the trees may be heavily chopped. Burning rubbish and shrubs may be a popular practice, particularly when preparing property. Because of the inconsistent and scant precipitation, harvests are likely low and becoming harder. There may not be much to sell for profit from the harvests they might just be enough to feed the family.

Crops and livestock may coexist on mixed farms, in which case animal manure is collected and allowed to decay for a few weeks before being used on the gardens. It may be necessary to use some soil conservation techniques, such as mulching perennial crops and digging ditches to lessen erosion. In the production of fruits and vegetables, weeds may sometimes be controlled with the use of herbicides, insecticides, and treated seeds. Of course, certain organic farming techniques are known to the farmers of such mixed farms. These farmers will find it simple to adopt organic practices throughout the farm and pick up new techniques from other farmers or from a teacher. Shifting cultivation, excessive grazing, over cultivation or deforestation, salinity after years of heavy groundwater irrigation, water logging, and floods are some of the factors that may damage land. It could need more time and work to create ideal growth conditions on such terrain. Organic methods, however, are a great way to restore these kinds of soils. To halt soil deterioration and restore soil fertility, certain measures can be needed. These methods include creating terraces or planting an intense fallow crop a leguminous green manure crop that thrives on unsatisfactory soils. Numerous examples suggest that organic farming is a viable strategy for restoring damaged land and putting it back into use. The majority of the time, adding more organic matter to damaged soils is essential to improving their quality.When it comes to sloping ground with barren and eroded soil, organic farming requires the creation of terraces, such as fannyajuu terraces (refer to the image below for an example). Fanyajuu, which means "throw it upwards" in Kiswahili, terraces are created by excavating trenches following contours and then propelling the dirt upwards to build embankments, or bunds. These are stabilized with multifunctional agroforestry trees and fodder grass such as Napier.

Crops are planted in the area between the embankments, and as time passes, the fanyajuu transform into bench terraces. They are helpful for gathering and preserving water in semi-arid regions. Compost and green manures may also be utilized to improve the soil's capacity to sustain healthy crop development and yields. Large concentrations of water-soluble salts found in saline soils prevent plant development and seed germination. Particularly in arid and semi-arid regions, increased irrigation water consumption may have led to the accumulation of these salts. By making sure the soil is properly irrigated and adding compost to strengthen the soil's structure, the surplus salts may naturally drain from the soil, gradually reducing the amount of these salts. Crops resistant to salt may be planted in the first period.It will be more difficult to convert a farm to organic farming in a region with limited rainfall, high temperatures, or strong winds than it would be in an area with evenly distributed rainfall and comfortable temperatures. In addition, compared to optimal humid circumstances, the benefits of implementing organic techniques will be more apparent in dry environments. For instance, adding compost to planting holes or topsoil would improve the soil's ability to hold onto water and raise the crop's resistance to water shortage.

Water is lost from plants via transpiration and from soil evaporation in very warm and dry climates. Strong winds may exacerbate these losses and accelerate soil erosion. Because biomass output is low and the organic matter content of the soils is typically poor, it is implied that the plants' access to nutrients is much decreased. In these kinds of situations, sheltering the soil from intense sunlight and wind as well as supplying the soil with more organic matter and water are the keys to raising crop output. Growing crops with green manure or adding compost to the soil are two ways to enhance the organic matter in the soil. The difficulty in producing compost lies in increasing plant biomass output, which is a prerequisite for compost production. High aboveground biomass output and quick soil organic matter breakdown in warm, humid climates suggest that nutrients are readily accessible to plants. However, there is a significant chance that the nutrients will be lost to washing away. To prevent soil depletion in such circumstances, a balance between the production and breakdown of organic matter is crucial. Combining several methods to safeguard the soil and enrich it with organic matter turns out to be the most successful course of action. These techniques include spreading compost to enrich the soil with organic matter and so boost its ability to retain water and nutrients, cultivating nitrogen-fixing cover crops in orchards, and designing a varied and multi-layer cropping system that ideally includes trees.

Farmers should begin learning from their own experience on their farms after they have gathered knowledge on the prerequisites, potentials, and key conversion methods. It is advised that farmers adopt organic methods gradually, one by one, focusing on a few chosen activities at a time, testing them on a small number of plots or animals, and minimizing the risks of crop failure and animal losses. But which routines ought one to begin with? It seems sense that farmers will begin by implementing measures that have a high short-term effect, entail little more labor, minimal risk, and little expenditure. Organic farming sometimes grows two annual crops together, usually a leguminous crop like beans or a green manure crop in alternating rows with maize or another cereal crop or vegetable to optimize advantages from the soil and diversify output. To prevent crop competition for light, nutrients, and water during intercropping, extra care must be taken. Understanding arrangements that encourage the development of at least one crop is necessary for this.

The development and yields of crops may be significantly impacted by applying compost to the fields. Farmers will need an adequate supply of plant materials and, if available, animal manures in order to begin producing compost. Farmers would have to start creating plant materials on the farm in the event that these resources became rare by planting quickly growing leguminous plants that produce a lot of bio-mass and, if necessary, bringing some cattle for the purpose of producing manure. Farmers should get instruction from an expert in order to become acquainted with the composting process.

Appropriate composting: Most farmers may be unfamiliar with the process of cultivating a leguminous plant species for the purpose of producing biomass and incorporating it into the soil. Still, there's a good chance that this method will boost soil fertility. In addition to being cultivated in strips between crops, green manures may also be planted as seasonal green manures in rotation with other crops or as enhanced fallows. Information on suitable species is the first need for proper green manuring. Plant and animal relationships and management must be done carefully to stop the spread of diseases and pests. Although bio-control agents may be used at first, ecological methods that create a pest/predator balance are the most effective for managing organic pests. While selecting resistant crop varieties is crucial, there are other ways to prevent pest outbreaks as well: adjusting planting dates to avoid pest outbreaks; strengthening soil health to fend off soil pathogens alternating crops; promoting natural biological agents to control disease, insects, and weeds erecting physical barriers to keep out animals, birds, and insects; altering habitat to support pollinators and natural enemies; and ensnaring pests in pheromone attractants.

When seeing an organic farm as "one organism", growing certain crops is not the main goal. Instead, the emphasis is on selecting crops that will enhance the current agricultural system and be simple to incorporate into it. However, the decision is also influenced by the farmer's expertise in proper crop management, the crops' ability to provide a varied food for the family, and market demand. In addition to cultivating food crops, farmers may also need to plant leguminous cover crops, which can be used as green manures to nourish the soil and provide animals with high-protein feed. In most cases, planting trees may be advised for their shade, windbreak, firewood, feed, mulch, and other purposes. Organic farmers should, first and foremost, cultivate enough food to feed their families. To raise money for other household necessities, however, they could also choose to produce vegetables for the market. Farmers want to cultivate crops that enhance soil fertility as well. Legumes and pasture grass must be grown by farmers who raise cattle.

In general, farmers need to choose crops that have little chance of failing. Legumes and cereals like millet, sorghum, beans, and peas are particularly well suited for conversion since they are low-cost to grow, often have modest nutritional requirements, and are resistant to pests and illnesses. Many traditional crops may also be kept in storage and sold in local marketplaces. Most vegetables are high-value short-term crops, but they are also more difficult to cultivate and more vulnerable to pest and disease attacks. Thus, unless the farmer can tolerate certain harvest losses, they shouldn't be planted on a wider scale. The crops that are grown for sale should be ones that can be delivered straight to neighboring markets in metropolitan areas, the roadside market, or the farm gate. It might be necessary to gather some market data in order to choose the best crop to sell. Traders or exporters must provide comprehensive information on the crops, required kinds, quantities, quality, regularity, and season in order for decision-makers to choose crops for local or international markets.

Farmers often inquire about the growth time of organic crops because they want to see results quickly. Crop growth is not the goal of organic farming. When growth circumstances are better than they were before, crops will grow bigger and quicker. It is possible to accelerate the growth of conventionally cultivated crops with the extensive use of synthetic fertilizers and pesticides. In order to have a strong physical and nutritional structure and become less vulnerable to pests and illnesses, organic crops are cultivated to grow at their typical, natural pace. Nonetheless, organic farmers put a lot of effort into ensuring that their crops grow healthily and yield well. By using techniques other than pollination and overcoming natural barriers, isolated genes from plants, animals, or microbes are transferred into the crop genome to create genetically engineered seeds and planting materials.

Therefore, organic farmers should avoid using genetically modified items in their agricultural practices and safeguard their produce from any potential GMO contamination. However, it is anticipated that the danger of GMO contamination will rise as GM crops are used more often in traditional agricultural systems. Cross-pollinating species like maize or rapeseed, as well as crops pollinated by insects like cotton or soybean, are more vulnerable to contamination from surrounding genetically engineered crops. Plants mostly pollinated by vegetation, such bananas, potatoes, and cassava, are less likely to be contaminated by genetically modified organisms. In addition to genetic contamination, if GMO and organic goods are not adequately separated during storage and transit, there is a danger of physical contamination owing to GMO residues throughout the manufacturing and market chain.

The technique of mulching involves adding plant material leafs, grass, twigs, agricultural leftovers, straw, etc. to the topsoil. The activity of earthworms and other soil organisms is increased by a mulch layer. They contribute to the formation of a soil structure that has an abundance of both bigger and smaller pores that allow rainfall to quickly permeate the soil and decrease surface runoff. The amount of organic matter in the soil rises as the mulch material breaks down. Organic matter in the soil contributes to the development of healthy, stable crumb structures. As a result, water will have a difficult time removing the dirt particles. Mulching is thus essential for stopping soil erosion. The kind of substance mulching is applied with will have a big impact on its outcome. Easy-to-decompose material will shield the soil for a limited amount of time but will enrich the crops with nutrients as it breaks down. Because they break down more gradually, hardy materials will cover the soil for a longer period of time. Spreading organic manures, such as animal dung, on top of the mulch might speed up the material's breakdown and increase its nitrogen concentration.

In the damp and protective environment of the mulch layer, some organisms may multiply excessively. Under a covering of mulch, slugs and snails may proliferate quite fast. Termites and ants that might harm crops could also find the perfect place to live. In some instances, there is a higher chance of pests and illnesses developing when agricultural leftovers are mulched. Crop stalks such as cotton, maize, or sugar cane can harbor harmful organisms like stem borers. If there is a chance that plant material contaminated with fungi or viruses may infect the next crop, then the disease should not be employed. Rotating your crops is crucial to reducing these dangers When mulching with carbon-rich materials like straw or stalks, microbes may utilize the nitrogen in the soil to break down the material. As a result, nitrogen could not be accessible for plant development for a while. The availability of organic material is often the main obstacle to mulching. Its collection or production often requires labor and might conflict with crop production.

A month before rice is harvested, white clover is sowed amid the rice. A winter crop of rye is seeded shortly after. Rice straw is returned to the field and utilized as a loose mulch layer after the harvested rice has been threshed. Till the rye is harvested, both the white clover and the rye emerge through the mulch. The mulch is covered with chicken dung if the straw breaks down too slowly. This farming strategy produces satisfactory yields without requiring any soil disturbance. Some soils are more suited to provide crops with water during dry spells than others. The amount of organic matter and the nature of the soil both have a major role on a soil's capacity to absorb and hold water. Up to three times as much water may be stored in clay-rich soils than in sandy ones. Similar to a sponge, soil organic matter stores water.

Consequently, crop residue or a cover crop keeps the soil healthy, keeps the surface from crusting, and reduces runoff. Soil pores and fissures are preserved by earthworms, roots, and other soil organisms. More water sinks into the soil and less runs off. A little covering of mulch may significantly lower the amount of water evaporating from the soil. It keeps the soil from being too heated and shields it from direct sunshine. Because it ruptures the capillary capillaries, shallow excavation of the dry top soil might lessen the drying out of the soil layers below. Reduced irrigation expenditures are a result of improved soil water retention.

CONCLUSION

Organic agriculture has been determined to play a crucial part in transforming modern agricultural methods towards environmental stewardship and sustainability. Organic farming provides a comprehensive and integrated approach to farming because of its dedication to biodiversity, soil health, and natural processes. The study emphasizes how organic farming improves crop quality, soil fertility, and ecological sustainability in general. Organic agricultural principles provide a viable answer to the difficulties that global agriculture confronts, including biodiversity loss, soil degradation, and climate change. In addition to promoting better food production, adopting organic techniques helps protect ecosystems and lessen their negative effects on the environment. As a revolutionary and sustainable model for the future of global food systems, organic agriculture must be continuously supported and promoted, as the study makes clear.

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CHAPTER 6

INVESTIGATION AND DETERMINATION OF DRIP IRRIGATION SYSTEM

Puneet Tulsiyan, Associate Professor
Department of ISME,ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, India
Email Id-puneet.tulsiyan@atlasunveristy.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Assessment of the drip irrigation system, a cutting-edge and effective technique for agricultural water supply. The abstract delves into the basic ideas and elements of drip irrigation, highlighting how it may improve agricultural yields, save water, and lessen its negative effects on the environment. The study explores the technology below drip irrigation, including emitter design, automated controls, and tubing systems. This study examines the effects of drip irrigation on soil health, agricultural yield, and water saving, based on empirical research and real-world applications. The essential components of this study are captured by terms like automation, agricultural yields, drip irrigation, conserving water, and water efficiency. The study concludes by highlighting the value of drip irrigation as an accurate and sustainable technique for managing water in agriculture that promotes resource efficiency and the preservation of the environment.

KEYWORDS:

Automation, Crop Yields, Drip Irrigation, Water Conservation, Water Efficiency.

INTRODUCTION

The choice of crops and a suitable cropping strategy are the main determinants of the need for irrigation. It goes without saying that not all crops or even all types of the same crop need water in the same amounts or for the same length of time. While many crops are very vulnerable to drought, others are not. Because they can draw water from deeper soil layers, crops with deep roots are less vulnerable to brief droughts. Many crops can now be cultivated outside of their traditional agro-climatic zone thanks to irrigation. Along with the above listed negative effects, there may be some positive effects as well [1], [2]. Without irrigation, it could be feasible to grow land that would not be suited for agriculture. Alternatively, sensitive crop production might be moved to regions with lower pest or disease load.

There are irrigation methods with more or less detrimental effects and varying degrees of efficiency. If irrigation is required, organic farmers should carefully choose a method that doesn't damage the soil, doesn't overuse the water supply, and doesn't negatively affect the health of the plants. Water is supplied directly to the single crop plants via thin perforated pipes from a central tank. Water flows continuously but very gently, giving the plant' root zones enough time to be penetrated by it. In this manner, the soil is not harmed and the amount of water wasted is minimal. Installing drip irrigation systems may be quite expensive [3], [4]. However, using resources that are readily accessible in the area, some farmers have created low-cost drip irrigation systems. Any irrigation method the farmer selects will be more effective if it is coupled with complementary actions to strengthen the soil's structure and retention of water.

Transplanting lettuce next to tomato plants is an example of planting a second crop into a standing crop while the crop is in its reproductive stage but not yet ready for harvest. When the tomatoes are starting to branch out to span the whole width of the bed, the lettuce is picked, taking up the area that the tomatoes haven't yet taken up. planting two or more crops in the same row without a clear pattern [5], [6]. To lessen pests, certain crops may also be seeded as border crops or trap crops at the main crop's hedges. When the insect encounters the trap crop which is much favored over the main crop it pauses as it enters the field from the margins. To manage the pest before it spreads to the main crop, a natural pesticide may be applied on the trap crop. A crop combination with disparate growth forms or developmental stages may complicate cultivation and reduce the efficacy of mulch application. Soiling crops in alternating rows makes management much easier.

Crop rotation may also be hampered by intercropping. Given that the separation of plant families over time is a core tenet of crop rotation, it could be challenging to transplant two mixed plant families in the same area. On the other hand, careful planning may keep a crop rotation sustainable. Let's say, for illustration purposes, that a farm cultivates lettuce, tomatoes, squash, and broccoli. To keep certain diseases and pests under control, a basic rotation would place each crop in a separate year, with a three-year gap before a crop is repeated on the same bed. A cover crop is any plant that covers the soil and increases soil fertility. It could be a weed distinguished by its tremendous biomass output and quick development, or it might be a leguminous plant with other advantageous properties. The ability of cover crops to keep the land constantly covered and their rapid development are their most valuable characteristics. opping produces a variety of feed sources for animals, including weeds, crop leftovers, leys (improved fallows with seeded legumes, grasses, or trees), and grass and nitrogen-binding legumes. Animals graze on stubble or under trees, giving crops manure and draught in addition to acting as a savings account. In addition to a vegetable garden and fish pond, an experimental farm in Thailand raises pigs and hens. Fish feed, biogas production, and fertilizer are all made from animal waste. Wastes from crops and people are also put to the biogas unit. The fishpond uses the biogas generator's liquid effluent, while the garden uses the solid leftovers. Every so often, the pond and garden are placed in the opposite order, allowing the leftovers from one to act as fertilizer for the other.

Crops on slopes should be cultivated horizontally, following contour lines, as opposed to vertically. This has the potential to significantly reduce erosion by slowing the flow of surface water. Intercropping fast-growing plants, like beans or clover, may assist shield the soil during the early stages of the main crop's growth, especially in crops that require some time to create a protective canopy. Recalling the crop that was previously planted in a certain field or farm plot is made much easier with the use of a meticulously maintained field record book. This is beneficial, particularly if the records also document previous instances of plant diseases or pests on every agricultural plot. For instance, over a crop's life, pests and soil illnesses might accumulate. Growing the same crop in the same field as another member of the same family can cause it to suffer from the illnesses and pests that have collected from the preceding crop(s) and may hinder its growth [7], [8]. This may be prevented by planting a new crop that is tolerant to or resistant to the specific pest or disease, or by leaving the soil fallow (not farmed) for a period. Planting a crop from a different family that won't be susceptible to the same complex of pests and illnesses is even better. As a consequence, soil issues will lessen and the original crop may be farmed profitably once again.

The process of turning organic debris from plants or animals into humus in pits or piles is called composting. In the composting process, decomposition happens more quickly, reaches greater temperatures, and produces a better-quality product than when organic material breaks down uncontrollably. Three distinct stages may be identified in the composting process: the heating, cooling, and maturation stages. These stages, nevertheless, are indistinguishable from one another. The compost heap's temperature climbs to 60 to 70 °C after three days of setup and often remains there for two to three weeks. The heating phase is when the majority of the breakdown takes place. At this stage, the majority of the organisms are bacteria. The bacteria's release of energy during their breakdown of readily decomposable material is what causes the high temperature. One common and significant aspect of the composting process is the warm temperature. Weed seeds and roots, illnesses, and pests are destroyed by the heat. Because of their fast population growth, the bacteria have a very high oxygen requirement at his early stage of the composting process. Elevated temperatures inside the heap indicate that the bacteria have sufficient oxygen available to them [9], [10]. The compost will acquire an unpleasant stench and bacterial growth will be impeded if there is insufficient air in the heap. Additionally, humidity is necessary for the composting process since bacteria need humid environments to function. The heating phase necessitates the most water because of the intense biological activity and significant evaporation that takes place during this phase. The compost heap's pH rises with increasing heat.

DISCUSSION

Plants that are planted as green manures are meant to store nutrients for the main crop. They are incorporated into the topsoil after they have reached their maximum biomass. Growing green manure differs from growing a legume crop in the cycle as they are often harvested before they blossom. Fresh plant material that has been incorporated into the soil releases nutrients fast and decomposes completely in a short amount of time. Compared to fine material, old or coarse material (such as straw, twigs, etc.) will decay more slowly and hence contribute more to the accumulation of soil organic matter rather than fertilizing the crop. Gathering fresh plant material from elsewhere and incorporating it into the soil is an alternative to planting a crop of green manure in the field. For instance, in an agroforestry system, trees and/or shrubs growing next to crops may produce a lot of green material that may be utilized as much or as green manure.

