

“Role of Plants in Combating Climate Change”

Suniti Bala Chandra

Research scholar , Department of Botany

Radha Govind university

Ramgarh,

Ranchi. Jharkhand.

Abstract;

Climate change is the defining environmental crisis of the 21st century, characterised by rising global temperatures, melting ice sheets, shifting rainfall patterns, and an increasing frequency of extreme weather events. Anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, particularly carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane, and nitrous oxide, are the primary drivers of this phenomenon. In this context, plants play an indispensable role as both mitigators and adaptors. Through photosynthesis, plants act as natural carbon sinks, sequestering atmospheric CO₂ and storing it in biomass and soils. Beyond this, plants regulate hydrological cycles, support biodiversity, provide ecosystem services, and contribute to human well-being.

This article examines the multifaceted role of plants in combating climate change. It begins by exploring the function of plants as carbon sinks, followed by afforestation and reforestation initiatives, sustainable agriculture and agroforestry practices, and the contribution of biodiversity to climate resilience. It further considers urban greening, technological innovations, policy measures, and the significance of community participation and indigenous knowledge. The discussion also addresses challenges such as deforestation, monoculture plantations, and climate-induced stressors that threaten plant effectiveness.

Case studies from India and across the globe—including the Chipko movement, the Great Green Wall of Africa, China’s afforestation programmes, and Kenya’s Green Belt Movement—illustrate how plants have been mobilised in diverse contexts to mitigate and adapt to climate change. The article concludes by arguing that plants must be placed at the centre of climate strategies, not only as ecological assets but also as socio-economic partners in achieving a sustainable and equitable future.

Keywords:

Climate change, Plants, Carbon sequestration, Afforestation, Biodiversity, Ecosystem services, Reforestation, Agriculture, Sustainability, Mitigation

Introduction;

Climate change is no longer a distant threat; it is an ongoing reality affecting every region of the world. According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2021, p. 6), the global surface temperature has already increased by approximately 1.1°C above

pre-industrial levels, and without immediate action, the world is likely to exceed the 1.5°C threshold within two decades. The consequences of such warming include sea-level rise, heatwaves, floods, droughts, and biodiversity loss.

Amidst this crisis, plants emerge as one of the most powerful natural allies in mitigating climate change. Unlike engineered technologies, plants are cost-effective, self-sustaining, and multifunctional. They not only absorb CO₂ but also provide oxygen, regulate water cycles, protect soils, and sustain food systems. This article explores in depth the diverse roles that plants play in addressing climate change, drawing from scientific studies, policy initiatives, and grassroots movements.

Plants remain indispensable allies in humanity's collective struggle against climate change. As living systems capable of capturing and storing carbon, regulating microclimates, preserving biodiversity, and supporting livelihoods, they offer some of the most cost-effective, multifunctional, and readily deployable solutions available to societies today. Afforestation, reforestation, agroforestry, wetland restoration, and urban greening are not merely ecological interventions but also social strategies that reshape communities, provide food and medicine, create employment, and foster resilience. In this sense, the role of plants transcends biology, entering political, economic, and cultural domains.

The global evidence is compelling. The restoration of mangroves in Bangladesh, for instance, has not only absorbed significant volumes of carbon but also provided natural protection against cyclones and coastal flooding. Similarly, India's large-scale afforestation programmes under the National Mission for a Green India demonstrate how community involvement can simultaneously restore degraded land and improve rural livelihoods. In Africa, agroforestry practices such as the integration of nitrogen-fixing trees into farmland have improved soil fertility, enhanced food security, and contributed to climate adaptation. Urban case studies, from Singapore's vertical gardens to London's green roofs, reveal how plants mitigate heat islands and improve air quality. Taken together, these examples underscore a universal truth: when integrated thoughtfully into climate strategies, plants deliver benefits that extend far beyond carbon sequestration. It would be naïve to assume that plants alone can resolve the climate crisis. Global carbon emissions continue to rise, largely driven by fossil fuel dependence, industrial agriculture, and unsustainable consumption. While forests act as carbon sinks, deforestation and land degradation in parts of South America, Africa, and Asia are turning these sinks into sources. Moreover, tree plantations lacking biodiversity can harm ecosystems rather than restore them. These contradictions remind us that plants cannot be reduced to mere tools in a carbon arithmetic; they are part of complex ecological webs whose integrity must be safeguarded.