To produce high-quality manure, farmyard manure should preferably be gathered and kept for some time. Composting the farmyard waste yields the finest results. Anaerobic manure storage, such as in water-logged pits, results in lower-quality manure. If the animals are housed in stables, collecting farmyard manure is made easier. To absorb the moisture, the manure should be combined with dry plant material (such as grass, straw, crop leftovers, leaves, etc.) before being stored. Compared to long straw, straw that has been broken up or crushed by spreading it out on the side of the road may absorb more water. Manure is often kept in pits or mounds close to the stable. If it is covered with brand-new bedding, it may also be kept in the stable as bedding. Regardless, the manure from the farmyard has to be shielded from the sun, wind, and rain. To prevent losing nutrients, both drying out and water logging should be avoided. The storage area needs to have a little slope and be impermeable.

The liquid from the manure pile and the urine from the stable should ideally be collected in a trench. Urine and water cannot go out of control because of a barrier around the pile. Pit storage of manure is very useful in arid regions and during dry seasons. Pit storage lowers the pile's demand for watering and lowers the chance of drying out. But since the hole has to be excavated out, there's a higher chance of waterlogging and more work involved. A 90 cm deep hole with a little slope at the bottom is excavated for this procedure. Straw is initially placed on top of the compacted bottom. The soil is covered with a thin layer of earth and the layers are compacted, with a thickness of around 30 cm. After filling the hole to a height of around 30 cm above the ground, 10 cm of earth is added.The majority of microbial fertilizers are made of organic matter and some kind of starch or sugar that is fermented with certain types of bacteria. Since the items are living things, application must be done with caution. When they expire, they shouldn't be utilized since the organisms could be dead. While there has been considerable study on the use of microbes and potential benefits, there is currently a lack of expertise with these items. It is advised to do small-scale testing and compare the results with an untreated plot in order to determine the impact of a particular product. But keep in mind that microbial fertilizers cannot take the place of proper agricultural humus management. The majority of the fungus and bacteria found in the things you buy are often found in soil. Thus, microbial inoculate increase the concentration of the target species. To save expenses, some farmers produce their own microbial fertilizers.

Through mineralization, some bacteria enrich the soil with nutrients. Others fix nitrogen from the atmosphere and add it. Among them are Azotobacter and Rhizobium. Other microorganisms that aid in providing phosphorus to plants include mycorrhizal fungus. The nitrogen-fixing bacterium Azotobacter and Azospirillum. A varied group of bacteria known as pseudomonas species are able to use a broad variety of substances released by plants when their roots break or leak. They may aid in the suppression of soil-borne plant diseases and have the ability to solubilize phosphorus. The ground natural rock serves as the foundation for the mineral fertilizers that are permitted in organic farming.

They may only be added to organic manures as a supplement, however. They may disrupt soil life and lead to an imbalance in plant nutrition if they include readily soluble nutrients. Because they require a lot of energy to acquire and transport, and can result in the destruction of natural ecosystems, mineral fertilizers may raise ethical concerns. The control of pests and diseases involves a variety of interrelated tasks. The majority of management techniques are long-term initiatives designed to shield crops against pests and illnesses. The goal of management is to maintain low levels of illnesses and pest populations. On the other hand, control is a transient endeavor that aims to eradicate illness and pests. For pests and illnesses, organic agriculture often addresses the root causes of an issue rather than just addressing its symptoms. As a result, management is much more important than control. This paper outlines biological, mechanical, and natural pesticide control methods in addition to preventative measures. A plant's ability to interact with its surroundings is essential to its health. Monocultures put plants' health at greater danger; on-farm diversity offers a balanced relationship between various plants, pests, and predators. Because of this, maintaining a healthy environment may help to effectively lower the population of pests and diseases. Because certain crop kinds are better adapted to their surroundings than others, they have more efficient defenses against infection.

A plant's state of health is mostly determined by the soil's fertility. A plant that has a balanced pH and nourishment gets stronger and less susceptible to illness. Additional elements that are essential for a healthy plant include the climate, including appropriate temperatures and an adequate quantity of water. Should any of these circumstances be unsuitable, the plant may experience stress. Stress weakens a plant's defenses and makes it more vulnerable to disease and insect infestation. Growing a variety of healthy plants is consequently one of the most essential things an organic farmer does. Many insect and disease issues are avoided as a result. A farmer's ability to choose efficient preventative crop protection techniques is aided by their knowledge of plant health and the ecology of pests and diseases. It's critical to intervene at the most vulnerable times since a variety of variables may contribute to the spread of disease and pests. This may be achieved by choosing a selected approach, combining appropriate techniques, or implementing management principles at the appropriate time.

An estimated two thirds of infectious plant illnesses are caused by fungi. These consist of anthracnose, mildew, sooty molds, leaf curls, smuts, needle casts, and all varieties of white and true rusts. Furthermore, they are accountable for the majority of spots on leaves, fruits, and flowers, as well as root, stem, fruit, and wood rots, cankers, blights, wilts, and scabs. Plants may perish and wither in parts or as a whole.

Any of the four primary issues listed below is caused by bacteria. Certain bacteria generate enzymes that degrade plant cell walls at any point throughout the plant. This results in the plant's sections beginning to "rot." Certain bacteria create toxins that harm plant tissues and often result in the plant dying young. Some generate copious quantities of very sticky sugars, which clog the plant's tiny channels and stop water from reaching the shoots and leaves. This results in the plant dying quickly once again. Lastly, proteins produced by other bacteria resemble hormones found in plants. These cause plant tissue to proliferate excessively and result in tumors. Systemic disorders are mostly caused by viruses. Chlorosis, or a change in color in leaves and other green components, is often seen in leaves. Affected leaves develop areas of light green or yellow that vary in size, shape, and color. The plant's overall growth and vigor may be reduced as a consequence of these areas, which may combine to create distinctive mosaic patterns.

The needless usage of organic plant extracts. It's crucial to use oils and compounds like pyrethrum, derris, and tobacco sparingly since they might harm beneficial insects as well. In addition to killing numerous pest predators, these compounds may also kill parasitoids if administration is not controlled. Additionally, overuse of these chemicals may cause bugs to become resistant. Scouting need to be organized and prepared accordingly. Obtaining a random sample that accurately reflects the state of the crop as a whole is crucial. In pest and disease scouting operations, walking an M-shaped or zigzag circuit across a field is the most popular pattern. Because it is simple to apply, guarantees that every area of the field is covered, and is straightforward to teach, this pattern is often used. It is also possible to monitor insect infestations using a variety of trap.

The foundation of organic disease management and control is bolstering the plant to improve its defenses against infection and so stop the illness from spreading. Plant cell walls thickening is a common manifestation of induced resistance since it hinders pathogen entry into the cell. Another is the pathogen's death due to the dying of the infected cell walls, which stops it from spreading. Farmers may manufacture a number of chemicals that cause resistance on their own. Some are plant extracts from giant knotweed (Reynoutriasachalinensis), rhubarb (Rheumrhabarbarum), or efeu (Hedera helix). On the farm, one may use herbal and compost teas to improve crop health and fertility as well as inoculate the leaves and roots with soluble nutrients, microbes, and products known as beneficial metabolites, which promote plant growth and development. Apart from being a fertilizer, compost extract may make plants resistant to diseases. Mature compost is prepared by mixing it with water in a ratio of 1:5 to 1:8 (vol/vol: 1 liter of compost for every 5 to 8 liters of water), giving it a good stir, and letting it ferment for three to seven days. You may add one teaspoon of molasses to one liter of liquid, since this will help the bacteria grow. The location for fermentation has to be protected from the sun and shade. Plant extracts can be made from stinging nettle, horsetail, comfrey, clover, seaweed, and other plants; they can also be combined with marine byproducts like fish waste or fishmeal. The extract is well-stirred, filtered, and diluted at a ratio of 1:5 to 1:10. For application as foliar spray or soil drench, dilutions of 1:10 or 1:5 are used. Applying compost extracts or teas every seven to ten days is often advised in order to boost soil microorganisms and stop illnesses from spreading.

Employ native plants that are known to attract parasitoids and pest predators by providing nectar, pollen, alternate hosts, and/or prey. This trait is seen in most types of blooming shrubs. It is important to exercise caution when using plant species that are recognized to serve as alternate hosts for pests or illnesses. Neighboring grasslands with agricultural fields have a variety of naturally occurring pest enemy species, including spiders, staphylinid beetles, and carabids. One to three natural grass species may be seeded in 1 to 3 m strips to reduce the danger of weeds and plants that serve as hosts for crop pests and illnesses. Utilize native blooming plant species that are known to attract parasitoids and predators by providing nectar, pollen, alternate hosts, or prey. This trait is present in most kinds of flowering plants. But caution should be used to avoid using substitute hosts for illnesses or pests. On the edge of the agricultural field, three to five native flowering plant species may be seeded in well-prepared seed beds in strips of one to three meters. The strip may be renewed or new ones can be made by gathering the seeds after blooming. Companion plants in a crop may also attract natural pest foes. The species of companion plants used in the flower strips may be the same. A crop's blooming companion plants, one or two per 10 m2, act as a "service station" for natural foes of pests.

To capture moths like armyworms, cutworms, stem borers, and other night flying insects, use light traps. When light traps are set up just after adult moths begin to emerge but before they begin producing eggs, they work better. Light traps do, however, have the drawback of drawing a variety of bug species. Not all insects that are drawn to an area are pests. Furthermore, despite being drawn to the vicinity of the light traps, sometimes from great distances, a large number of insects do not actually land in the trap. Rather, they stay close by, which in turn raises the overall population of insects in the surrounding region. To keep an eye on adult thrips, use color and water traps. Thrips may sometimes even be eliminated by mass catching them in a field or nursery using colored (blue, yellow, or white) sticky traps or water traps. The boards' color range affects how well the sticky traps work. In comparison to darker colors, brighter ones attract more thrips. The efficiency of sticky traps with cylindrical surfaces is higher than that of flat ones. The ideal spacing between them and crop level is one meter. Traps must not to be positioned close to shelter belts or the edges of fields.

Aphids, leaf mining insects, and whiteflies may all be managed using yellow sticky traps. One such trap is a yellow plastic gallon bottle that has been turned upside down and is affixed to a stick with clear motor oil or automobile grease on it. These have to be positioned in and around the field, around 10 cm above the surrounding vegetation. When flies are covering traps, clean and re-oil. The impact of yellow sticky boards is comparable. Use one to five yellow sticky cards per 500 square meters of field space. Change traps once a week at the very least. Spread petroleum jelly or old motor oil on 30 cm by 30 cm pieces of painted yellow plywood to create your own sticky trap. Set traps close to the plants, but far enough away so the leaves won't adhere to the board.

Keep in mind that yellow attracts a lot of insects. Use yellow traps sparingly since yellow attracts a wide variety of insect species, including beneficial ones. Old newspapers should be cut to fruit size, and the layers should be doubled since single layers are brittle. To create a rectangle bag, fold the sheets, then sew or staple the sides and bottom together. To inflate the bag, blow into it. Place a single fruit inside each bag, shut it, and securely fasten the top end of the bag using wire, sisal thread, banana fiber, or coconut midrib. To keep fruit off the bag, push the bottom of the bag upward. For instance, begin packing the mangoes when they are around the size of a chicken egg, or 55 to 60 days after the flowers bloom. To let moisture escape, cut a few tiny holes in the bottom of the plastic bag or leave it open while storing bananas, for example. Fruits that are ill are caused by fungi and bacteria growing, which is encouraged by moisture that is retained in the plastic bags. Furthermore, plastic overheats the fruit. Biological control refers to the use of natural enemies, such as hoverfly larvae to suppress psyllids and aphids, predatory gallmidges, and ladybird beetles, to regulate the populations of pests and illnesses This suggests that we are working with complex, dynamic biological systems that change over time and from place to place. In the event that natural enemy numbers in the field are insufficient to effectively suppress pests, the pests may be raised in a rearing unit or laboratory. In order to maintain low insect numbers and increase field populations, the raised natural enemies are released into the crop. release of the natural enemies in a preventative manner at the start of every season. This is used in situations where the absence of the pest or an unfavorable environment prevented the natural enemies from surviving from one cropping season to the next. The natural enemy then establishes and grows populations throughout the season. releasing natural enemies when agricultural harm is being caused by insect populations Since pathogens cannot survive and spread in the agricultural environment without the presence of a host they are often employed in this manner.

CONCLUSION

Drip irrigation systems have revolutionized agricultural water management techniques; this has been shown by the system's inquiry and conclusion. The accurate supply of water by drip irrigation makes a substantial contribution to resource efficiency and water conservation. With its potential to increase agricultural output while reducing environmental impact, drip irrigation is highlighted in this research along with its beneficial effects on crop yields and soil health. Drip irrigation is showing to be a game-changing option as global agriculture struggles with water constraint and the need for sustainable methods. Implementing this technology will help meet the objectives of sustainable agriculture in addition to addressing the problems caused by water constraint. With drip irrigation systems being a crucial part of sustainable water management in agriculture and eventually enhancing the resilience and effectiveness of global food systems, the study therefore highlights the need of their broad application and ongoing research.

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CHAPTER 7

INVESTIGATION OF DISEASE MANAGEMENT IN CROPPING

Somayya Madakam, Associate Professor
Department of uGDX,ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, India
Email Id-somayya.madakam@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

An essential component of contemporary agriculture is cropping management, which tries to reduce the negative effects of plant diseases on crop yields and guarantee the security of the world's food supply. This study explores a range of disease management options, including chemical control, genetic resistance, cultural behaviors, and developing technology. The research highlights the significance of integrated strategies that take sustainability, ecological balance, and the dynamic nature of plant diseases into account. Furthermore, the difficulties in managing diseases are examined, such as pathogen resistance and the environmental consequences of control actions. The results highlight the need of ongoing research, global cooperation, and the implementation of novel approaches to tackle the dynamic difficulties presented by crop diseases in the dynamic agricultural environment.

KEYWORDS:

Disease Management, Crop Diseases, Integrated Pest Management, Genetic Resistance, Chemical Control, Sustainable Agriculture.

INTRODUCTION

A complex and important component of contemporary agriculture, crop disease management aims to prevent, mitigate, and regulate the effects of illnesses on crops. This all-encompassing strategy combines a number of tactics, tools, and methods that when combined maintain crop health and guarantee world food security. The use of resistant agricultural types is a cornerstone of disease control. Utilizing cutting-edge genetic methods, plant breeders create cultivars that are inherently resistant to certain diseases[1], [2]. This approach reduces the need for chemical treatments while also strengthening crops' general resistance to infections that are always changing. The goal of ongoing research and development is to find and add new resistance features to important crops, which will help ensure the long-term viability of agricultural systems. Because they encourage a comprehensive approach to crop protection, integrated pest management (IPM) techniques are essential to the control of diseases. A variety of tactics are included in integrated pest management (IPM), including as cultural norms, biological control, and the prudent use of chemical treatments. Farmers may limit the spread of disease-causing organisms by using crop rotation, optimizing planting dates, and stressing natural enemies[3], [4].

This integrated method promotes ecological equilibrium within agroecosystems while simultaneously reducing dependency on chemical inputs. Since they provide fast and focused control over infections and pests, fungicides and pesticides are crucial parts of disease management strategies. To prevent detrimental effects on the environment, non-target creatures, and human health, their usage must be carefully considered. Ongoing attempts to improve the sustainability and effectiveness of chemical disease control in cropping systems are reflected in the development of selective and environmentally friendly chemical agents and precision application methods. Digital technology have become more useful instruments for managing diseases in recent times[5], [6].

Farmers can monitor crop health in real-time, identify early disease symptoms, and improve management techniques with the use of remote sensing, data analytics, and machine learning tools. With the help of these technologies, rapid decision-making is made possible, enabling early intervention and lowering the overall effect of illnesses on agricultural production. Furthermore, by integrating precision agricultural methods, inputs may be applied specifically, reducing waste and environmental impact. Diversification and crop rotation are long-standing techniques that are still essential to disease control plans. Farmers may limit the accumulation of soilborne illnesses by changing crops in a particular area, which disrupts the life cycles of certain pathogens[7], [8]. An agricultural system's resilience is increased and the likelihood of widespread disease outbreaks is decreased by crop diversification. Intercropping, cover crops, and agroforestry systems are a few examples of techniques that use biodiversity to improve disease resistance and ecosystem health overall.

Collaboration and information exchange on a global scale are essential to agricultural disease control success. Since illnesses know no geographical bounds, worldwide cooperation is necessary to track and neutralize new threats. Governments, organizations, and research institutes work together to create early warning systems, share information, and build cooperative research initiatives. Coordination of these activities is greatly aided by initiatives like the International Plant Protection Convention (IPPC) and regional plant protection organizations. There are still difficulties in managing diseases, despite the variety of available solutions. The dynamics of illness are unpredictable due to climate change, which also modifies pathogen distribution and prevalence. Continuous risks to global agricultural output come from newly emerging diseases and the development of resistance in already existing ones. Furthermore, the adoption of advanced disease control measures is influenced by socioeconomic variables, including education and resource availability, which leads to differences in the results amongst agricultural communities[9], [10].

Crop diseases pose a serious threat to agriculture, affecting crop quality, output, and food security in general. Developing efficient management and mitigation methods for crop diseases requires a thorough understanding of the numerous illnesses that impact crops and their significance. This thorough investigation explores the wide range of crop diseases, their origins, symptoms, and far-reaching effects on agriculture worldwide.One of the most frequent infections that harm crops is fungi. Fungal infections may cause large output decreases, from the well-known rusts and smuts to the more subdued but no less destructive mildews and blights. The need to create resistant crop types, enhance cultural techniques, and use fungicides sparingly makes understanding fungal infections crucial. Examples include powdery mildew in a variety of crops, late blight in potatoes, and wheat rust. In agricultural production, bacterial pathogens provide a distinct set of difficulties. A number of diseases, including canker, wilt, and bacterial blight, can seriously harm crops. The need of accurate disease detection and the creation of disease-resistant cultivars highlight the significance of researching bacterial agricultural diseases. Compared to fungal infections, bacterial illnesses often demand distinct management techniques, and sustainable agriculture depends on efficient control methods.Another kind of pathogen that has a major effect on crop health is viruses. The capacity of viral crop diseases to spread quickly and induce systemic infections, which result in stunted development, leaf yellowing, and decreased yields, makes them significant. Creating resistant cultivars and putting vector management strategies into place are essential components of treating viral infections. A few examples include the mosaic viruses that impact potatoes, beans, and other crops.

Microscopic worms called plant-parasitic nematodes have the potential to seriously harm crops. Their potential to impact root systems, resulting in decreased nutrient absorption and weakened plant health, makes them significant in crop diseases. Integrated management strategies that include crop rotation, resistant cultivars, and soil health techniques are often needed to combat nematode infestations.The development and reemergence of novel pathogens is indicative of the dynamic character of crop diseases. Given their potential to spread rapidly and damage the world's food supply, it is crucial to keep an eye on and comprehend these illnesses. Examples include the resurgence of illnesses that were previously under control or the introduction of novel rust pathogen strains as a result of changes to agricultural methods or environmental factors.Studying crop diseases is important, but maybe most so because of how they affect the world's food security. Agriculture is more important than ever because of the rising need for food brought on by the world's population growth. Crop diseases have the capacity to significantly lower yields, which might result in a scarcity of food, price swings, and unstable economic conditions.

In order to guarantee a steady and adequate supply of food, efforts to safeguard global food systems must include efficient disease control techniques. Crop diseases have far-reaching economic effects. Reduced yields, higher input costs for disease control, and possible long-term effects on soil health are losses that farmers face. The development and use of sustainable and economical disease control strategies demonstrate the significance of reducing crop disease-related economic losses.

Crop diseases have an effect on the environment that goes beyond the local area. Chemical pesticides and fungicides used to combat disease may have detrimental effects on non-target species, water quality, and soil health. In order to reduce their negative effects on the environment, sustainable disease control techniques place a strong emphasis on actions that support ecological balance and long-term soil fertility.Crop diseases provide a number of issues that need for international cooperation and further study. Governments, research centers, and international organizations collaborate to recognize new risks, create resilient crop types, and exchange information on efficient disease control techniques. It is impossible to overestimate the significance of research in learning about the biology of diseases, figuring out host-pathogen interactions, and creating novel treatments.Crop disease prevalence and distribution are expected to alter as a result of changes in the global climate. It is clear how important it is to create resilient agricultural systems that can resist shifting disease dynamics. In the face of climate uncertainty, climate-smart agriculture which incorporates disease-resistant cultivars and adaptive management practices becomes more important for guaranteeing the sustainability of crop supply.

DISCUSSION

The basis of sustainable agriculture and global food security is the study of crop diseases and their significance. Pathogens that cause nematodes, bacteria, viruses, and fungi each provide different problems that need for different but coordinated treatment strategies. Crop diseases have far-reaching effects on economies, the environment, and food security. For this reason, it is critical that continued research be done, as well as international cooperation and the implementation of creative and sustainable agricultural methods. Humanity may successfully manage the difficult problems of feeding a rising population in a changing planet by comprehending and properly controlling crop diseases.

The following are the key events of the phases that make up the disease cycle: the pathogen's growth and development, primary infection, dispersal of the primary inoculum, secondary infection, and overwintering. The portion of the pathogen either bacterial or fungal spores or fungal mycelium that overwinters (over-seasons) and results in the season's initial infection, or primary infection, is referred to as the main inoculum. Generally speaking, the more inoculum there is and the closer it is to its host, the more. The term "dissemination" describes the pathogen's movement from an inoculum source to a host.

Wind, splattering rain, insects, diseased or contaminated pruning instruments, and other factors may all spread disease. surgery, among other methods. Within the tree canopy, spread may happen quickly from nearby sources or from a distance. When a pathogen and a vulnerable host come into touch in an environment that is conducive to infection, primary infection occurs. Pathogens may enter a plant directly via its surface or via natural holes or wounds. A pathogen often grows and develops on or in infected plant tissue. Spores or cells left over from the main infection or from other secondary infections cause secondary infection. Throughout the growth season, there may be several repetitions of the secondary infection cycle. The length of the environmental circumstances required for infection as well as the biology of the virus and its host determine how many cycles are required.

Overwintering or over-seasoning refers to a pathogen's capacity to endure between growth seasons. Apple pathogens may survive the winter in a variety of ways. A vulnerable host, a pathogen (casual-agent), and favorable environmental circumstances must all be present and interact for a plant disease to manifest. A plant disease won't develop if any one of these conditions isn't satisfied. Currently, there are very few methods that we can use to control the environment, such trimming to encourage drying, bedding to enhance soil drainage, and watering scheduling. By controlling the host by using resistant cultivars and the pathogen by cultural practices and fungicidal or bactericidal sprays severe disease outbreaks may be avoided.

The idea behind seed treatment is the application and use of biological and chemical agents to control or contain primary soil and seed-borne insect and disease infestations, which can have disastrous effects on crop production. This also improves crop safety by promoting the healthy and vigorous establishment of plants, which in turn produces higher yields. Nematodes are spherical, thread-like worms that are undetectable to the human eye. Plant parasite species cause stunting and decreased output by attacking roots and other plant components. Plants with nematode infections are not only weaker, but their root systems are also more vulnerable to bacterial or fungal secondary diseases.

When a suspected nematode issue is identified, the first step is accurate identification. Finding out whether numbers are large enough to endanger the crop is the second stage. The most prevalent pathogenic nematode in plants, root knot nematodes, cannot multiply in soil that is below 58 degrees Fahrenheit and cannot reach roots below 50 degrees Fahrenheit. At lower temperatures, their reproductive rate slows down, which causes populations to grow more slowly. Cool season crops are thus less vulnerable to harm. For example, nematodes seldom harm early spring potatoes.

Affected regions and plants should be segregated as soon as a nematode issue is identified, since irrigation water, equipment, and transplants may all transmit worm infections. Nematodes may spread three feet a year over a field from originally modest contaminated regions. All types of cole crops, beans, cucumbers, muskmelon, watermelon, bendi, potatoes, sweet potatoes, and tomatoes are susceptible to root knot nematodes. Except for a few cultivars resistant to the golden nematode, all potatoes are vulnerable to worms. An efficient way to manage the cyst nematode is to rotate your crop to non-host crops like maize, cucurbits, potatoes, and tomatoes. but due to its larger host range, is less likely to control the root knot nematode. Although all species of Meloidogyne are referred to as "root knot nematodes," there is uncertainty on whether crops or cultivars are resistant to or tolerant of which type of worm since each species has a distinct host range. Rotations to non-host crops lasting more than a year lower numbers below harmful thresholds but do not completely eradicate them.

For instance, a farmer can determine whether his or her profit increased or decreased by comparing the yield and revenue from selling the produce to the next crop cycle if they keep track of all production costs, such as labor, inputs, and other expenses, for the duration of the crop cycle. The records also provide details on the actions that resulted in the farmer's profit or loss, enabling him or her to make other choices that would increase net income. Farmers need to have a basic understanding of farm resources in order to make wise management decisions. These resources include the amount of land that can be farmed, the source of irrigation, the availability of labor, the skill level of laborers, family labor, the availability of labor, the availability of farm machinery, the availability of livestock feed, the availability of credit requirements and availability, the source of credit, the market demand for produce, and infrastructure like cold storage and godowns.

The discipline of farm management is intricate and diverse, including the strategic planning, coordination, and implementation of several activities aimed at maximizing agricultural output and overall farm efficiency. This thorough investigation explores the complexities of farm management, including important areas like resource allocation, risk management, planning, decision-making, and the use of contemporary technology. This in-depth examination also includes important details on the difficulties farmers face, how farm management techniques have changed over time, and the significance of precision and sustainable agriculture.Subsistence farming was a common feature of traditional agricultural methods, in which households maintained animals and farmed crops exclusively for their own consumption.

A greater demand for productive growth and effective resource management emerged as civilizations moved to more structured agricultural systems. A major turning point was the 19th-century emergence of scientific farming, led by innovators such as Justus von Liebig, who promoted the methodical application of scientific ideas to agriculture. Farm management ideas and practices developed further with the advent of agricultural economics as a separate field of study.Planning, which includes creating both short- and long-term objectives and methods to reach them, is a fundamental component of farm management. Plans for crop rotation, timetables for managing livestock, and investment strategies for farm infrastructure are all included in this.Making decisions in farm management is a dynamic process that calls on farmers to consider a range of variables, such as the state of the market, trends in the weather, and developments in technology. The choice of crop, the use of inputs, and financial commitments all have a big influence on the farm's overall performance.To maximize productivity, resources such as land, labor, money, and equipment must be allocated as efficiently as possible.

Farm managers need to make well-informed choices about resource allocation in order to optimize yields, reduce expenses, and maintain sustainability.A key component of farm management is financial management, which includes financial planning, cost analysis, and budgeting. To maintain the farm's economic sustainability, farmers must keep an eye on revenue and costs, evaluate profitability, and make calculated financial choices.The way farms run has been completely transformed by the incorporation of contemporary technology, such as data analytics, farm management software, and instruments for precision agriculture. Specifically, precision agriculture makes it possible to apply inputs precisely, monitor in real time, and make data-driven decisions, all of which increase total productivity.Farm management has its share of difficulties. Farmers often struggle with uncertainty about changes in legislation, market dynamics, and weather patterns. It is a constant struggle to strike a balance between the demand for higher production and ecologically friendly and sustainable methods. The adoption of modern farm management approaches might also differ depending on one's access to resources, knowledge, and technology infrastructure.

As worries about resource depletion and environmental effect have developed on a worldwide scale in recent years, the idea of sustainable agricultural management has gained popularity. Utilizing resources as efficiently as possible, reducing environmental damage, and encouraging social responsibility are all components of sustainable practices. The sustainable management of farms is made possible by methods like organic farming, agroforestry, and regenerative agriculture, which guarantee that agricultural operations are both socially and environmentally appropriate.Precision agriculture, which uses technology to maximize resource use, is a paradigm change in agricultural management. Farmers can now accurately customize their approaches to planting, irrigation, fertilizing, and pest management thanks to advanced sensors, GPS technology, and data analytics. Precision farming operations become more efficient, produce less waste, and are more sustainable when precision agriculture is integrated.

The methods used for managing farms differ greatly across nations and regions. Farmers' tactics are influenced by various governmental frameworks, cultural preferences, and agroecological zones. Large-scale commercial farming is prevalent in industrialized nations, emphasizing technological use and automation. Smallholder farmers in developing nations, on the other hand, often struggle with issues like infrastructure, education, and loan availability. Addressing global issues and advancing best practices in farm management need international cooperation and information sharing.A number of factors are influencing how farm management will develop in the future as agriculture keeps changing. Ongoing changes are shown in the growing significance of digital agriculture, the emergence of agtech companies, and the investigation of alternative agricultural techniques.

Blockchain technology, automation, and artificial intelligence together have the potential to completely transform farm management by providing new resources for supply chain optimization, traceability, and decision-making. Farm management is a dynamic and ever-evolving field that is essential to the prosperity and long-term viability of agricultural businesses. From its historical origins to its contemporary application of precision agriculture, farm management need an all-encompassing strategy that takes into account social, environmental, and economic factors. Agriculture's future is shaped in part by the difficulties farmers encounter, the incorporation of technology, and the views that are held globally about farm management. In order to satisfy the needs of an expanding population and protect the environment, sustainable and efficient farm management strategies are essential as the globe struggles with the need for greater food supply.

CONCLUSION

Cropping disease control is a complex task that calls for an all-encompassing and coordinated strategy. Plant diseases provide new issues as agricultural systems change, requiring ongoing study and innovation. To reduce the environmental effect of disease management techniques, it is essential to implement sustainable and environmentally friendly procedures. Additionally, the creation and use of resistant crop types, in conjunction with precision technology, provide optimistic prospects for the control of agricultural diseases in the future. The worldwide scope of these issues emphasizes how crucial it is to collaborate internationally and share information in order to create methods that work in a variety of agroecosystems. Disease control is still essential to resilient and sustainable farming systems, which help farmers satisfy the needs of an expanding population while protecting the environment, even as the agricultural landscape changes.

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CHAPTER 8

ANALYSIS OF MANAGEMENT OF PASTURES

ABSTRACT:

A thorough examination emphasizing sustainable methods that maximize animal welfare, soil health, and forage yield. Key pasture management techniques used in organic farming are covered in the abstract, such as cover crops, rotational grazing, and natural fertilization techniques. It examines the comprehensive and integrated method of managing organic pastures, taking into account how it affects ecosystem resilience overall, carbon sequestration, and biodiversity. This study evaluates the efficacy of organic pasture management in improving fodder quality, sustaining animal health, and advancing sustainable land use, drawing on empirical evidence and scientific studies. The main concepts of this investigation are captured by terms like biodiversity, organic farming, pasture management, rotational grazing, and sustainable agriculture. The study concludes by highlighting how important it is to use organic pasture management techniques in order to protect grazing ecosystems, enhance animal wellbeing, and support organic farming as a whole.

KEYWORDS:

Biodiversity, Organic Farming, Pasture Management, Rotational Grazing, Sustainable Agriculture.

INTRODUCTION

An effective herd management strategy must include pasture management. Throughout the year, it's crucial to maintain acceptable management practices. There are several varieties of grasses, and there are grasses that are especially suited to the climate in every location of the world. In certain circumstances, it could be worthwhile to till the grazing area and plant grass species that are more suited to the requirements of the animal.Probably the biggest hazard to grasslands is overgrazing[1], [2]. The top soil is vulnerable to erosion after the protecting grass cover has been lost. Recultivating degraded pastures or areas with limited plant cover is challenging. Because of this, it's critical that the amount and kind of grazing on a given plot of land correspond to its potential for production. After extensive grazing, a pasture needs enough time to recuperate.

The most effective way to manage the farm and the surrounding environment is to fence off certain regions and rotate the grazing animals around many plots of land. By establishing "grazing cells", overgrazed pastures may be restored, intestinal parasite incidence during grazing can be decreased, and land production can be raised. The kind of plants that develop in the pasture will depend on the amount and time of grazing as well as how the grass is mowed. There are parasites and bacteria that cause disease almost everywhere. Animals, like humans, have immune systems that are typically capable of fighting off harmful pathogens.

As with people, animals who are malnourished, unable to engage in their normal behavior, or experience social stress will also have compromised immune systems [3], [4]. A healthy animal is one that has a balance between its immune system and self-healing abilities, as well as its resistance to sickness caused by the presence of germs and parasites. The farmer may affect both ends of this equation: by practicing excellent cleanliness, they can decrease the number of germs and increase the animal's resistance to them.

The goals of organic animal husbandry are to boost the immune systems and enhance the living circumstances of the animals. Naturally, an animal in need of medical attention must be given. However, the farmer should also consider the reasons behind the animal's immune system's failure to combat the illness or parasite assault. In order to reinforce it, the farmer should also consider methods to enhance the animals' living circumstances and sanitation.As with crop health, the primary focus of organic animal husbandry is on preventative rather than therapeutic strategies to maintain animal health[5], [6]. Maintaining robust breeds instead of highly performing but very sensitive ones is the first step in this process. The animals should next be housed in ideal circumstances, which include enough room, enough of light and air, dry and clean bedding, regular exercise (such as grazing), and good cleanliness.

The animal's health greatly depends on the kind and amount of feed provided. Rather of providing commercial concentrates, which accelerate growth and increase yield, it is preferable to provide an animal with a natural diet that meets its needs. Animals will seldom ever get unwell in environments if all these precautions are followed. For this reason, veterinary care should only be used as a last resort in organic farming. Alternative medicine based on herbal and traditional medicines should be employed if therapy is required. Synthetic medications (such as antibiotics, parasiticides, and anesthetics) may only be used in cases where other treatments are ineffective or fail to produce the desired results. In these situations, the treated animals must be kept apart from the untreated organic stock and excluded from organic certification for a set amount of time such as three weeks or longer.

In contrast to crop production, ill animals may be treated using synthetic methods if no other therapy works. In this case, lessening the animal's suffering takes precedence over giving up chemicals. Nonetheless, it is evident from the criteria of organic agriculture that management techniques that promote animal resilience and stop disease outbreaks must take precedence. As a result, a disease breakout should be interpreted as a sign that the animal is not being housed in optimal circumstances. The farmer should make an effort to determine the reason or causes of the illness and, by modifying management techniques, stop further outbreaks. Many nations utilize herbal remedies extensively[7], [8]. Certain traditional agricultural groups possess extensive knowledge about the medicinal benefits of the native flora. Despite not immediately eradicating the disease's germ, plants may undoubtedly aid in the healing process. Nonetheless, producers must remember to determine the disease's source and reconsider their management strategies. In the long term, managing pastures or altering living circumstances will be more beneficial than any therapy for parasite issues.Handling lice-infested poultry: For an adult bird, use around 15 g of powdered rhizome. Hold the bird by its feet upside down and dust it with the powder, allowing the dust to settle on its skin via open feathers. The birds are said to be safe while receiving the therapy. When sprinkled over new cow dung that has fly maggot infestations, the sweet flag powder is also said to be effective against house flies. If cleaned with a water infusion, it will also shield newborn calves from vermin illness.

Typically, just the productivity per day or year is used when comparing the output of several breeds of cows. High-performing breeds, however, often have shorter lives than conventional breeds with lesser productivity. A high-breed cow that yields 16 liters of milk per day but dies after 4 years would have produced less milk throughout its lifetime than one that yields 8 liters per day over the course of 10 years. Since raising and feeding a calf or buying an adult cow requires significant financial outlays, a farmer should be very interested in maintaining continuous output throughout the course of the cow's lengthy life. Breeding objectives should take this into account, since they now primarily concentrate on maximizing short-term productivity.

The Climate, Energy and Tenure Division (NRC)'s Climate Impact, Adaptation and Environmental Sustainability team creates a body of knowledge about how climate variability, change, and impact agriculture. It then makes this knowledge and information easier to use through field projects. In order to increase the resilience of all actors in agriculture to the effects of climate change and extreme weather events, the team also supports capacity development at the national level by assisting governments in integrating disaster risk reduction in the agriculture sector and by identifying, testing, and validating disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation best practices in collaboration with various partners.For organic crop husbandry to maximize biological and ecological benefits, rotational management and increasing species diversity in area and time are key components[9], [10]. In order to increase soil fertility, the rotation must include enough grass-clover-lays, allow legumes to accumulate enough nitrogen, and allow for sufficient nutrient transfer from one crop to the next. Proper crop rotations not only enhance nutrient management and preserve soil fertility, but they also help reduce disease, insect, and weed issues. These objectives must be met under a variety of site settings, necessitating knowledgeable management and an understanding of the specific agroecosystem. Growing numbers of organic standards stipulate that farming methods must provide a higher percentage of natural elements to be preserved in the farm layout. By reducing the need for outside inputs, this variety may help create a self-regulating system that is very successful.

While organic farming often shows more tolerance for the presence of wild plants among growing crops, controlling weeds is one of the main obstacles to the development of organic crops. The tools may range from manual labor, hand hoeing tools, to a collection of mechanical and thermal equipment, depending on the size of the farm and the degree of mechanization. Due to a lack of suitable equipment, intrados weeding has historically required a large labor input. However, advances in engineering have enhanced the toolkit accessible to organic growers. Enhancing nutrient supply-demand matching, conquering particular nutrient limitations (e.g., P), examining the function of landscape elements like hedges and windbreaks, and creating new tools and successful weed management strategies are some of the areas in which more research is needed in the production of organic crops.

DISCUSSION

High-residue reduced-till systems (HRRT) have a lot of promise to address the organic farming trade-off between high tillage costs and poor soil quality HRRT should ideally be a fundamental component of an all-encompassing strategy for managing organic farms that produces long-term production capacity (sustainability) in addition to immediate productivity and profitability. The perfect organic HRRT setup for organic cropping systems to be viable, high-residue cover crops must be produced and managed properly. Cover crops are non-cash crops that are employed to do a variety of tasks. They might be grass, legumes, or combinations. Cover crops reduce soil erosion and absorb (catch) leftover nutrients and water when they are seeded immediately after cash crops.

Therefore, by acting as scavengers or catch plants, cover crops enhance soil quality and prevent pollution in the ecosystem by serving as vital food sources and habitat for beneficial creatures. Living mulches are cover crops that cohabit alongside cash crops for all or part of the growing season and are inter-seeded. An excellent living mulch for organic gardeners is one that is low-growing, readily planted and maintained without the use of chemicals, does not hinder the development and production of the cash crop, and provides a suitable home for beneficial insects. living mulches work especially well for rapidly expanding cash crops that get additional water and nutrients via in-row drip irrigation systems. Certain combinations of high nectar and blooming cover crops are planted on field edges as companion or farm-scape plants, or they may be placed in rows or patches spaced regularly across the field. Plantings for farm-scapes should ideally include permanent and/or reseeding annual species that suppress weeds, improve soil quality, safeguard the environment, and provide a home and haven for beneficial insects.

Before planting cash crops, a brief fallow or waiting period of two to three weeks is typically advised after killing cover crops. This is to ensure that the kill techniques were effective and to give allelochemicals natural toxins that obstruct biological processes like seed germination and plant growth time to dissipate from the killed residues. Use tested no-till equipment to precisely plant seeds or transplants after the necessary waiting time or interim pre-plant phase. Large-scale organic farms or farmer cooperatives would use commercially available one-pass no-till seeders and transplanters. With the help of these one-pass no-till tools, you can precisely apply fertilizer, slice through organic mulch, loosen a small in-row strip, and plant with little residue and soil disturbance. Because small-size (1- or 2-row model) versions of no-till equipment are often unavailable and the current equipment is costly, residue management and plant establishment pose difficulties for small-scale farms.

Small-scale farmers may embrace not-till farming, despite its challenges, by slicing organic surface mulch, loosening soil in rows, placing organic fertilizers precisely, and planting using many fields passes and less complicated machinery. Affordable small-scale no-till equipment is being developed to help small producers adopt high-residue notill systems. Employ integrated weed control techniques that prioritize permanent soil covering, varied cover crop and cash crop rotations, and little soil disturbance (i.e., no-till or, at most, non-inversion tillage methods). For organic gardeners, stopping the generation of weed seeds is a crucial cultural practice. It's also thought to be crucial for organic producers investigating no-till systems. Weed seed generation may be stopped by manually pulling escaping weeds and by utilizing higher mowers or high-residue cultivators. For several invasive weed species, rouging is strongly advised to reach a no seed threshold (NST).