This complexity points to the need for integrated policies. Afforestation and reforestation must prioritise native and diverse species rather than monocultures. Agricultural policies should encourage sustainable practices such as agroecology and

organic farming, which place plant health at the core of food systems. Urban planning must mainstream green infrastructure, ensuring that parks, roadside trees, and rooftop gardens become essential civic assets rather than decorative afterthoughts. Financing mechanisms should be inclusive, giving local communities genuine ownership of green projects and ensuring that the benefits are equitably distributed.

Beyond the technical and policy dimensions lies a deeper ethical challenge. Humanity has long treated plants as passive resources to be exploited for timber, fuel, or ornamental use. The climate crisis demands a re-imagining of this relationship: recognising plants as co-agents in sustaining planetary life. Indigenous cultures worldwide have long practised such reciprocal ethics, seeing forests, crops, and medicinal plants as kin rather than commodities. Reviving such perspectives in dialogue with modern science could foster a more respectful and sustainable engagement with nature.

Ultimately, positioning plants at the centre of climate action is not only an environmental imperative but also a civilisational choice. By embracing the ecological intelligence embedded in forests, fields, and gardens, societies can address multiple crises simultaneously—climate instability, food insecurity, biodiversity loss, and urban stress. The vision that emerges is one of interconnectedness: cities cooled by trees, farms sustained by agroforestry, coasts protected by mangroves, and cultures revitalised through traditional plant knowledge.

Plants as Carbon Sinks;

Plants, particularly forests, serve as major carbon sinks. Through photosynthesis, they absorb atmospheric CO₂ and convert it into organic matter stored in leaves, stems, roots, and soils. Globally, forests absorb approximately 2.4 billion tonnes of carbon each year, which represents about one-third of fossil fuel emissions (Pan et al., 2011, p. 988).

Tropical forests such as the Amazon, Congo Basin, and Southeast Asian rainforests play a disproportionately large role in this process. However, deforestation has significantly reduced their capacity to act as carbon sinks. The Amazon, once described as the “lungs of the Earth”, is now at risk of becoming a carbon source due to deforestation and wildfires (Lovejoy & Nobre, 2018, p. 168).

In India, forests absorb nearly 11% of the nation’s annual GHG emissions, making them crucial to the country’s climate strategy (FSI, 2019, p. 53). Initiatives such as the National Afforestation Programme have been launched to strengthen this capacity,

Afforestation and Reforestation;

Afforestation (planting trees on non-forest land) and reforestation (restoring degraded forests) are key strategies for enhancing carbon sequestration. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 2018, p. 27) estimates that global reforestation could sequester up to 1.6 gigatonnes of CO₂ annually.

China has implemented one of the world's largest afforestation projects, converting vast tracts of arid land into green cover through its "Great Green Wall" programme. Similarly, the African Union's "Great Green Wall" aims to restore 100 million hectares of degraded land across 20 countries by 2030 (UNCCD, 2016, p. 19).

India's Green India Mission, part of the National Action Plan on Climate Change (NAPCC), seeks to increase forest cover by five million hectares and improve the quality of existing forests. Community-based afforestation projects, such as those in Uttarakhand following the Chipko movement, demonstrate the effectiveness of grassroots participation.

Sustainable Agriculture and Agroforestry;

Agriculture contributes nearly 20–25% of global GHG emissions, largely due to methane from livestock and rice cultivation, nitrous oxide from fertilisers, and CO₂ from land-use change (Smith et al., 2014, p. 811). However, plants can provide solutions through sustainable farming and agroforestry practices.