Ploughing, or inversion tillage, often requires many field operations, which leads to excessive soil aeration, the breakdown of SOM and fresh organic wastes, and the loss of soil structure. A compromise or trade-off between permanent no tillage and inversion tillage is rotational tillage. The deliberate placement of no-till and non-inversion tillage techniques to attain a balance between immediate productivity and long-term production capacity (sustainability) is referred to as rotational tillage in this context. A kind of reduced tillage known as rotational tillage advocates avoiding inversion tillage in favor of striking a crucial balance between no-till and non-inversion tillage techniques. Practices such as not tilling and non-inversion tillage are recommended since they result in a little disturbance of the soil's structure. A variety of non-inversion tools may be used, from deep underground soil loosening with chisel ploughs or subsoiling and spading machines, to superficial tillage with rototillers, rotary hoes, powered harrows, or high-residue cultivators. Non-inversion tillage includes shallowrototilling because it preserves the integrity of the subsoil layers.

In all cropping systems organic, chemical, or integrated producing and managing high-residue, grass-legume combinations is a highly recommended cultural technique for enhancing soil quality and productivity. For many organic producers, using cover crops as green manures is a frequent and highly regarded technique. Many proponents and some practitioners of organic agriculture believe that organic no-till is the best system to achieve a desired balance between short-term productivity (yield) and production capacity (sustainability), primarily because cover crops are now widely used in chemical no-till systems.

The challenge is how to grow organic no-till cash crops without the use of herbicides, not whether integrating organic cropping systems with no-till methods is a good idea. The majority of farmers and agricultural experts are aware of the potential short- and long-term (synergistic) advantages of integrating organic no-till farming; nevertheless, past experiences have often been unsatisfactory. However, in warm, long-season areas where organic cash crops are successfully planted in high-residue dead cover crop mulch, excellent weed control and high yields are often attained.

Growers can bridge the gap between the ideal situation (organic no tillage, i.e. weed suppression without chemicals or tillage) and weed management issues that frequently arise in organic no-till fields by using site-specific tillage rotations, which are strategic sequencing of no tillage and non-inversion tillage. Growers that use organic no-till may go back to utilizing non-inversion tillage tools in two different scenarios. Initially, a producer may decide that corrective weed management is necessary to stop the generation of weed seeds and protect the cash crop just before or after planting cash crops.

India has had a food crisis even before it gained independence. When Myanmar (Burma) separated from India in 1937, there was a shortage of rice, and when the nation was divided in 1947, there was a lack of wheat. These shortages were the initial cause of India's food problems. The government's primary goal at first was to boost domestic supply by increasing imports, increasing output, or doing both. During the latter part of the 1950s and the early 1960s, the government's primary focus moved to managing the cost of food grains. The PL 480 agreement, which was signed by the Indian government and the US government in 1956, allowed for the purchase of wheat and rice. The government discovered that the PL 480 food imports were a useful instrument for maintaining national food prices. Actually, the foundation of our industrial and agricultural success was laid by PL 480 imports.

In 1966, the government established the Food Grains Policy Committee in an effort to reexamine the food issue. The committee concluded that it was unlikely that India's reliance on food imports would lessen in the future. It took considerable notice of the fact that the food assistance was openly utilized to influence the government's international and domestic economic policy. Food grain output in Punjab, Haryana, and Uttar Pradesh increased at yearly rates of 5.4%, 4.0%, and 3.4%, respectively, between 1967–1968 and 1989–1990. The foundation of our public distribution system consists of these states. The nation is not in danger of a food grain crisis because of these states. From the initial goal of 5.0 million tons, there has been an increasing excess of stocks throughout the 1970s and especially after 1974; the government had been successful in building up over 30 million tons of buffer stock of food grains during the 1980s. In actuality, the government was able to effectively weather the three years of subpar food grain production, which culminated in the severe drought of 1987–1988 thanks to the enormous stores of food grains.

The issue with food is no more one of scarcity or excessive cost, but rather of finding ways to make food grains accessible to those with less money and to use the vast amounts of food that are available to hasten economic development. Since 1977–1978, the food for work program has been in place to generate long-lasting communal assets while also giving employment opportunities to the jobless, famine-affected population, and rural poor. Additionally, the government is putting into action a plan to provide food grains to the underprivileged, particularly in tribal communities, at a cost far less than the already discounted price in the public distribution system. Everyone agrees that the primary causes of India's food crisis are the country's growing population, which raises food demand, the lack of sufficient food grains, and some elements of the government's food policy.

The second strategy for agricultural growth is organizational, or via effective and sufficient organization, which encompasses all of the official and semi-official organizations and agencies as well as the governmental administrative structure. It is believed that insufficient and inefficient organization has been the primary reason of the lack of success in attempts to boost agricultural productivity via technical advancements. Institutional modifications A different strategy for raising agricultural output is to implement institutional changes, such as land reforms. There are no incentives for higher productivity under the current agricultural setup. It is foolish to expect the tiller to put up his best efforts to enhance food production given the modest holdings that are dispersed around the community and the lack of tenure security in the system of landholdings.

Numerous land reform initiatives, including holding consolidation, holdings caps, tenure control, and the establishment of cooperative farms, have been pursued by the government. Given the many gaps in the laws governing land reforms, the government must act quickly to close these gaps by passing strong legislation. Over the last several years, the public distribution system (PDS) has seen significant expansion by the government. The public distribution system handled more than 19 million tons in 1987–1988 compared to more than two million tons in 1956. After initiatives were made in 1991 to modernize the PDS, its scope was expanded to 1700 blocks in remote and underprivileged areas such as economically depressed, drought-prone, desert, and mountainous regions. During the lean season, more rice, wheat, and other crops should be allocated under the PDS. The nation's public distribution system has to be strengthened immediately.

Stabilization of food grain prices: In recent years, keeping food grain prices under control has been the primary goal of the food policy. The government has been implementing short-term policies like keeping high levels of inventory on hand, expanding internal procurement, increasing the amount of food grains it purchases for distribution through fair price stores, putting a stop to hoarding and profiteering, and setting maximum control prices. While some price control was accomplished thanks to these efforts, historical data indicates that price stability has not been entirely attained. The government's buffer stock policy is the key to solving the issue of stabilizing the nation's overall price level as well as food costs. The government made the decision to accumulate a buffer stock of five million tons of food grains by 1973–1974, but it's encouraging that as of 1979, the real stock held by the government exceeded twenty million tons. It is believed that it would significantly shield the farmer and the customer from sharp price swings if it is handled sensibly and adaptably.

The notion that there would never be another food crisis arises from the abundance of food supplies. The availability of fertilizers, the development of irrigation infrastructure, rural electricity, etc., all have the potential to increase the yield. However, it should be made very apparent that there is always a risk associated with the extremely variable monsoon and the ensuing ups and downs in food production. Naturally, in order to fully benefit from the rise in agricultural productivity, measures to control the population should continue. The Greek words agros, which means "field," and nomos, which means "to manage," are the origin of the term agronomy. Agronomy literally translates to "the art of managing field." "Science and economics of crop production by management of farm land" is what it implies in technical terms.

Agronomy is defined as the art and fundamental science of producing and enhancing field crops via the effective use of labor, water, fertilizer, and other crop-related resources. The study and use of methods and techniques for producing food, feed, and fiber crops is known as agronomy. "A branch of agricultural science dealing with principles and practices of field crop production and management of soil for higher productivity" is the definition of agronomy. Agronomy is considered the mother branch or fundamental branch of agriculture and has a central role among all the other branches. Similar to agriculture, agronomy is an integrated and practical facet of several pure scientific fields. Three distinct disciplines of agronomy exist: Crop Science; Soil Science; and Environmental Science, which focuses only on applied elements. Soil, Crop, and Environment Relationship, for example. Crop science, which includes plant breeding, crop physiology and biochemistry, etc.; soil science, which includes soil fertilizers, manures, etc.; and environmental science, which includes meteorology and agricultural ecology, are some of the disciplines that are combined to form agronomy.

During the Mesozoic Era, some 180 million years ago, the supercontinent Pangea started to fragment Scientists think that the same force that caused the plates to move today also caused Pangea to break apart. Convection currents that roll over in the mantle's top zone are what are responsible for the movement. The Earth's plates move slowly over its surface as a result of this mantle movement. The modern continents of South America, Africa, India, Australia, and Antarctica originally up Gondwanaland. Observe that India was not a part of Asia at this time. The vast Panthalassa Ocean still existed, but with the breakup of the North American and Eurasian Plates, the Atlantic Ocean was about to emerge. A three-way breach in the crust caused large lava flows to flow in three different directions, forming "The Triple Junction," which spewed lava across hundreds of square miles of South America and Africa. The age and mineral composition of the rocks at the triple intersection, which is now the east central region of South America and the west central region of Africa, are exact fits. Stated differently, the rocks found in certain regions of the two continents originated from the same source and at the same period.

This indicates that there was once a connection between South America and Africa. Today, the Atlantic Ocean, which is more than 2000 miles wide, divides these two continents. Laurasia split apart into the continents of North America, Europe, and Asia (Eurasian plate) during the Jurassic era, around 135 million years ago, while it was still moving. During the Jurassic and Cretaceous periods, the continents of the Gondwana era split apart, marking the second stage of the process. South America broke apart from Africa in the late Jurassic Period. Another small basin was formed between these two continents as a result. The Moroccan bulge of Africa split off from the eastern coast of North America. The Atlantic and Indian Oceans were made accessible by the split of Gondwanaland. Stage three saw the closure of the eastern end of the Tethys Sea, the forerunner of the Mediterranean, as the Atlantic moved northward and Eurasia turned clockwise. The Indian Subcontinent traveled at a tremendous pace of 4 inches per year over hundreds of kilometers throughout 135 million years. With such power and speed, the Indian plate collided with the Eurasian plate (Asia), creating the Himalayas, the world's largest mountain range. As India neared Asia, the Tethys was being driven into extinction to the east of the Alpines.

The Indian-Australian Plate was driven lower, forming a zone of crystal subsidence or geosynclines into Madagascar (Madagascar) and Australia, because the Himalayan

Mountains and the enormous volumes of silt that have been removed from them are so heavy. The Permian Gondwana sediments contain the majority of India's coal resources. The Indian continent is regarded highly for its prospective future mining possibilities since it is a neighbor of mineral-rich West Australia and South Africa. As the Red Sea opened, Arabia began to break away from Africa. The direction of the continental motions is shown by the red arrows. Significant portions of the peripheral regions of Gondwanaland broke off and sunk into the seas as a consequence of the earth's motions. There was rifting between Africa and Antarctica, which spread to India in the northeast. Australia and Antarctica split apart in the early Cenozoic. Early Cenozoic times saw the last phase of Pangea's fragmentation. Until North America and Eurasia (Europe) split apart, the North Atlantic rift persisted farther north. Australia and Antarctica split apart at this point. About 45 million years ago, the continents finally split apart. Pangea broke apart over a period of 150 million years. The most remarkable feature of India's physical geography is its natural division into three distinct regions, each with a completely different character: (i) the Himalayas, the massive mountain range to the north; (ii) the Indo-Gangetic alluvial plain of northern India, extending from Punjab to Assam; and (iii) the Peninsula of the Deccan, located south of the Vindhyas. The latter is a solid, stable block of the earth's crust, mostly made up of some of the oldest rocks, which have been eroded over time into a variety of mountain ranges, plateaus, valleys, and plains. Peninsular India has never had any of its territory covered by the sea. The Himalayas and the Indo-Gangetic plain are relatively young, whereas the plateau slopes eastward. The western ghats comprise the plateau's western margin, and the eastern ghats its eastern edge.

CONCLUSION

The examination of pasture management in organic farming highlights the critical role that pasture management plays in establishing ecologically responsible and sustainable agricultural methods. The use of organic pasture management, which prioritizes rotational grazing and employs holistic techniques, may lead to increased yield of fodder, better soil health, and happier grazing animals. The study demonstrates how organic pasture management may reduce environmental impact and promote sustainable land use by highlighting the benefits it has on biodiversity and ecosystem resilience. An important tactic that the global agriculture industry is using to combat climate change and advance moral animal husbandry is organic pasture management. Organic farming methods may boost pasture quality and the resilience and sustainability of the overall agricultural ecosystem by emphasizing regenerative activities and using a systems-thinking methodology. Thus, in line with the ideas of sustainable agriculture and conscientious land care, the research highlights the need of the broad adoption of organic pasture management approaches.

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CHAPTER 9

ANALYSIS OF AGRICULTURE HERITAGE IN INDIA

Simarjeet Makkar, Associate Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, India
Email Id-simarjeet.makkar@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

India's agricultural legacy, highlighting the many customs, lengthy history, and cultural importance of farming in this age-old society. The abstract explores the development of traditional and sustainable farming techniques that have supported Indian villages for generations, as well as the historical progression of agricultural practices in the country. It looks at how agriculture influences society institutions, religious beliefs, and cultural identities. Based on historical documents, cultural literature, and current studies, the study assesses how modernity affects customary farming methods and the difficulties Indian farmers confront. The main aspects of this investigation are summed up by terms like sustainable farming, India, cultural relevance, agricultural history, and traditional techniques. The study concludes by highlighting the significance of maintaining and incorporating India's rich agricultural legacy into modern methods, encouraging sustainable agriculture, and guaranteeing food security for future generations.

KEYWORDS:

Agricultural Heritage, Cultural Significance, India, Sustainable Farming, Traditional Practices.

INTRODUCTION

The land regions, particularly in the Puducherry and Tiruchirappalli sector, are mostly littoral during the middle and upper Cretaceous. This sector's fauna is comparable to that of South Africa, Madagascar, and the southern edge of the Assam range. There are some marine fossil ferrous layers along the west coast of the Narmada Valley, where the fossils exhibit a stronger kinship with those from the Cretaceous of southern Arabia and Europe than with those from Assam and Tiruchirappalli areas[1], [2]. The differences suggest that the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal were still divided by some kind of geographical barrier. Lellluria is the name given to this geographical barrier, which encompasses Madagascar (Madagascar) and Peninsular India. During the middle and upper Cretaceous eras, a large region that includes modern-day Gujarat, Maharashtra, and Madhya Pradesh was completely destroyed by volcanic eruptions. Lava spewing from cracks covered several hundred thousand square kilometers. The lava was quite mobile. The lava-formed hills, referred to as the Deccan traps, reach heights of more than 1,200 meters in some areas.

During the Tertiary Period, the Deccan trap's creation persisted. Sind, Kutch, Bihar, and the coastal regions of Andhra Pradesh are all included in the Deccan trap[3], [4].The northern border of the Indian continental mass, Gondwanaland, got down-warped by the compressive force coming from the Indian Ocean, while the continental mass, Angaraland, gradually drifted from the north to the south under pressure from the Arctic Ocean bottom. Early in the Eocene, the Himalayan section of the Tethys began to progressively narrow and move southward, acquiring its current pattern. The Himalayan chain's layout has been shaped by the existence two tongue-like Gondwanaland protrusion, one in the Kashmir-Hazara area (known as the Punjab wedge) and the other at the northeasternmost point of Assam (known as the Assam wedge). Any relief map of India will plainly show the influence of these two wedges. The Himalayan chain may be seen to form a massive arc that spans from NamchaBarwa in the east to Nanga Parbat in the west. The arc's convexity faces southward, toward the Indian Peninsula.

The Siwalik Hills, which stretch from Jammu in the west to Assam in the east, are located under the Himalayas. The Siwalik hills are mostly river deposits that have folded into troughs (synclines) and arches (anticlines) from the middle Miocene to the late Pleistocene Age. Steep scarps that face the plains are a result of the fault planes that slope sharply into the hills. The sub-Himalayan zone, also known as the lower Himalayas, is located immediately north and next to the Siwalik Hills[5], [6]. It is 65 to 80 kilometers broad and has an average elevation of around 3,000 meters. Most of the rocks in this area are not fossiliferous. The middle Himalayan zone consists of high ranges with snow-capped summits located farther north. Rocks that have undergone metamorphism are mostly sedimentary.

The Indo-Gangetic plains, which stretch from Hazara to Assam at the base of the Himalayas, are the edge of a deep basin that is thought to be between 1,050 and 6,000 meters deep. This basin was created by the peninsular margin's compression against the northward-moving crystal waves. Man emerges from the apes and fills the basin. As a result, Lemuria's name means "Land of the Ancestors" or "Land Ancestral." In fact, English zoologist Phillip L. Schlater created the term "Lemuria" in the early days of Darwinism to describe the fossilized bones of lemurs like those that are now exclusively found in Madagascar. Madagascar is home to the only remaining "Lemurs." For this reason, the region that formerly connected Australia and India but gradually sunk over time is called "Lemuria." The massive Southern region of India, which formerly connected to Australia, is described in the Tamil bark inscriptions of Southern India as gradually and cataclysmically collapsing over a very long time. This was KumariKandam, or ancient Lemuria. It was thought that the first Tamil Sangam took place in KumariKandam, the supposedly lost continent.

India has a lengthy history of agriculture that dates back to the Neolithic period, which lasted from 7500 to 6500 B.C. It converted early man's wandering lifestyle from one of foraging for wild fruit and roots to one of cultivating land. Great saints' knowledge and teachings are beneficial to agriculture. Generation after generation has inherited the knowledge amassed and the behaviors implemented[7], [8]. Crop rotation, mixed farming, and other environmentally beneficial agricultural techniques were created by traditional farmers. The level of knowledge acquired by India's elder farming generations is portrayed in the great epics of antiquity. The value of old wisdom, which has been refined over many generations of experience, has been lost on contemporary society. The rebirth of organic agriculture now reflects the ecological concerns that previous farmers demonstrated in their agricultural efforts.

The four Vedas, nine Brahmananas, Aranyakas, Sutra literature, Susruta Samhita, Charaka Samhita, Upanishads, the epics Ramayana and Mahabharata, eighteen Puranas, Buddhist and Jain literature, and texts like Krishi-Parashara, Kautilya, Artha-sastra, Panini's Ashtadhyahi, Tamil Sangam literature, Manusmirit, Varahamihira'sBrhat Samhita, Amarkosha, Kashyapiya-Krishisukti, Surapala'sVriskshayurveda are among the ancient literature that is currently available. The most plausible time frame for the composition of this literature was between 6000 B.C. and 1000 A.D. These works include information about agriculture, which includes raising animals, and biodiversity.

The oldest known literary work in India is the Rig Veda. It believed that among farmers, gods were the most superior. "Amarakosha" claims that the Aryans were farmers. Manu and Kautilya recommended that the monarch study agriculture, cattle breeding, and trade as fundamental disciplines. According to Patanjali, agriculture and cattle rearing were the main drivers of the nation's economy. The 'Puranas' include a wealth of material that indicates the ancient Indians were well familiar with every aspect of agriculture. Among the well-known ancient Indian classics are the "Arthashastra" by Kautilya, the "Astadhyayi" by Panini, the "Mahabhasya" by Patanjali, the "Brahat Samhita" by Varahamihira, the "Amarkosha" by Amarsimha, and the Manasollasa encyclopedia. The knowledge and wisdom of the ancient people are attested to by these classics. Sage Parashara's "Krishiparashara," written around 1000 A.D., was a technical text that focused only on agriculture. The Agni Purana and the Krishi Sukti, ascribed to Kashyap (500 A.D.), are two other significant writings. Numerous insightful details on agriculture in ancient India may be found in writings written in Tamil and Kannada[9], [10].

India's agriculture has achieved great strides in the production of fruits, vegetables, grains, goats, cows, and buffaloes, as well as in the development of environmentally friendly agricultural techniques, trees, shrubs, spices, and sauces. These customs were ingrained in the people's way of life and had social and religious overtones. Domestic celebrations and rituals were often timed to correspond with the four primary agricultural processes of planting, tilling, reaping, and harvesting. The Rig-Veda mentions countless numbers of cows, horses tethered to chariots, racetracks hosting chariot races, camels tethered to the chariots, sheep and goats presented as sacrifice victims, and the use of wool for clothing. The well-known Cow Suktasuggests that the cow had already evolved into the fundamental element of the agricultural economy. She is described as the pivot of immortality and the mother of the Vasus, the Rudras, and the Adityas in another Sukta. Large woods seem to be available to the Vedic Aryans for the purpose of procuring timber, and the Atharva Veda reports that plants and herbs used for medical reasons were raised by the era's doctors. Despite the fact that agriculture was entirely dependent on the good graces of Parjanya, the deity of rain, farmers were respected for their profession. It is said that his thunders deliver food.

DISCUSSION

Over 75 plant species are referenced in the four Vedas, over 25 species are described in SatapathaBhrahamna, and over 320 plant species are recorded in the Ayurvedic (Indian medicine) book Charkaa Samhita (c. 300 B.C.). In 400 B.C., Susruta documented more than 750 types of therapeutic plants. Numerous aquatics and terrestrial, domestic and wild, deadly and non-poisonous species and animals are mentioned in the earliest text, the RigVeda (c. 4000 B.C.). About 500 plant species are mentioned in the Puranas. The well-developed field of arbori-horticulture is recorded in Surapala'sVrikshayurveda. In the past, forests were incredibly significant. Forest preservation has been stressed for ecological balance from the time of the Vedas. In his Artha sastra (321–296 B.C.), Kautilya states that the forest superintendent was required to gather forest products by way of the forest guards. He gives a comprehensive list of things that fall within his officer's jurisdiction, including trees, bamboos, creepers, fibrous vegetation, narcotics, poisons, animal skins, etc. According to Manu (Manusmriti, 2nd Century B.C.), hunting as a pastime was considered harmful to the normal development of the ruler's character and personality, and the preservation of wild animals was advocated. In particular, the names of animal husbandry professionals Shalihotra for horses and Palakapya for elephants have been recorded in the Puranas (c. 300–750 A.D.). For example, Aswashastra is the canonical treatise on treating horses, while Garudapurana is a text on treating animal illnesses. Agnipurana has two chapters or parts that address treating animals and treating trees, respectively.

Prehistory and recorded history are the two categories into which human social development is traditionally divided. The latter comes once writing was invented, and with it, recorded historical records. The discovery of several prehistoric stone artifacts in South India and the Soan Valley implies that the first human populations in India existed between 400,000 and 200,000 B.C. Gaining mastery of fire enabled him to enhance his standard of existence. Around 36,000 B.C., the modern human species, Homo sapiens, first emerged toward the conclusion of this era. Africa is thought to be the birthplace of modern mankind, since various nuclear DNA sequences, particularly Y-chromosome data and mt DNA, suggest that modern humans originated and moved relatively recently from a subset of the African population. Africans and non-Africans shared an ancestor 59,000 years ago, according to research on human Y-chromosome variation in a global sample of over 1,000 males. It was also shown that the non-African branch of mankind departed Africa around 44,000 years ago. Africans and non-Africans parted around 156,000 years ago, according to other evidence. A period of time between these dates is the actual migration date. These dates and the emergence of modern humans as a species seem to be related in some way. It is thought that all non-African human Ychromosomes had a common ancestor 40,000 years (31,000–79,000 years) ago. Around 22, markers were utilized in 1,007 individuals from around Europe for another research on the Ychromosome of Europeans. More than 80% of the DNA found in Europe may be linked to two Paleolithic ancestor migrations that occurred around 40,000 and 22,000 years ago, respectively.

Neolithic farmers, who arrived on the continent around 10,000 years ago, contributed twenty percent of the DNA that make up Europeans. Due to their adaptability, early or primitive Homo sapiens adopted a variety of lifestyles depending on the food sources that were accessible to them locally. Both the Eskimo and early Europeans hunted reindeer. Autumn hunters saw migrating herds returning from summer tundra meadows to winter woodland shelters. You could freeze this beef and utilize it all winter long. Modern Eskimo people, Australian aborigines, and prehistoric Glacial Europeans all utilize a kind of spear-thrower, an early example of technology. The challenges faced by the early Europeans were woolly rhinoceroses, bison, lions, bears, and wild oxen. Conifer woods provided wood for cave fires. Because there was less fuel on the southern steps, bone was used as fuel. In Sunderland (Java, Sumatra, and Borneo), Homo erectus bones dating from 600,000 to 900,000 years ago are the oldest indications of our prehuman predecessors in this area. Today, the Negritos of Malaya and the Philippines, the Highlanders of New Guinea, and the Aborigines of Australia reflect the Australoid colonists of this region.

The use of rough or chipped stone tools defined the era of human civilization. All that man could do was hunt and collect sustenance from the natural world. Gaining mastery of fire enabled him to live a better lifestyle. Around 36,000 B.C., the modern human species, Homo sapiens, first emerged toward the conclusion of this era. The Paleolithic Period, also known as the Old Stone Age, began with the first tool-making humans between 2.5 million and 12,000 B.C. and ended when people discovered how to farm and make better-quality implements about 12,000 B.C. The Neolithic Period, also known as the New Stone Age (c. 12000–4000 B.C.), is known as the "Age of food producers," in contrast to the Old Stone Age, which is known as the "Age of foodgatherers." This designates the period from the end of the Neolithic Age to the Bronze Age as the "Age of civilization." The three main categories of lifestyle are: hunter-gatherer; agricultural; and technological civilization. The establishment of towns and cities, the creation of clear political structures, the growth of trade and commerce, and the settling of specific regions are all necessary for civilization, or they might be considered its defining characteristics. Alongside the previous two, this social structure has existed and continues to exist.

Siberia and Eastern Europe were home to a mammoth hunting civilization during this time. Like the Eskimos, these nomadic hunters largely consumed meat until recently. Their prey, which also included bison, horses, reindeer, birds, fish, arctic foxes, and hares, would have provided all of their needs. Foods made of vegetables would have constituted a little addition. They even constructed homes out of precisely arranged, skin-covered mammoth bones. The daily haul for an Australian aborigine may include a few wallabies as well as frogs, grubs, anteaters, snakes, and lizards. The Semang people of Malaysia live off on wild plants (nuts, berries, fruit, leaves, shoots, and tubers), fish, birds, rodents, squirrels, lizards, and sometimes wild pigs, tapirs, and deer. They also gather honey from the forest.

To kill certain animals, they utilize a bamboo blowpipe that is two meters long to launch a poisoned dart. Modern civilization most likely originated from the development of animal husbandry and agricultural cultivation due to demographic pressure. There was a growing reliance on plants as the population expanded. Subsequently, the need for consumer goods in a limited area compelled the use of intensive farming practices. Additional proof of this tendency may be seen in Peru, where guinea pigs and camelids were domesticated 2,000 years before crops were cultivated. Between 15,000 and 8,000 years ago, with the end of the last Ice Age, agriculture would have begun. The hunter-gatherer lifestyle was predicated on what was accessible to them.

Based on historical evidence, agriculture originated in the Near East around 8,500 years ago, spreading to Britain about 6,000 years ago, and Spain and Portugal about 5,000 years ago. The Kayapo, a contemporary term for the American Indians of central Brazil, are descended from hunter-gatherers. These signifies a change from a hunter-gatherer to an agricultural lifestyle with the addition of chickens and crops including maize, sweet potatoes, sweet manioc, and yams. They had to share everything they acquired from hunting, whether it was a wild pig, fish, deer, or tortoise, and they opposed selfishness. The women collected fruit, nuts, and herbs in groups from the same forest where the males went hunting. Ironically, they used a metal axe to chop down a tall fruit tree after discovering it in order to gather the ripe fruit. For nourishment, domestic crops and animals take precedence over wild animals and flora. Though agriculture is relatively recent, having just begun to exist between 12,000 and 8,000 years ago, it has often harmed the environment and brought about the societal upheavals that have made it possible for our contemporary civilization to arise. Agriculture led to the domestication of dogs and turkeys. Tools with flint-cutting teeth, such bone reaping knives, were produced by people.

A technological society takes time to develop; it doesn't happen all at once. Technology in early Egyptian cultures allowed for the construction of intricate structures like the pyramids. Similar to how some chimpanzee tribes utilize technology now, technology has been alongside humans since the first stone was used as a tool. Villages and towns were made feasible by the development of agriculture since people no longer had to travel far in quest of sustenance. The term civilization is derived from the Latin "civitas," which means city. This lifestyle of inactivity served as the foundation for modern civilization. Irrigation systems were built by Mesopotamia and Egypt 5,000 years ago. By 2,600 years ago, the iron plow was invented in China, where it supplanted wood and stone ploughs as a more useful implement. By 2,100 years ago, they had also invented the mould board plough. Basic inventions like the use of fire, the use of metals like copper and gold, bows and arrows, the fish hook, spinning and weaving, agriculture, domestication of animals, sailboats and ships, wells and irrigation, pottery, clothing, language, arithmetic, the alphabet, and written communication in prehistoric times are all attributed to the ancient people. With an estimated age of 20,000 years, the earliest bow and arrow evidence originates from North Africa. Some agricultural innovations date back farther, to 5,500 years ago in Mesopotamia. One such example is the seed drill. At Sakqara, people constructed the pyramid more than 4,600 years ago. Complex architectural ideas, such domes, were created by architects and constructed 5,000 years ago in Ancient Cyprus. The discovery and use of "metals" had a significant role in the development of our culture. A considerably greater variety of utensils, tools, and instruments than could be constructed with wood and bone were now possible thanks to malleable metals, which allowed for inventions only limited by human imagination. One of the earliest metals utilized by the people who lived around the Euphrates and Tigris rivers in what is now Iraq approximately 10,000 years ago was copper, which has been discovered in some places virtually pure. Two millennia ago, Roman dentists were filling teeth with gold.

Someone used silver 6,000 years ago. Four millennia ago, the Egyptians manufactured iron, the hardest metal to extract from its ore. The Assyrians had sophisticated techniques for smelting iron, even managing to create steel from it. Devices for saving labor were widely utilized in ancient Greece. They used the screw, the winch or windlass, the lever, the block with pulleys, and the wedge. Though not the creators, scientists like Archimedes (2,300 years ago) contributed to these advancements. The screw, which was most likely invented in ancient Egypt, was used to transport water across the Middle East.

Two significant improvements were developed in Europe before to the year 1,000 A.D. These were the practice of rotating crops and the horse-drawn, wheeled Saxon plow. In 1066 A.D., water wheels were being used in England for a variety of tasks, including cutting wood and grinding maize. Johan Gutenberg, a German, created printing with moveable type at the close of the Middle Ages and the start of the Renaissance. He published the first known printed book in 1455 with the Gutenberg Bible. The mechanical clock and the watch with the balancing wheel were created in the Middle Ages around 1286.

European explorers began to explore and learn about the rest of the globe in the fifteenth century. In 1492, Columbus arrived in the Americas. In 1494, Bartholomew Diaz traveled to Africa and arrived at the Cape of Good Hope. In 1497, Vasco da Gama circumnavigated the Cape to reach India. Copernicus' "De RevolutionibusOrbiumCoelestium" published in 1543 proved that the earth revolved around the sun. Marco Polo claims that between 1271 and 1292, China invented the compass, paper money, guns, printing technology, and coal as fuel. None of these technologies were used in Europe. The development of the steam engine and automated regulating devices in the middle of the eighteenth century marked the beginning of our technological age. Until 1830, water mills continued to be England's primary source of mechanical power throughout the Industrial Revolution. In Scotland, a wheat thresher was created in 1784.

In the 1830s, a horse-drawn combine harvester was used to reap, separate the chaff, and dump the grain into bags. About 100 A.D., someone in China created paper. In 1868, a workable typewriter was granted a patent. In 1642, French mathematician Blaise Pascal created the first automated calculator. This led to the development of Boolean Logic and Algebra by mathematician George Boole. This served as the foundation for computer languages and reasoning. J.M. Jacquard mechanized fabric weaving in 1801 using punched cards. In the 1830s, Charles Babbage (1791–1871) attempted to create a mechanical computer, often known as a "analytical engine," utilizing punched cards. Herman Hollerith, an American inventor, used electricity and punched cards to create a functional computer in 1888.

Mesopotamia and ancient Egypt are the two greatest civilizations in history. Following in a jumbled order are ancient China, Greece, Central and South America, and the Indus Valley civilization, also known as the Harappan civilization. The significant cultural traditions and ancient history of India date back to the prehistoric era. The term "Indus Valley civilization" refers to the belief that this civilization was limited to the Indus River valley. Mohenjo-daro and Harappa, two of this civilization's highly developed urban centers, stand in for the pinnacle of human habitation. The boundaries of this civilization were found to have extended across a large region of northwest and western India, not only the Indus valley, according to later archaeological digs. As a result, the Harappan civilization is the name given to this culture today. The main sites in India are Kalibangan in Rajasthan, Lothal in Gujarat, and Ropar in Punjab. Mohenjo-daro and Harappa are now in Pakistan. The most famous Harappan site in the west, according to recent study, is SutkagenDor in Baluchistan, which is next to Iran. The whole of Sindh, Baluchistan, Punjab, Northern Rajasthan, Kathiawar, and Gujarat were inhabited by the Indus Valley Civilization. This civilization is one of the three major prehistoric civilizations that developed around the three major alluvial systems of the Tigris-Euphrates, Nile, and Indus rivers in the late fourth and early third millennia B.C. India prioritized a profound culture without sacrificing the material world. When compared to American or Australian culture, which is two centuries old and has achieved material success, Indian civilization might be proud. With the exception of a few major cities, the more than 1,500 communities that make up the Harappan civilization are mostly tiny towns or villages. While the towns often stretched over eighty hectares Mohenjo-daro up to 250 hectares some of the "villages" spanned more than twenty hectares. The easternmost settlement is currently located at Alamgirpur in Western Uttar Pradesh. The western limits were the Arabian Sea and the entire Makran coast, almost all the way to the present Pakistan-Iran border. The southern limit was between the Tapti and Godavari rivers. The northern limit was approximately 1,400 km away in Kashmir (at Manda); however, one site, Shortughai, is found even farther up, in Afghanistan. Locations: Amri is on the west bank of the Indus (near the Arabian Sea); Banawali is 15 km northwest of Fatehbad, near the Sarasvati River, and about 120 km east of Kalibangan; Lothal and Rangpur are below the Rann of Kutch; and Harappa is on the west bank of the Ravi.

CONCLUSION

The examination of India's agricultural legacy reveals the significant influence of customary farming methods on the country's agricultural and cultural environments. India's agricultural legacy, which is firmly anchored in community-focused and sustainable practices, has been crucial in forming the nation's identity and building resilience in the face of many environmental and climatic difficulties. In light of these customs' inherent worth and cultural relevance, the study highlights the need of recognizing and maintaining them. It is crucial to find a balance between the maintenance of tried-and-true sustainable farming practices and technology improvements as India modernizes and tackles new agricultural difficulties. India can solve present issues and create a more resilient and sustainable future for its agricultural industry by incorporating the knowledge of agricultural legacy into modern techniques. In order to ensure a peaceful coexistence of tradition and innovation in the goal of food security and agricultural sustainability, the study therefore advocates for a comprehensive strategy that recognizes and embraces India's agricultural legacy.

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CHAPTER 10

INVESTIGATION AND ANALYSIS OF FARMING SYSTEMS

Jaimine Vaishnav, Assistant Professor
Department of ISME,ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, India
Email Id-jaimine.vaishnav@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:
an extensive examination and study of agricultural systems, examining the many types and techniques that support the world's food supply. The abstract explores the many facets of agricultural systems, including precision farming, sustainable intensification, agroecology, and conventional subsistence farming. It assesses how these systems affect resource use, environmental sustainability, and agricultural output. Based on empirical research and real-world applications, the study evaluates the benefits, drawbacks, and prospects of different agricultural systems in terms of satisfying the needs of an expanding world population. The main concepts of this investigation are captured by terms like agroecology, agricultural systems, precision farming, sustainable intensification, and subsistence farming. In order to ensure the resilience and sustainability of agriculture globally, the study concludes by highlighting the need of an adaptable and context-specific approach in the design of agricultural systems that strike a balance between production objectives and ecological stewardship.

KEYWORDS:

Agroecology, Farming Systems, Precision Farming, Sustainable Intensification, Subsistence Farming.

INTRODUCTION

The nation's agricultural and cultural landscapes have been significantly impacted by traditional farming methods, as shown by the examination of India's agricultural legacy. A key factor in forming India's identity and building resilience in the face of many climatic and environmental problems has been the nation's agricultural legacy, which is firmly anchored in sustainable and community-centric practices[1], [2]. Recognizing the inherent worth and cultural relevance of these old traditions, the study highlights the necessity to protect and maintain them. Achieving a balance between the preservation of traditional sustainable farming practices and technical improvements is crucial as India meets current agricultural difficulties and modernization. India can not only solve its immediate problems but also create a more robust and sustainable future for its agriculture industry by incorporating the knowledge of its agricultural legacy with modern methods. In order to ensure that tradition and innovation live peacefully in the interests of food security and agricultural sustainability, the study therefore advocates for a comprehensive strategy that recognizes and embraces India's agricultural legacy[3], [4].

In terms of geography, India can be roughly split into three areas: (1) the Deccan plateau or table land; (2) the mountainous borders of the Vindhyas in the south and the Himalayas in the north, with the linings of the Ghats on the south-eastern and south-western coasts and the traverse range or Aravalli hills; and (3) the plains or low-lands, a rich Indo-Gangetic alluvium that is overflowed by the rivers Ganges, Jamuna, and Brahmaputra. Even though the ancient mountains were impassable to human habitation, the foothills have seen a steady increase in farming and habitation, and the highland valleys that bisect the Himalayas include some of the most productive lowland landforms in India[5], [6]. Rich, fertile soil covers the whole Indo-Gangetic alluvium, which has made a significant material contribution to the development of civilization. The highest mountain range in the world, the Himalayas (Sanskrit: hima, meaning "snow" and alaya, meaning "abode"), comprise India's northern border. This massive, geologically youthful mountain range stretches 1,550 miles (2,500 km) from the NamchaBarwa peak in China's Tibet Autonomous Region to the top of Nanga Parbat in Jammu and Kashmir, which is governed by Pakistan. The mountains descend over southern Tibet, Nepal, Bhutan, and India in between these extremes. The system's breadth ranges from 125 to 250 miles. The Indo-Gangetic Plain, also known as the North Indian Plain, is the second major structural feature of India and is located between the Deccan and the Himalayas.

The plain is located in the Himalayan foredeep, which was once a seabed but is now up to 6,000 feet deep due to river-borne alluvium. The plain extends eastward to the Brahmaputra valley in Assam from the western Pakistani regions of Sind and Punjab, where it receives water from the Indus and its tributaries. This plain's primary and major region is the Ganges basin, which is mostly located in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. The combined delta of the Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers, which is mostly in Bangladesh but also includes a portion of the nearby Indian state of West Bengal, makes up the eastern portion[7], [8]. This deltaic region is marked by yearly flooding that is ascribed to heavy monsoon rainfall, an exceptionally mild gradient, and a massive discharge that the rivers' courses are unable to manage due to the accumulation of alluvium. The western half of the plain is formed by the Indus River basin, which stretches west from Delhi; the Indian portion is mostly located in the states of Punjab and Haryana. The Indo-Gangetic Plain is significantly extended southward by the Great Indian Desert, often known as the Thar Desert. It is mostly a region of gently undulating topography, with various places dominated by changing sand dunes and several isolated hills. It is generally in India but also stretches into Pakistan. The rest of India is referred to as peninsular.