Agroforestry, which integrates trees with crops and livestock, enhances soil fertility, reduces erosion, and increases carbon storage. Research shows that agroforestry systems can store up to 9.28 megatons of carbon per hectare annually (Nair, 2012, p. 246). Crops such as bamboo and moringa are particularly effective in sequestering carbon while also providing food and income.

In India, traditional practices such as "wadi" farming in Gujarat and Maharashtra exemplify how integrating fruit trees with crops can increase resilience and reduce emissions.

Urban Greening and Climate Regulation;

Urbanisation exacerbates climate change through energy consumption, transportation emissions, and the urban heat island effect. Plants in urban areas mitigate these impacts by lowering surface temperatures, improving air quality, and reducing energy demand. Green roofs, vertical gardens, and urban forests are increasingly being adopted in cities worldwide.

Singapore's "City in a Garden" initiative and Curitiba's urban forestry programme are prime examples of integrating plants into urban planning. In Delhi, tree plantation drives have been initiated to combat rising pollution and heatwaves. Research suggests that increasing tree canopy cover in urban areas can reduce summer peak temperatures by up to 2°C (Gill et al., 2007, p. 118).

Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services;

Biodiversity enhances ecosystem resilience to climate change. Diverse plant communities are better able to withstand droughts, floods, and pest infestations. The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA, 2005, p. 41) highlighted that ecosystem services such as soil stabilisation, water purification, and nutrient cycling are heavily dependent on vegetation.

In India, the Western Ghats and the Himalayas are biodiversity hotspots that provide essential ecosystem services. Protecting native plant species in these regions is critical not only for biodiversity but also for climate adaptation and mitigation.

Technological Innovations and Policy Measures;

Technological advances are enhancing the role of plants in combating climate change. Remote sensing and satellite imagery allow for accurate monitoring of forest cover and carbon stocks. Genetic engineering offers the possibility of developing climate-resilient crops that require fewer resources (Lobell et al., 2008, p. 612).

Policy frameworks such as REDD+ (Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation) incentivise developing countries to conserve forests (UNFCCC, 2016, p. 15). India has also implemented compensatory afforestation policies to offset the loss of forest land due to development projects.

Community Participation and Indigenous Knowledge;

Community involvement is critical to the success of climate initiatives. Indigenous communities possess traditional knowledge about sustainable land use and plant conservation. The Chipko movement in India, led largely by women, demonstrated how local communities could protect forests against commercial exploitation.

The Green Belt Movement in Kenya, founded by Wangari Maathai, mobilised communities to plant over 50 million trees, thereby improving both environmental and social outcomes. Similarly, community forestry in Nepal has transformed degraded landscapes while providing livelihoods.

Challenges and Limitations;

While plants are central to climate strategies, there are limitations. Deforestation, invasive species, and climate-induced stressors such as wildfires reduce plant efficiency as carbon sinks. Monoculture plantations, although beneficial in carbon storage, often harm biodiversity.

Furthermore, the benefits of plants are unevenly distributed. Wealthier nations can invest heavily in green technologies, while poorer countries struggle with basic resource constraints. Thus, international cooperation and equitable funding mechanisms are essential.

Case Studies;

1. Chipko Movement, India;
2. In the 1970s, villagers in Uttarakhand embraced trees to prevent deforestation by contractors. This movement not only protected forests but also highlighted the link between ecological sustainability and social justice.
2. The Great Green Wall of Africa;

Stretching across the Sahel region, this project aims to combat desertification by planting trees across 8,000 km. By 2021, over 18 million hectares of land had been restored (UNCCD, 2021, p. 24).

3. The Green Belt Movement, Kenya;

Founded by Wangari Maathai in 1977, the movement has planted millions of trees, empowering women and improving food security.