India or the Deccan Plateau, albeit this designation is not entirely correct. It is actually a topographically varied region that stretches far beyond the peninsula, that part of the country between the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal. It includes a sizable area north of the Vindhya range, which is commonly believed to mark the boundary between the Deccan and Hindustan (northern India). Of all the soil categories in India, the Indo-Gangetic alluvium is by far the biggest and most significant. This group's soils encompass about 777,000 square kilometers. The Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Bengal, and portions of Assam and Orissa are where they are mostly found. They grow rice and wheat as bumper crops. Geologically speaking, the alluvium is separated into two categories: Khadar, or the younger, sandy-composed, usually light-colored alluvium that is around 10,000 years old; and Bhangar, or the older, Pleistocene-era alluvium that is more clayey-composed, often dark-colored, and full of pebbles or kankar.

The consistency of the soils varies, ranging from fine silts to stilt clays and from drift sand to loams. Occasionally, one may also come across a few pebble beds. Because impermeable clays prevent drainage and encourage the buildup of harmful magnesium and sodium ions, the soils become sterile. In these alluvial soils, it is common to notice the development of hard pans at certain soil profile levels due to soil grain binding caused by calcareous materials or silica seeping through. With a varied depth of soil crust, the bulk of the soils are loams or sandy loams[9], [10]. There are significant amounts of soluble salts. Tamil Nadu's alluvial soils are transported soils that are mostly found along the coast and in deltaic locations. Sand and silt layers alternate in one portion of the profile. The kind of sediment that the rivers bring, which in turn changes with the catchment regions and the tracts that the streams pass through, affects the makeup of the strata.The regur or black cotton soil is the characteristic soil found in the Deccan Trap. It is widespread in Maharashtra, certain areas of Tamil Nadu, notably the districts of Ramnad and Tirunelvely in the far south, as well as the western regions of Madhya Pradesh, Karnataka, and Maharashtra. It is analogous to the prairie soil found in the cotton-growing regions of the United States, particularly the black adobe of California, and the chernozems of Russia. It comes from two different kinds of rocks: the semi-arid ferruginous gneisses and schists found in Tamil Nadu, as well as the Deccan and Rajmahal Trap. While the latter are typically shallow, the former may reach significant depths. Though some, particularly on the uplands, have poor productivity, black soil areas usually have excellent fertility. While the soils in the broken terrain between the plains and the hills are richer, deeper, and darker, they are also continuously supplemented by deposits that wash down from the hills.

The slopes and uplands have slightly sandy soils. Red soils cover 2,072,000 square kilometers, or about the full Archaean foundation of Peninsular India, from Bundelkhand to the far south. This area includes sections of Madhya Pradesh, eastern Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, and a sizable portion of Tamil Nadu. These soils are also found in the districts of Mirzapur, Jhansi, and Hamirpur in Uttar Pradesh, as well as in Santhal Parganas in Bihar. They were created when old crystalline and metamorphic rocks were weathered by meteors. The Mesozoic and Tertiary eras are when these soils first began to form. These soils are often red in color, with occasional gradations to dark chocolate, yellow, gray, and sometimes black. More widespread diffusion than a large percentage of iron content is to blame for the redness. The uplands' weak, thin, light-colored soil types gradually give way to the plains' and valleys' far more productive, deep-black soil types.

DISCUSSION

In general, they have low levels of humus, phosphate, and nitrogen. They have lower levels of iron oxide, potash, lime, and phosphorus overall as compared to regur. Kaolinite is abundant in the soil's clay proportion. Red soils, or in-situ formations formed from the rock underneath under the influence of climate conditions, cover more than two thirds of Tamil Nadu's agricultural land. The red granites or mica-containing rocks have an acidic composition. The texture of the soils is open and shallow. A soil type unique to India and several other tropical nations is called laterite, and it is distinguished by sporadic periods of precipitation. The rock composition of the formation ranges from compact to vesicular, mostly consisting of hydrated oxides of iron and aluminum mixed with trace amounts of manganese oxides, titanium, etc. It is created when various kinds of rocks weather in the atmosphere. Laterites may be found in Madhya Pradesh, south Maharashtra, Malabar, the coastal area of Orissa, and a portion of Assam. Generally speaking, all lateritic soils are lacking in nitrogen and very low in lime and magnesia.

On rare occasions, there may be a high P_2O_5 level but insufficient K_2O. Both high-level and low-level laterites may be found in Tamil Nadu. They are created by a range of rock types under certain climatic and meteorological circumstances. Higher elevation laterites cultivate tea, coffee, cinchona, and rubber, whereas lower elevation laterites grow rice. Ten to twenty percent of the soils are made up of organic matter, and they are rich in nutrients. The composition of the organic matter deposited from the development of the forest mostly determines the formation of the soil. In general, two types of soil formation circumstances may be identified: (i) soils developed in an acidic environment with an acid humus and low base status, and (ii) slightly acidic or neutral soils with a high base status that are conducive to the production of brown earths. Assam and Uttar Pradesh both have forested and hilly soils. The Sub Himalayan tract is divided into three separate regions: the lowlands, tarai, and the bhabar area, which is located directly under the hills. The tarai regions are known for their great unhealthiness because of the excessively wet soil and abundant plant growth. Because the deep surface soil in Coorg absorbs the degraded products of the virgin forest every year, it has very fertile soil. The majority of the territory to the west is set aside as woods and - The desert conditions that characterize most of the arid area of Rajasthan, Punjab, and Haryana, which is situated between the Sutlej and the Aravallis, are relatively recent in geological origin. This area is characterized by factors that prevent soil formation and is covered in a mantle of blown sand. Certain soils have a high pH, a large proportion of soluble salts, and varied amounts of calcium carbonate. However, their organic matter content is low. Only with appropriate irrigation infrastructure available would reclamation be feasible.

In ancient India, the significance of manures in achieving elevated agricultural yields was clearly recognized. According to KrishiParashara, crops produced without manure would not yield, and the book includes instructions on how to make manure from cow dung. Kautilya reported manure made from fish, milk, animal bones, and cow dung. To enhance tree blossoming and fruiting, Agnipurana suggests applying a mixture of ground up sheep and goat excreta and sesame seeds soaked in meat and water for seven nights. According to Varahamihira'sBrhat Samhita, it is advised to cultivate sesame until it reaches blooming stage before using it as green manure. A number of these fertilizers are mentioned in the Abhilasitarthacintamani: Lightning-stricken trees might benefit from the soil underneath them to protect them from snowfall.

In addition to promoting the development of flowers and fruits, fumigating trees with turmeric, Vidanga, white mustard, Arjuna tree flowers combined with fish, and the meat of Rohita (a kind of deer) can eradicate all worms, insects, and illnesses. The "ancient" method of making liquid manure (kunapa), involves boiling a combination of animal excrement, bone marrow, meat, and dead fish in an iron kettle, and then adding sesame oil cake, honey, soaked black gram, and a little amount of ghee (or clarified butter) to the concoction. There was no set amount of ingredients needed to prepare "kunapa." The primary purpose of this liquid manure was to raise shrubs and plants.

Green leaf manure is the primary fertilizer used in traditional rice cultivation in the Himalayan areas of the subcontinent. Kunapa is suggested by Surapala and Sarangadhara as a means of providing trees with the necessary nutrients. "One should boil the flesh, fat, and marrow of deer, pig, fish, sheep, goat, and rhinoceros in water and when it is properly boiled one should put the mixture in an earthen pot and add into the compound milk, powders of sesame oil cake, masa (black gram) boiled in honey, the decoction of pulses, ghee, and hot water," Sarangadhara says in his description of how to prepare kunapa. There is no set quantity for any of these components; the mixture transforms into kunapa water, which is very nourishing for plants in general, once the pot is placed in a warm location for around two weeks.

The term "kunapa," used by Surapala before Sarangadhara, described a mixture of excreta, bone marrow, meat, brain, and boar blood combined with water and kept underground. Surapala also made reference to "available" ingredients, which might include fish, ram, goat, and other domesticated animals' meat, as well as animal fat and marrow. With the exception of the little amounts of ghee and honey provided, the other ingredients were essentially the same as those listed by Sarangadhara. Kunapa water concentrates should be easy to create, standardize, and distribute to consumers in jars on a large scale. a "Chaplain of the Bengal Establishment," cites the beneficial use of "liquid manure," made the way Kunapa was created, for vegetable growing. This is a chance for a business to benefit farmers, particularly the orchardists. Who came up with the concept of liquid manure originally is unknown, according to him.By using tank silt or pond excavation in the foothill zones, nutrient recycling was accomplished. the pond sediments that collect during the monsoon from fields, open areas, etc. The common village pond also receives the slurry from the sewage system as well as the dissolved minerals and nutrients in the water from livestock sheds and home washings. The flocculated clay and organic elements tend to settle fast, leaving the pond's water pure. This pond used to provide water to the animals. Farmers excavate the pond foundation by removing dirt and transferring it to the fields as soon as the ponds dry up in the summer. Typically, the top layer of pond foundation is removed to a depth of about 30 cm. This is an abundant supply of nutrients for plants. Every field receives a single treatment of pond sludge every ten to fifteen years. In light-textured red soils, tank silt increases the amount of clay in the soil, which in turn serves to raise soil moisture content and ultimately crop output.

Farmers use tank silt to crops like bananas, turmeric, and jasmine in the districts of Coimbatore and Trichy, but in Ramanathapuram, they apply it to rice at a rate of 25 t/ha. With the arrival of chemical fertilizers, the excavation of pond basins and their application to fields was abandoned. Farmers remove "murrum," the topmost layer of eroded basalt rock, and spread it throughout the fields. Sheep, goats, cattle, and pigs are often penned on fallow areas. In order to collect animal feces and urine in the summer and winter, one or two fields are alternately maintained fallow. In the fallow fields, there are sizable herds of cattle, sheep, and goats. In the past, farmers would feel obligated to ask cattle herder owners for permission to spend the night on their property. Sheep litters are thoroughly mingled with the earth when they are being penninged. Light farming is more productive when done prior to the start of the monsoon. During their periods of rest, sheep leave litter in the same field and eat on the agricultural leftover that is already there. Sheep excrement has an acidic response. Depending on the size of the flocks, penning is done on each plot of land for two to four days in order to collect or accumulate enough manure to raise the soil's fertility. Amritpani is made up of 250 grams of cow milk ghee, 500 grams of honey, 200 liters of water, and 10 kg of cow dung.

First, ghee and cow dung are properly combined. Next, honey is added, and finally water. Farmers gather 25 kg of dirt from the banian tree's base, which is enough to evenly sprinkle well-prepared Amritpani across an acre. A normal acre's worth of earthworms doubles (to 87120) because of the improved energy and friendly soil conditions. In 100 days, a single worm weighing 20 g and consuming about the same amount of dirt may expel 1 kilogram of excrement. The excreta produced by 87 thousand worms will then include 87 t of nutrients, including organic carbon, minerals, microorganisms, organic acids, growth hormones, and compounds that promote development. Inamagaon, Maharastra, India (1300 B.C.) was the site of archaeological digs that revealed a sizable mud embankment on a stone foundation intended to direct floodwaters from the Ghod river into a conduit.

Both irrigation from wells and irrigation using river water via channels are mentioned in the Rigveda.The term "well" (videante) appears often in the Rigveda and is defined as "unfailing and full of water." A wheel, a strap, water pails, and maybe buckets fastened by rope to one end of a long wooden pole which revolved around a heavy weight at the other end were used to lift water from the well. Certain regions of northern India still use the antiquated, inefficient technique. Raising water using a tiny boat that is pulled up by four strings two on each side between two men standing on a wooden platform that protrudes over a shallow reservoir is another often used technique. Water rises and spills into the main channel at each end of the canoe's swing as it is swung back and forth. Macdonell and Keith discover explicit allusions to the Rigveda and Atharvaveda's usage of constructed water canals for irrigation.

"No grain is ever produced without water, but too much water tends to spoil the grain," states Narada. Crops are harmed by flooding;thus, drainage must be supplied. The lakes, reservoirs, wells, canals, and other natural water sources are limited supplies of water on Earth. Rainfall is guaranteed during the cloud season, either by happenstance or the wisdom of the past. Since agriculture relies only on water, the monarch should store the rainwater that clouds bring down during the rainy season in ponds, reservoirs, etc. for the sake of the populace and maintain it with great care.

Thus, the great sage Kasyapa commands that all the water that can be collected throughout the (rainy) season be carefully conserved by the kings and other notable individuals. The KautilyasArthasastra highlights the importance of tank sluice gates, stating that anybody who releases water from a tank at a location other than the sluice gate would be fined six panas. Similarly, anyone who blocks the water's flow from the tank sluice gate will likewise be fined six panas. It further says that "the natural flow of water from a higher to a lower shall not be stopped, unless the lower tank has ceased to be useful for three consecutive years, and the water of a lower tank, excavated later on, shall not irrigate the field already irrigated by a higher tank." Irrigated water was subject to fees, irrespective of the source.

Conduits were later added to Gujarat's massive Sudarshan Lake, which was built about the same period, in the fourth century B.C. The ancient Indian practice of building irrigation tanks persisted across western India. Buddhist texts. In southern India and Sri Lanka, extensive tank irrigation systems were created in the first two centuries of the Christian period. Large-scale rice farming was made feasible by the availability of irrigation, improving food security. The most sophisticated tank irrigation method was known in Sri Lanka. By the third century B.C., they were able to construct large tanks and regulate the flow of water It is quite probable that the modern and succeeding kingdoms in southern India benefited from Sri Lanka's experience in tank construction. The theory behind the effective Sri Lankan ruler of the 12th century. "Let not even a tiny amount of water obtained by rain, go to the sea, without benefiting man," he said in such a nation. In the past, there were up to 14 large irrigation tanks in Sri Lanka's northern region.

The topography of Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka, India's Telangana area, is perfect for building tanks. Telangana's tanks are unique in that they are built in sequence, encircling the same valley many times. One tank's excess water supplied another tank at a lower altitude, and so on. Irrigation tanks off the Cauvery River were built in Tamil Nadu by the Chola monarch Karikalan (c. 190 A.D.) and his successors using canals; several of them still stand today. The eri-variyam, a body composed of peasants, was tasked with maintaining the tanks. The committee oversaw water delivery, tank maintenance, and desilting. In southern India, plans were established for the construction of dams, embankments, tanks, and aquaducts during the Pallava era (200–900 A.D.). Numerous techniques for managing soil water have been developed by ancient dynasties, ranging from the Mauryans to the Mughals. These systems include anaicuts, earthen dams, field bunds, check dams, canals, tanks, ponds, wells, and reservoirs. Before Arab invasions, Babur saw two ways people in northern India were using wells for irrigation: a leather bucket covered with a pulley and a wooden Persian wheel.

Sometimes the subterranean artery descends into a spring from a mountain or a tree root. In some locations, it seems like all of the arteries end in caverns. There will undoubtedly be a lot of water under the hard, stone-like dirt that sounds like a thin slab of stone when tapped during excavation. If a rank growth of Vetasa (rattan) is discovered in an area lacking in any water reservoir, there will be a water artery two cubits below the surface that flows westward. If a rattan plant is seen growing in an area devoid of a pool of water, an artery of water may be located by excavating seven cubits deep and moving three cubits west of the plant. An artery of water located 2.5 man-lengths below the earth's surface may be discovered three cubits to the west of the Ficusoppositefolia tree if it is grown in an area without any kind of water reservoir. Three cubits to the west of an Udumbarika tree, two and a half man lengths below the surface, is where a black water artery may be located. Water is certain to be discovered at a depth of three and a half man-lengths if there is an anthill to the north of an Arjuna tree and three cubits to the west of the tree. Springs of water at a depth of three man-lengths would undoubtedly be discovered two cubits west of an anthill if a Badari (jujube) tree is located there.

In India, agriculture has always been reliant on rainfall. People were aware that a large portion of rainfall seeps through the earth and enters aquifers below the surface. Saraswata Muni, a zoologist and botanist, and Manava Muni, a geologist, both made observations on ground water and its exploration. Based on their findings, the existence of an anthill or a snake burrow was thought to be a sign of subterranean water. Water is present in a variety of trees, including the Banyan, Gular, Palas (Butea monosperma), and Bilwa (Semicarpus anacardium), at a certain depth and in a specific direction. Manava Muni uses the color of the rocks and stones or the soil to infer the existence of water. He has provided a list of the trees or plants that show the presence of water.

The finest astronomer of the sixth century A.D., Varahamihira, made several observations on the exploration of water. He states that there is water in the ground in the following places: an arid area near the Vetasa plant (Calamusrotalg); a gular tree (Ficus glomerata), where a sweet water current may be found; a place where bilwa and gular trees are found growing together; if an ant-hill is located to the north of the Arjuna tree (Terminalia arjzma); if a coconut tree is found with an ant hill; if nirgundi tree (Vitexnegzmdo) is found with an ant hill; if an ant hill is inhabited by a serpent and is located close to the north side of the Mahuwa tree (Madhukaindica); near the milky trees with long branches; at spots where trees, shrubs, and creepers are fresh and fine and leaves are unborn; and near grasses of particular kinds.

People relied mainly on the monsoons and river water and did not dig wells very often. Shallow wells were excavated using human labor, and water was raised using locally made machinery powered by both humans and animals. These wells were excavated after meticulous site selection and groundwater availability verification using water diviners.

CONCLUSION

The study and examination of agricultural systems highlight the variety and complexity present in international agriculture. A range of approaches are provided by various farming systems to meet the problems of food production, resource management, and impacts on the environment. The merits of agroecology in fostering ecological harmony, the accuracy of contemporary agricultural technology, the sustainability of intensifying methods, and the adaptability of traditional subsistence farming are all highlighted in the study. It does, however, also recognize the difficulties and compromises inherent in any system. A sophisticated and flexible strategy is necessary as agriculture tackles the dual challenges of feeding an expanding population and reducing its negative environmental effects. The necessity of context-specific solutions is emphasized as the study promotes a holistic viewpoint that incorporates the best practices from different agricultural systems. The international agricultural community may strive toward creating farming systems that value sustainability, resilience, and the welfare of farmers and the environment in addition to increasing production by encouraging cooperation and knowledge-sharing.

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CHAPTER 11

ROLE OF CATTLE AND OTHER DOMESTIC ANIMALS IN ORGANIC FARMING

ABSTRACT:

The many roles played by cattle and other domestic animals in organic farming, with a focus on how they support soil fertility, sustainable agriculture, and overall farm management. The abstract explores the many use of cattle, such as the generation of organic fertilizers, weed control, and nutrient cycling. It looks at how domestic animals like cattle fit into organic farming systems and how that affects crop yield, soil health, and the sustainability of the farm as a whole. Based on empirical studies and actual implementations, the study assesses the advantages and difficulties of integrating cattle into organic agricultural methods. The main concepts of this investigation are captured by terms like cattle, domestic animals, organic farming, soil fertility, and sustainable agriculture. The report concludes by highlighting the crucial role those domestic animals, such as cattle, play in organic farming and by arguing for their careful incorporation as useful components of regenerative and ecologically friendly agricultural systems.

KEYWORDS:

Cattle, Domestic Animals, Organic Farming, Soil Fertility, Sustainable Agriculture.

INTRODUCTION

Raising animals is as ancient as civilization itself, since domesticated animals predate recorded history. This is seen in the common animals we own today. The Neolithic man subdued and caged animals, whereas the Paleolithic man hunted them for food and clothing. Humans initially engaged in agriculture, which included domestic animal husbandry, during the Neolithic or New Stone Age. Sheep were domesticated in northern Iraq around 9000 B.C., cattle in northeastern Iran during the 6th millennium B.C., goats in central Iran, pigs in Thailand around 8000 B.C., or asses in Jarmo, Iraq, at 7000 B.C., and horses in Ukraine around 4350 B.C., according to carbon-14 testing of animal and plant remains[1], [2]. During the pre-agricultural era, sheep and goats were domesticated by nomadic humans, who brought them under control with the aid of dogs. The early human diet consisted mostly of small ruminants like sheep and goats. In his eventful life, this was perhaps the first step toward secure food production. Early humans were wise enough to recognize the differences in ecological needs between sheep and goats. The sheep is primarily a grass eater and prefers the cover of open forests. The goat is a browser that enjoys the foliage of trees and bushes and is happy in a forest that is not very dense[3], [4].

Sheep and goats gave early humans milk, meat, and clothes. In terms of fiber and meat quality, sheep outperformed goats, but goats produced more milk. From the beginning of human civilization, animals such as horses, elephants, camels, sheep, goats, bullocks, cows, and buffaloes were essential to its growth. Large ruminants, such as buffaloes and cows, were formerly feral forest creatures that would break into the fields of the river valley civilization and steal crops. These animals were valued by the early mankind for their energy, manure (dung and urine), food (meat and milk), and skin (shoes and shields). In order to provide for their basic requirements, these crop thieves were therefore apprehended and brought into the home. "Vaisyas were given cattle by Prajapati when he created them, and if a Vaisya is willing to keep them, no other caste may keep them." (Samhita Manu). The Vaisyas were mostly farmers who created high-quality cow breeds and were a prosperous and esteemed segment of the population. The four fold vartha, or trade and commerce, included agriculture, cattle husbandry, trade, and commerce as profitable endeavors[5], [6]. Raising cattle is mentioned in the Epics as a significant and common profession in the Ramayana and Mahabharata, much like farming. The Mahabharata mentions the well-known cow "Kamdhenu," which means "producing according to desire," belonging to Bashistha.

The seven wild animals (aranyah) mentioned in the Mahabharata are the lion, tiger, boar, buffalo, elephant, bear, and ape; the domestic animals are cow, goat, sheep, horse, mule, and ass. Boar, buffalo, and elephant are raised within the former group. The foundation of the Ksatriya monarchs' household finances was cattle riches, which they both owned and raised. The prince of Kasi (Jataka) and the emperor of Kosala (Ramayana) are two notable instances. In addition to horses, elephants, cows, sheep, and goats, the monarchs kept buffaloes, camels, asses, mules, pigs, and dogs for a variety of purposes (Arthasastra). The high-bred Brahmin in the DhumakariJatakti is a goat keeper. The Jataka mentions setthis or merchants who were also livestock keepers. The craft of weaving emerged gradually and is seen as an extension of the manufacturing of baskets from bamboo, a forest's natural resource. Sheep wool, which was woven into carpets and clothing textiles, was the fiber utilized. The Rigveda talks about how the "Gandhars" in northeastern India domesticated sheep and produced wool of exceptional quality.

The majority of the Vedic Aryans were pastoralists who let their animals graze in the woodlands. When creating settlements, the Kings had to set aside appropriate territory and provide enough space for pastures. The policy about animal breeding is mentioned in the Arthashastra. Additionally, it has specified what graziers must do. To ward off tigers and snakes, the graziers were urged to fasten bells around the necks of their livestock. The graziers were able to locate the herd's whereabouts with the use of the bell's sound. The majority of Aryan conflicts were waged in order to get cows, which served as both their primary source of money and emblem. Three times a day, the cows were milked, and the bull was castrated. The zebu bull served as the Gupta dynasty's emblem about 240 B.C[7], [8]. The "Nandi bull," a humped Zebu, was depicted on coins produced during the Gupta era. The greatest significant action made by humans to advance agriculture was the improvement of Zebu cattle. Zebu's predilection for dry soil and dislike of water suggest that it came from a dry, mountainous habitat. Buffalo also had a significant impact on ancient India's economy. The buffalo gained recognition as a dairy animal during the Mauryan era. The male buffalo was perfect for plowing in the muddy rice fields and for transportation, while the female provided an abundance of milk. The Indus Valley was one of the buffalo's domestication centers in India.

The cow is referred to as the "mother" in Indian mythology, and its whole body is said to be the eternal home of several Gods and Goddesses. Cow is the sister of Aditi's sons, the mother of Rudras, the daughter of Vasus, and the source of "Ambrosia" in the form of ghee. When it came to identifying his cows, Lord Krishna used to address them by name. Three titles were formerly bestowed upon those who owned cowherds in Garg Samhita (GolokKhand): (i)

BrakhBhanu, who raised 10 lakh (one million) cows; (ii) Nand, who raised 9 lakh cows; and (iii) Upnand, who raised 5 lakh cows. There is enough proof in the Mahabharata about the processing of milk and its transformation into other products, including ghee, butter, and curd, which were made in every home. Even now, milk is heated using the age-old method of simmering, which involves slowly boiling the milk over an extended period of time over a fire made of dried cow dung cakes. It was not until much later that the Western world realized the significance of boiling milk, and only then did the procedure of pasteurization emerge[9], [10]. They should milk the cattle twice a day (in the morning and the evening) in the rainy, fall, and dewy seasons; and only once a day (in the morning) in the winter, spring, and summer.

During these seasons, the punishment for milking cattle twice is to have one's thumb amputated. He will not get paid for the time he spends milking if he let it to pass. A cow's milk "drona" yields one "prastha" of ghee; a buffalo's milk "drona" yields one-fifth more; goat and sheep milk yields two-fifths more. It has been suggested that human milk may treat "7-fold doshas." While the milk of fair-skinned women is used to heal three doshas, the milk of black-skinned women is said to be utilized to treat eye disorders. In general, cow milk is a source of strength. White cow milk is used to treat "Vaat," or rheumatic and cardiac ailments, whereas black cow milk is used to treat lung infections, or kafa. There is no other kind of milk that has the same therapeutic potential as black teat milk. In the Rigveda and Atharvaveda, the therapeutic benefits of cow milk are often mentioned.

DISCUSSION

The breeds were fed barley and maize; in the Agnipurana, a calf was found to be prospering on a diet consisting of wheat, clarified butter, sesame, masa (Phaseolus radiatus), cream of milk, and salt. For bulls equipped with nose strings and comparable to horses in terms of speed and load capacity, the following items are recommended: half a bhara of meadow grass, double the amount of regular grass, one tula (100 palas) of oil cakes, ten adhakas of bran, five palas of salt, one kudumba of oil for applying to the nose, one prastha of drink, one tula of fruit pulp, one adhaka of curd, one drona of barley or cooked masa, one drona of milk or half an adhaka of sura (alcohol), one prastha of oil or ghee (clarified butter), ten palas of sugar, and one pala of the fruit of srngavera, which can be used in place of milk. The diet of mules, cows, and asses will consist of the same commodities, each reduced by a quarter, while the diet of buffaloes and camels will consist of double the quality.

Water and feed should be provided to every cattle to the pleasure of the animals. The amount of feed given to draught oxen and milk-producing cows is determined by the length of time the oxen are employed and the amount of milk the cows produce. Cattle need to be protected from robbers and savages. There are examples of taking flesh in ancient literature, apart from ceremonial purposes. Under the danger of expiable guilt and everlasting damnation, eating animal products is absolutely prohibited under ancient rules unless done so in accordance with Vedic ceremonies and sacrifices. When nasal perforation is neglected in the appropriate time frame for tying draught animals to the yoke, penalties are imposed. Cattle may only be milked once a day in the dry winter and summer months, or else the cowherd risks losing his thumb. However, milking is permitted twice a day in the autumn and rainy seasons. Sheep and other animals must have their wool sheared once every six months. Trespass penalties do not apply to stud bulls, bulls let out in honor of the local god (gramadevavrsah), or cows within ten days of giving birth. Only in cases of wandering cattle may ropes and whips be used; any harm done to them results in an assault punishment. The rules of torts protect livestock as well as other household possessions.One or two panas will be charged for hurting little quadruples with sticks, etc.; if the same animals bleed, the fine will double. Large quadripeds will be subject to twice the penalty mentioned above in addition to a suitable compensation charge. A person shall be put to death if they murder, steal, or encourage another person to do so with cattle.

Foot-and-mouth is a virus-induced acute infectious illness that may strike animals at any time of the year. This illness is characterized by high fever, lethargy, lip-smacking, sudden decrease in milk production, and miscarriages. Numerous treatments are used by cattle owners to treat this condition. The afflicted area is cleaned with fitkari (alum). Alum inhibits bacteria and functions as an antiseptic, preventing subsequent infections. It has astringent properties and aids in blood coagulation. An animal may sometimes dip its foot in its urine because it has germicidal properties. Additionally, it's common practice to apply pulverized custard apple leaves or sprinkle powdered camphor on the afflicted region. Both have calming, anti-inflammatory, and fly-repelling properties. Occasionally, livestock owners may warm garlic pieces in hot mustard oil and then apply the oil to the afflicted region after it cools. According to scientists, the strong scent serves as a fly-repellent. It has antiseptic and disinfecting properties as well. Another method is to use hot water to cleanse the injured region, since this has the virtue of cauterization, which helps to stop bleeding. Dipping the tail is the treatment for tail neurosis. Villagers apply mustard oil to the afflicted animal's chest and immerse it in local liquor three to four times a day as a traditional remedy for pneumonia. The illness manifests as shivering and an increase in body temperature. The body becomes warmed by both of these techniques, which also aid in removing cold. The animal is also forced to breathe in turpentine or eucalyptus oil. Breathing in the oil helps to improve breathing.

With the advancement of agriculture, cattle's use in India for power, food, and manure was fully appreciated. Under the influence of Buddhism, the previous custom of offering animals as sacrifices was abandoned, and bullocks joined humans in the conquest of uncharted territory. Indian farmers honor their cattle on many dates throughout the year, seeing them as members of their own social group. The Mababharata makes allowances for the royal race's use of hunting and sacrifice in addition to the qualities of ahimsa and abstinence from meat. Fish and meat are permitted by the Buddha to his followers. Whatever truth may be included in Strabo's comment on Megasthenes' authority that the Brahmanas "eat flesh but not that of animals employed in labor," it still indicates good economic reasoning that in some quarter regulated animal food. Under penalty of fine, animals may only be killed for their meat in an abattoir (parisunam). A variety of stockists and butchers, including cow, sheep, and deer butchers, as well as pigstickers and fowlers, throve on the many sorts of animal meat that were disposed of from distinct booths in the marketplace. The Arthasastra seeks the immunity of only calves, milch cows, and stud bulls in its regulations on the killing of cows. Yajnavalkya, in the Satapatha Brahmana, has a soft spot for delicate beef. Panini claims that when a cow is sacrificed for him, "goghna" means "guest." Apastamba allows for the killing of cows for wedding festivities, mane worship, and guest receptions.

Allchins explain how grains were farmed in the Indus riverine region by citing Lambrick, who they claim had firsthand knowledge of Sind. The main food grains, barley and wheat, would have been planted as spring (rabi) crops, meaning they would have been harvested in March or April. The crops would have been seeded near the end of the inundation on land that had been flooded by spill from the river or one of its natural flood courses. These days, such land doesn't need to be plowed, manured, or given extra water. "The entire operation involves an absolute minimum of skill, labor, and aid of implements," says Lambrick. Cotton and sesame would be among the other crops grown as autumnal (kharif), meaning they would be seeded at the start of the inundation and harvested in the fall. Fields encircled by earth embankments would be needed for this, most likely along the banks of naturally occurring flood courses. While the former approach is less secure than this one, both take use of the alluvium's inherent fertility and the yearly flooding. There is still use for both systems. My observations from farming in Punjab's riverine regions indicate that when the soil has the right amount of moisture, it is plowed, seeded, and the soil is leveled with a plank.There is no way that the Harappans' practices could have been different. Crops must be sown properly by stirring the soil and covering the seed. The "Indica of Megasthenes" examines the Greek description of India. Alexander, his successors, and Megasthenes established the historical framework for Greek involvement in India. The diplomat to Chandragupta Maurya was Seleucus. The history of northern India, the Greek kingdoms, and the growth of the Indian Ocean commerce are all covered in the book. The book's central two parts a review of Greek knowledge of India and a hugely thorough survey are positioned between these two historical portions. The first covers India's physical geography, including its hydrology and meteorology, while the second focuses on the subcontinent's natural history, including its biology and geology and the consequences these have for trade, the military, and even health. According to Megasthenes, Mauryan officials were in charge of monitoring and measuring alluvial deposits in order to collect taxes.

The peasants were not treated with such cruelty and inhumanity; instead, their masters or governors treated the villages that, due to a minor produce shortage, could not pay the entire revenue-farm. The wives and children of these villages were then sold under the false pretense of a rebellion charge. The fields become barren and unsown, turning into wildernesses, as a result of some peasants fleeing their oppressive regime and seeking safety with rebellious rajas. This nation has a very high prevalence of this kind of tyranny. "Of the vast tracts of country constituting the empire of Hindustan, many are little more than sand, or barren mountains, badly cultivated, and thinly peopled," remarks Bernier in reference to the northern region's agricultural and peasantry. Even a considerable portion of the good land remains untilled due to lack of laborers, many of whom perish as a consequence of the bad treatment they experience from the Governors.

In addition to often losing the means of survival, these impoverished individuals also suffer from the advantage of their children being taken away as slaves when they are unable to satisfy the demands of their predatory masters. As a result, many peasants, driven to despair by such a heinous tyranny, flee the countryside in search of a more bearable way of life in the cities or camps, where they may work as slaves to horsemen, bearers of loads, or carriers of water. They sometimes go to the skies to enter the domains of a Raja, since they are afforded more freedom and less persecution there. An Englishman is known to have visited India. After receiving his education at Winchester and traveling to Rome, the Wiltshire native joined the Jesuit order. He acquired a passage at Lisbon in the spring of 1579 because he was eager to serve in India, and he arrived in Goa in October of the same year. He composed two religious works, one of which was a lengthy Marathi epic, and he was the first European to conduct a scientific study of the Konkani language.

He describes a variety of crops, including as coconut and pepper, when narrating his trip to Malabar. This is where the pepper develops; it resembles our ivy berry but is longer. The bunches are initially green, but as they get closer to maturity, they are cut off and dried. The leaf is thin to zero and much smaller than an ivy leaf. Every person living here has a little home that is covered with coco tree leaves. Here in this nation, coarse cinnamon and all of the pepper from Connecticut grow. Plucked from young trees, Ceylon produces the finest cinnamon. There are a lot of palm or coco trees here, which serve as their main source of food since they produce several other essentials in addition to meat and drink.

A French trader and jeweler made six trips to India between 1638 and 1688. He verifies the information provided by Bernier. He claims: "The peasants are reduced to extreme poverty because the Governors seize any property they possess immediately, either by right or by force. Their only article of clothing is a scrap of cloth to cover those parts that natural modesty requires to be concealed." You may see whole regions in India that resemble deserts, where the peasants have left due to the persecution of the governors. Peasants began fleeing the country in greater numbers under Aurangzeb's reign. The assignees', or jagirdars', revenue decreased as a result of the decline in peasantry. The working peasants were under more pressure from the jagirdars in an attempt to make up for their loss. Furthermore, the custom of selling provincial administrations for huge amounts of actual currency emerged. Therefore, it seemed sense that the newly appointed Governor's main goal would be to get the purchase money back, which he had borrowed at an exorbitant interest rate. Thus, the growers faced more persecution as a consequence. In Kerala, Ibn Battuta also saw betel vines. According to him, betel trees are trained up coco palms or grown like vines on cane trellises. They are planted only for their leaves and have no fruit. Indians have a great regard for betel, and if a guy visits a friend and the friend offers him five leaves, you would assume that the friend had given him the will, particularly if the friend is a prince or other famous person. A betel gift is significantly more honorific than a gold or silver present.

Persian masterpieces shown during Akbar's reign provide evidence of the design of the Mughal gardens and the flora cultivated there. Diwan-i-Anwari, a compilation of poetry by the Persian poet Anwari, who was active in the second half of the twelfth century, is one of them. It has some very good artwork on gardens and gardening in it. Three varieties of sugarcane are mentioned by Abu-l-Fazl: paunda, black, and ordinary. In the Ain-i-Akbari, Abu-l-Fazl lists twenty-one fragrant blooming plants, their floral colors, and the season in which they bloom.

Abu-l-Fazl lists the names of the blooming trees and shrubs that are native to the area before introducing plants from other nations. According to Abu-l-Fazl, Akbar brought in gardeners from Turan and Iran. In the Ain-i-Akbari, Abu-l-Fazl gives a thorough description of the fruits that were produced in India during Akbar's reign. According to Abu-l-Fazl, "His Majesty looks upon fruits as one of the greatest gifts of the Creator and pays much attention to them." "As a result, the horticulturists from Iran and Turan have relocated here, and tree cultivation is thriving." Melons and grapes have become very abundant and delicious; other fruits and vegetables that are readily available include water melons, peaches, almonds, pistachios, pomegranates, etc. Eighteen vegetable names and their respective growing seasons are mentioned by Abu-l-Fazl. For royal horses, food and feed were standardized. According to Abu-l-Fazl, "they give grain in summer and boiled peas or vetch in winter." Although the betel leaf is really a vegetable, experts refer to it as a wonderful fruit, according to Abu-l-Fazl. Eating the leaves makes meals smell good and the breath pleasant. Gums are strengthened, the hungry are satiated, and the satisfied get hungry again. I'll go over a few of the many varieties. 1. The Bilahri leaf is shiny and white, and it softens and softens the tongue. It has the greatest flavor of all.

Every nation needs a vision statement to pique people's interest and inspire all facets of society to strive harder. Establishing political consensus on a comprehensive national development strategy is crucial. This strategy should cover various aspects of the economy, including the functions and duties of government agencies at the federal, state, and local levels, private corporations, small and micro enterprises, and people's organizations. To organize activities with focus, it must identify potential dangers and bottlenecks along with viable solutions. It follows that a vision statement must function at several levels of generality and detail in order to achieve these goals. A vision is an image of what one hopes to achieve or envisions for a more distant future. It can have been conceived by a group of people or by just one person.

To create a workable plan for this project without jeopardizing environmental safety or the interests of displaced people, the government has established a Task Force. Significant advantages will come from this project in the areas of inland navigation, tourism, irrigation, power production, and drinking water.

It is important to stress that this massive effort does not take away from the need of encouraging localized small-scale water saving initiatives. Both are beneficial to one another. A new National Water Policy has been established by the National Water Resources Council, which places a strong emphasis on integrated resource development and management for the most efficient and sustainable use of surface and groundwater resources. For the big and medium irrigation schemes that can be finished in a year, the Center has started a Fast Track Program. Raising the dam height after receiving permission from the Narmada Control Authority has helped with agricultural and drinking water shortages in North Gujarat and Saurashtra's desert regions. The practice of purchasing rice and wheat at the Minimum Support Price has left governmental agencies holding enormous inventories of both grains, even though it has guaranteed farmers in surplus states fair prices. The government has been promoting food grain exports in response to this. The high-level Committee's extensive proposals on long-term food management are being looked at. The existing rules, which have hampered crop diversification and resulted in unsustainable food subsidies, urgently need to be reviewed in order to guarantee our farmers get crop-neutral assistance without unduly increasing procurement. An essential part of our strategy for ensuring food security is fertilizers. Greater efficiency, fiscal restraint, and openness are the goals of the new urea pricing strategy, which will go into effect in April 2003.

The government is dedicated to deregulating the marketing and distribution of fertilizers; nonetheless, it will guarantee that major fertilizers are accessible to farmers nationwide, in all States, at reasonable costs, and in sufficient quantity and quality. Lately, the sugar sector has encountered significant challenges that have limited the ability of sugar manufacturers to pay sugarcane farmers on schedule. In order to safeguard the interests of sugarcane producers and maintain the sustainability of sugar mills, a number of measures have been taken. Hosticulture is being actively promoted as a significant area of agricultural diversification. The cold storage plan is operating well and has added 28 lakh t of capacity. A new initiative known as the GrameenBhandaranYojana aims to build, renovate, and expand rural godowns. The objective of this program is to mitigate distressed sales by small and marginal farmers. There is now a new National Policy on Cooperatives. The National Seeds Policy is now complete. Unemployed graduates in agriculture provide farmers extension services in exchange for money under the Agri-clinics and Agribusiness Centers program, which was introduced last year. Given the importance of adding value to agricultural and horticultural output, the government has made the growth of the food processing industries a top priority. A group of ministers has been established to suggest a new, comprehensive food legislation and associated rules.