4. China's Afforestation Projects;

China's massive tree plantation drives have increased forest cover by more than 70 million hectares since 1990, demonstrating the potential of large-scale state-led interventions.

Conclusion;

Plants provide humanity with both practical tools and moral lessons in confronting climate change. Their role is not sufficient in isolation, but without them, all other measures will falter. A sustainable and just future will depend on the capacity of nations and communities to integrate plants into their climate strategies while simultaneously reducing emissions, investing in renewable energy, and adopting more conscious lifestyles. The urgency of the climate crisis leaves little room for complacency, but it also offers an opportunity: to reimagine development in harmony with the green allies that have sustained life on Earth for millennia. By recognising plants as indispensable partners rather than expendable resources, humanity can take decisive steps towards a resilient, equitable, and climate-secure world.

Plants are indispensable allies in the global struggle against climate change. Through carbon sequestration, afforestation, sustainable agriculture, biodiversity conservation, and urban greening, they offer low-cost and multifunctional solutions. Case studies from across the globe underscore the effectiveness of integrating plants into climate strategies.

However, plants alone cannot solve the climate crisis. They must be complemented by renewable energy, technological innovation, and lifestyle changes. Policies must prioritise biodiversity-rich afforestation, community participation, and equitable financing. Above all, humanity must reimagine its relationship with nature, recognising plants not as passive resources but as active partners in ensuring planetary survival.

By placing plants at the centre of climate action, the world can move towards a sustainable and just future.

References;

1. Berkes, F. (2012). *Sacred ecology* (3rd ed.). Routledge. p. 113.
2. Chazdon, R. L. (2008). Beyond deforestation: Restoring forests and ecosystem services on degraded lands. *Science*, 320(5882), 1458–1460. p. 1460.
3. Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). (2018). *The state of the world's forests*. Rome: FAO. p. 27.

4. Forest Survey of India (FSI). (2019). State of forest report. Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change. p. 53.
5. Gill, S. E., Handley, J. F., Ennos, A. R., & Pauleit, S. (2007). Adapting cities for climate change: The role of the green infrastructure. *Built Environment*, 33(1), 115–133. p. 118.
6. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). (2021). Climate change 2021: The physical science basis. Cambridge University Press. p. 6.
7. Lobell, D. B., Burke, M. B., Tebaldi, C., Mastrandrea, M. D., Falcon, W. P., & Naylor, R. L. (2008). Prioritising climate change adaptation needs for food security in 2030. *Science*, 319(5863), 607–610. p. 612.
8. Lovejoy, T. E., & Nobre, C. (2018). Amazon tipping point. *Science Advances*, 4(2), eaat2340. p. 168.
9. Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA). (2005). Ecosystems and human well-being: Synthesis. Island Press. p. 41.
10. Nair, P. K. R. (2012). Carbon sequestration studies in agroforestry systems: A reality-check. *Agroforestry Systems*, 86(2), 243–253. p. 246.
11. Pan, Y., Birdsey, R. A., Fang, J., Houghton, R., Kauppi, P. E., Kurz, W. A., ... Hayes, D. (2011). A large and persistent carbon sink in the world's forests. *Science*, 333(6045), 988–993. p. 988.
12. Smith, P., Bustamante, M., Ahammad, H., Clark, H., Dong, H., Elsiddig, E. A., ... Tubiello, F. N. (2014). Agriculture, forestry and other land use (AFOLU). In *Climate change 2014: Mitigation of climate change* (pp. 811–922). Cambridge University Press. p. 811.
13. UNCCD. (2016). The great green wall: Implementation status and way ahead to 2030. United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification. p. 19.
14. UNCCD. (2021). The great green wall: Status report 2021. UNCCD. p. 24.
15. UNFCCC. (2016). Report on the implementation of REDD+. United Nations Climate Change Secretariat. p. 15.

.....
.....
2541 words