CONCLUSION

One of the most important components of sustainable and all-encompassing agricultural methods in organic farming is the function that cattle and other domestic animals play. Livestock provide vital functions such weed control, nutrient cycling, and the creation of organic fertilizer, which are important contributions to organic agricultural systems. The study recognizes the difficulties in balancing grazing techniques and addressing possible environmental implications that come with managing cattle in organic systems. But it also highlights how the integration of domestic animals and cattle may improve soil fertility, increase biodiversity, and strengthen overall farm resilience with careful planning and management. Livestock plays a more important part in organic farming as the world's farmers look for ways to produce food in a sustainable way. Organic farmers may establish regenerative and eco-friendly agroecosystems that emphasize ecological health and production by identifying and maximizing the synergies between plant and animal components. In order to promote a peaceful coexistence between agriculture and animal husbandry in the goal of resilient and sustainable food systems, the article therefore calls for a thoughtful and balanced approach to the inclusion of cattle and other domestic animals in organic farming.

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CHAPTER 12

ANALYSIS AND CONCEPT OF AGRICULTURAL METEOROLOGY

Mohamed Jaffar A, Professor
Department of ISME,ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, India
Email Id-mohamed.jaffar@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Examination and conceptual investigation of agricultural meteorology that clarifies its vital function in contemporary agriculture. Agricultural meteorology is an interdisciplinary field that integrates meteorological principles with agricultural applications. The abstract explores the basic ideas of this field. It investigates the effects of climate and weather on crop development, pest dynamics, and general farm management. The study evaluates the value of modeling tools, remote sensing data, and meteorological information in giving farmers useful information to help them make choices. The study examines the developing subject of precision agriculture and its dependence on precise meteorological data, drawing on scholarly literature and real-world applications. The main ideas of this investigation are summed up in terms like precision agriculture, remote sensing, meteorological data, climate influence, and agricultural meteorology. The research concludes by highlighting the critical role that agricultural meteorology plays in improving resource efficiency, bolstering agricultural resilience, and advancing global food systems in a sustainable manner.

KEYWORDS:

Agricultural Meteorology, Climate Impact, Meteorological Data, Precision Agriculture, Remote Sensing.

INTRODUCTION

Meteoro, which means "above the earth's surface" (atmosphere), and logy, which means "indicating science," are the Greek words from which meteorology is derived. Often referred to as the "Physics of the lower atmosphere," this field of physics studies the atmosphere. It investigates each atmospheric phenomena in isolation. Put differently, its focus is on examining the properties and actions of atmospheres. It describes and examines how variations in certain meteorological parameters like humidity, temperature, and air pressure are caused by the impact of insolation, or solar energy that the earth's surface receives.Within the field of applied meteorology, agricultural meteorology examines the environmental physical variables that affect the growth of plants and animals[1], [2]. As an applied science, it examines the connection between weather and climate and agricultural output, or more specifically, how meteorology is used to assess and examine the physical environment in agricultural systems.

The term "agrometeorology" is an acronym for agricultural meteorology, which is the study of the relationship between meteorological and hydrological elements and agriculture in its broadest definition, which includes horticulture, animal husbandry, and forestry (WMO). The study of agrometeorology focuses on the behavior of meteorological phenomena that directly affect agriculture and agricultural productivity. The success or failure of agriculture is largely determined by the weather and environment. Weather affects agricultural processes all the way from crop planting to harvest, and rainfed agriculture in particular is at the whim of the weather. Every year, flooding causes significant damage in one area of India, while a severe drought in another leads to starvation in that region[3], [4]. For each crop, the expected annual pre-harvest losses range from 10 to 100%, whereas the anticipated post-harvest losses range from 5 to 15%. Since crops must be seeded at the ideal time for optimal yield, agrometeorology is required.

The timing of the rainfall affects the sowing date in arid regions. forecasted the start of the monsoon for pre-monsoon seeding. The study of agrometeorology reduces agricultural losses brought on by cyclones, excessive rainfall, and heat or cold waves, among other events. With short-, medium-, and long-range projections, it assists in predicting pests and diseases, crop selection, irrigation, and other intercultural activities. Finding locations with similar climates (agroclimatic zones) is helpful. This will make it possible to use agricultural production techniques that are appropriate for the climate in the area. It also aids in the introduction of new, more productive crop and variety combinations than local ones. It aids in the creation of agricultural weather models, which make it possible to forecast crop production under a range of climatic circumstances[5], [6]. It facilitates the creation of agricultural weather calendars for various regions. It makes it possible to provide farmers crop weather reports. It makes it possible to plan and control variations in food output in an area by forecasting crop yield depending on weather. I The term "climatology" is derived from the Greek terms "klima + logos," where "klima" refers to the earth's slope and "logos" to a study. The scientific study of climate may be summed up as climatology. Indians still perform ceremonial worships and dances to the gods in order to invoke rain during dry spells. In the early civilization, gods were often associated with the elements of the climate. Meteorological science piqued the curiosity of the Greek philosophers. It is about integrating daily weather over an extended period of time. Making the distinction between weather and climate is crucial.

The atmosphere is not a chemical substance; rather, it is a mechanical combination of many gases. In addition, it has a significant amount of solid particles known as aerosols and water vapor, which makes about 4% of the atmosphere's makeup. It is possible to think of several of the gases (N, O_2, Ar, and CO_2) as long-term atmospheric constituents that stay in set ratios to the overall gas volume. The amount of other components varies over time and across locations. The dry air is quite stable across the planet up to an altitude of around 80 kilometers if the suspended particles, water vapor, and other variable gases are removed from the atmosphere[7], [8]. The nation is split with two separate climates by the cancer tropic, which runs through its center. the subtropical climate that predominates in the North and the tropical climate in the South, where mean daily temperatures consistently surpass 20°C throughout the year. It is chilly to frigid in the subtropics in the winter.

Frosts may happen at any moment in December or January. There are several moderate climates in Northern India. Here, two or more months of the year may have below-freezing temperatures, with snowfall during the winter months. The map displays India's three primary temperature-based climate zones. Moisture in the air plays a critical role in the development of clouds. Tiny particles found in the sky, such as dust, smoke, salt crystals, and other substances, are what cause clouds to develop. The term "Cloud Condensation Nucleus" (CCN) refers to these materials. There will be no cloud formation without them. Certain unique varieties, referred to as "ice nuclei," are where cloud droplets freeze or where ice crystals form straight for water vapor. Condensation nuclei are often abundant in air. However, unique nuclei for ice formation are few. Usually, billions of these little ice crystals or droplets of water, or a mix of the two, make up clouds. There are two processes that cause rain to form the warm rain process (also known as the rain fall process in tropical regions) and the cold rain process.

Rain falls when the temperature is above freezing but never below it. It also falls when Based on the temperature at the cloud top, clouds are divided into warm and cold categories. Warm clouds are those with a positive temperature, while cool clouds are those with a negative temperature [9], [10]. The kind of cloud determines the different nuclei required for precipitation. Warm clouds need hygroscopic elements as their nucleus. Cloud seeding is the process of changing the dimensions, lifespan, and size of a cloud by giving it the right nuclei at the right time and location. Salt crystals or other extremely big nuclei may be seeded to speed up the warm rain process. When it comes to the cold rain process, ice nuclei like silver iodide are employed for seeding. One technique to lessen the consequences of the drought is cloud seeding. It is described as a procedure whereby artificial condensation nuclei are injected using airplanes or other appropriate mechanisms to generate rain from clouds that are rain-bearing. Raindrops weigh many times more than droplets from clouds. The mechanics governing warm and cold clouds vary.

The Arabic word "Mausim" or the Malayan word "monsin," which both imply "season," are the sources of the word "monsoon." Such a circulation, which changes its direction every six months, from summer to winter and vice versa, is referred known as the monsoon. Because more than 2000 million people, or around 54% of the world's population, rely on the monsoon rains for their crops, the monsoon has significant economic importance. Furthermore, a significant portion of the monsoon region's entire population makes their living from agriculture. The monsoon brings life-giving rains to India. Food crops are lost when the monsoon rains fail to arrive. In some regions of the nation, the monsoon's erratic behavior results in catastrophic floods, while in other regions, there is an extreme drought.

DISCUSSION

Warm, humid air from the surrounding waters begins to move toward the aforementioned low-pressure center during the hot, dry season (April–May), when temperatures increase quickly and pressures over land drop. But initially, just a little distance is used to pull in the marine air masses. However, after the low-pressure center has completely formed by the end of May or the first week of June, the pressure gradient steepens to the point that even the trade winds from the southern hemisphere are driven to the thermal low located in the subcontinent's northwest. Ferrell's Law states that as southerly trades reach the equator, they are diverted to their right. The once south-east trade winds are now flowing toward the northeast in a southwesterly direction. The warm tropical water is crossed across thousands of kilometers by southwesterly onshore winds that are flowing towards the center of low pressure over northern India. Because of this, they are very damp and have a high chance of experiencing significant rains. This region's monsoon, known as the south-west monsoon, is divided into two branches by Peninsular India's form.

The Arabian Sea Branch makes an almost right angle turn as it approaches India's high western ghats. Western ghats' windward slopes see a lot of orographic precipitation. The quantity of rainfall on the leeward side continues to decrease with increasing distance from the sea coast, while the westerly current from the Arabian Sea continues its voyage over the Indian Peninsula. On their windward slopes, the western ghats get 100–250 cm of rainfall, while their leeward slopes are clearly covered in a rain shadow. The quantity of rainfall on the windward and leeward sides varies relatively little in the north, where the western ghats are not particularly high. Through the Narbada and Tapit gaps, a few air currents from the Arabian Sea branch are able to travel towards the Chhota Nagpur plateau. In the end, these air currents merge with the Bay of Bengal branch.

A branch of the Bay of Bengal current swings back westward, moving into the Punjab and up to the gangetic plain. It should be noted that the monsoon current moves westward across the eastern edge of a trough of low pressure that forms over northern India. Of course, the winds blow parallel to the Himalayan Mountain ranges. The Gangetic plain's rainfall is influenced by both relief and cyclonic storms or monsoon depressions that followed the path of low pressure and low relief along the lowlands' southern edge. It should be mentioned that the monsoon current sweeps from the southeast across this area. From north to south and from east to west, the amount of rainfall drops. The primary cause of the decline in rainfall in the west is the growing separation from the moisture source. Rainfall decreases southward as a result of forced ascension of rain-bearing air currents brought on by the Himalayan Mountains' growing distance. - Kashmir and the Punjab see the development of a secondary high-pressure system.

Over the remainder of the subcontinent, the high-pressure region determines the direction of the dominant wind. Low pressure centers have developed across the Arabian Sea, the Indian Ocean, and the northern portion of Australia, in contrast to the pressure conditions over land. Thus, there is a pressure differential from land to sea during the chilly season, which causes winds to start moving from land to sea. These are the northern hemisphere's northeast or winter monsoons. The monsoon currents that flow from the northeast bring rain to the southern region of the Indian Peninsula. The eastern part of the peninsula receives much more winter rainfall than the western side, and these currents carry moisture from the warm ocean surface as they pass across the Bay of Bengal.

Another name for it is the receding monsoon. Flood-prone or very rainy years are those in which the actual rainfall is "above" the usual by twice the mean deviation or more. Similar to droughts, floods may be defined differently depending on the circumstances, vary from area to region, or include a significant level of runoff. The fraction of precipitation that travels over the land surface or through the soil and water table and returns to the seas and other bodies of water is known as runoff. The quantity and intensity of precipitation, temperature, soil properties, area vegetation cover, and land slope all have an impact on runoff. It might be the result of melting snow and ice fields, which have temporarily held water, or it could be the direct result of rainfall. The amount of runoff that results from rain is determined by how much moisture the soil and plants can hold. Raindrop velocity is slowed by plants, and they retain part of the rainwater on their exterior structures. They also stop water from moving horizontally. In addition to improving the structure of the soil, plants' roots create pathways that allow water to sink further. Dense grass-covered soils have a higher humus content than impermeable subsoils, which improves absorption.

Both internal and external variables that arise throughout the crop-growing season have an impact on crop yields. The climate, which is part of the external environment, controls and influences agricultural plant growth, development, and yield. However, since weather has such a strong influence on the prosperity or failure of agricultural endeavors, man cannot manage it alone. The WMO estimates that up to 50% of agricultural output fluctuation is caused by weather. Consequently, one of the inputs to agricultural planning should be the weather. The plants develop and produce at their greatest capacity under the ideal climate. Different climatic conditions are needed for different agricultural development cycles to be fulfilled. There are not many growth chambers available for maximizing agricultural yield or greenhouses where every growth component may be regulated. As an alternative, extensive research may be done on the climate of a location that is ideal for growing a certain crop with low rates of pests and diseases. The term "climatic normal" refers to the range of values for temperature, precipitation, humidity, and other parameters that separate ideal circumstances from abnormal ones, resulting from both excess and deficiency. The average value of a certain weather element over 30 years is known as the climatic normal. It may last for a week, a month, or a year. The distribution, productivity, and yield of crops are all influenced by the local climate.

Crop output may be enhanced if the crops are chosen for growing according to the ideal climate conditions. The primary causes of the variation in yield are the growing season's temperature and solar radiation levels. During the growing season, it needs a lot of water, a high temperature, and a high humidity level in the air. When water is not scarce, rice can withstand temperatures as high as 40°C. 22 °C on average is needed for the whole growth season. During the growth phase, a temperature decreases of less than 15°C causes sterile spikelets to develop, which significantly reduces rice output. The time frame While low daylight hours during the reproductive stage lower the quantity and growth of spikelets and hence the yield, they have a little negative impact on grain production during the vegetative stage. A 300 cal.cm2/day solar radiation is needed to provide a 5 t/ha grain yield.

During the reproductive period, it is beneficial to have both high sun radiation and a low daily mean temperature in order to increase output. This crop is tropical. It is capable of being grown in a variety of temperatures. However, the groundnut is negatively impacted by both very hot and low temperatures. A range of 14–16 degrees Celsius is required for the germination of seeds. Increased temperature leads to improved performance in terms of duration of It needs four to five months of consistently high temperatures (between 28 and 45 degrees Celsius) for crop development. A minimum of 21–29°C must be maintained in the air during the vegetative phase. The ideal air temperature range during the reproductive period is 27–32 °C, with 8–9 hours of sunlight each day and a mean relative humidity of 70%. However, for optimal cotton output during the boll development and opening period (September to November), a relative humidity of less than 70% and eight hours of sunlight are required. At 25–30°C, the cotton crop grows more quickly.

Lower temperatures than 15 °C cause development to stall and less square (bud) formation. A place's weather has a wide range of social and economic effects. With weather changes of up to 50% in crop yield, weather is one of the key elements influencing crop productivity among other aspects. The most crucial forecast factor that determines agricultural productivity in an area and, eventually, the economics of a nation, is rainfall. It is crucial for an area to prepare for flood relief during a high monsoon and moisture conservation during a weak one. When properly distributed, accurate weather forecasting will provide room for successful sustainability. One can lessen the harm that inclement weather may do, whether directly or indirectly.Recurring crop losses may be reduced if early and accurate forecasts of pest and disease incidence are provided based on meteorological data. Buffer stock activities serve to keep food grain prices under control. The government may intervene and make purchases during prosperous monsoon years when prices are low, and it may also sell some of what it has bought during lean years when prices are higher. Depending on the prediction, an area might prepare for the wise use of water. Important renewable dynamic natural resources are agricultural resources. In India, around 67% of the population makes their living from the agricultural sector alone. Since there isn't much room to expand the amount of land that may be farmed, raising agricultural production has been the major priority.

This necessitates the prudent and ideal management of water and land resources. Therefore, thorough and trustworthy data on land use/cover, forest area, soils, geology, amount of wastelands, agricultural crops, surface and subterranean water resources, and risks/natural disasters like drought and floods are needed. Seasonal data on crops, including their acreage, vigor, and productivity, helps the nation to establish appropriate procurement and support policies and take appropriate action to address any shortages. Such data is being provided in large part by remote sensing systems, which are capable of delivering frequent, synoptic, multi-temporal, and multi-spectral coverage of the nation. Many tests have been conducted to create methods for obtaining information about agriculture from data collected from satellite, aircraft, and ground sources. The sun energy is absorbed and reflected by every substance on Earth. They also release a certain quantity of internal energy. Remote sensing equipment, which is carried by planes or satellites, detects the energy that is received, reflected, and released. Characteristic words referred to as "spectral signatures" and "images" are used in the detecting process. Commonly used remote sensing devices capture electromagnetic spectrum radiation, or sunshine, which includes the visible range (0.4–0.7 nm) and near infrared (0.7–10 nm). A model is a mathematical representation of a system. Modeling is the process of creating such a representation. Broadly speaking, a model evokes ideas about the shape and use of actual items, such as toys for kids, custom dummies, and models of buildings and other structures that will eventually be built in their true forms. Additionally, models create circumstances or items that do not yet exist in the actual world. A model is an act of imitation and may also be called a representation of the connection that is being studied. It is an illustration of a crop using mathematical formulas that describe how the crop interacts with its above- and below-ground surroundings.

Growth is the term used to describe the increase in dry matter of the crop. A healthy crop's pace of development is determined by how quickly radiation is absorbed by leaves, how quickly water and nutrients are absorbed by root systems, and ultimately how quickly water and nutrients are distributed throughout the soil profile. The several phenophases that the crop goes through to finish its lifespan are used to explain the development of the crop. That represents the crop's development from sowing, also known as primordial initiation, until maturity. Last but not least, the yield of a crop stand may be calculated as the product of three variables: the duration of the growth season, the mean rate at which dry matter accumulates, and the percentage of dry matter that is harvested as yield.

Plant growth and development from seedling to maturity are related via modeling. The understanding of the variety in growth and development comes from a mathematical explanation of fundamental principles. Plants' reactions to their macro- and microenvironments are measured. It gives insight into the plant development process and aids in identifying missing information to provide a full picture of the operations. It will provide fresh concepts that inspire experimental methods. Researchers may comprehend the impact of a single component and the interaction of several variables in a single experiment by using modeling. Separate ad hoc experiments may thus be avoided.

Certain weather-related calamities, such as floods and drought, ice storms, dust storms, landslides, lightning-related thunder clouds, and forest fires, are rare in certain parts of the globe. One of the most recent weather-related catastrophe years was 1998, which resulted in floods in China, India, and Bangladesh and hurricanes in Central America. Due to an ice storm in January, Canada and New England in the United States suffered greatly, while floods in June 1998 affected Turkey, Argentina, and Paraguay. Over three million acres of woods were destroyed by massive fires in Siberia. The worst effects of these weather-related catastrophes, which have a significant impact on the world economy, are agricultural and human losses. The 2004 tsunami crisis in Indonesia, India, Sri Lanka, and other Asian nations is a memory that will never fade.

The greatest El Nino occurrences of the 20th century, which occurred between 1997 and 1998, are believed to have impacted 110 million people and cost the world economy up to $100 billion. According to data gathered from insurance companies, significant natural disasters, mostly connected to weather and climate change, are projected to have cost the US economy $ 960 billion between 1950 and 1999. The last several decades saw the majority of the losses documented.

Climate variability and climate change may be caused by factors such as an increase in aerosols due to the emission of greenhouse gases, such as black carbon and chlorofluorocarbons (CFCS), ozone depletion, UV-B filtered radiation, cold and heat waves, global warming and cooling, and the "human hand" in the form of deforestation and wetlands loss in the process of imbalanced development for the betterment of humankind.

CONCLUSION

Agricultural meteorology's conception and analysis emphasize how crucial a role it has played in influencing contemporary agricultural practices. With its emphasis on comprehending and using meteorological data, agricultural meteorology offers farmers vital insights to maximize their decision-making procedures. The importance of meteorological data is emphasized in the study with regard to managing water resources, mitigating the effect of climate change, and improving overall agricultural output. Precision agriculture has to include meteorological concepts as climate change and variability continue to pose problems to the industry. Agricultural meteorology helps to create resilient and sustainable farming systems by using cutting-edge technology like modeling and remote sensing. The study promotes further study and technical developments in agricultural meteorology to provide farmers with the skills and information they need to deal with the challenges posed by a changing environment. As a result, the way agricultural meteorology is conceptualized emphasizes how crucial it is to promoting accuracy, effectiveness, and sustainability in international agriculture.

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