

Review Article

Soil Health and Sustainability in the Age of Organic Amendments: A Review

Abstract

Organic amendments have emerged as a pivotal component in the trajectory of sustainable agriculture, given their multifaceted contributions to soil health, crop yield, and environmental conservation. This comprehensive review delves into the intricacies of organic amendments, spanning their historical context, types, sources, nutrient profiles, and their interplay with soil and plant health. Special emphasis is laid on the integration of modern technological advancements with traditional amendment practices, exploring the synergistic potential of digital agriculture and precision farming in enhancing the efficacy of organic inputs. The review also sheds light on the economic, social, and environmental ramifications, emphasizing the role of organic amendments in smallholder versus large-scale agricultural systems and their influence on farmer resilience and consumer perceptions. Crucially, this review addresses the challenges and limitations inherent in organic amendment practices, including concerns related to quality variation, scalability, over-application, and regulatory nuances. Concomitantly, the work culminates with a forward-looking perspective, highlighting emergent trends and innovations that portend the future of organic amendments in global agriculture. The findings underscore the significance of organic amendments not merely as soil additives but as integral elements in the blueprint for a sustainable, resilient, and food-secure future.

Keywords: *Sustainability, Agroecology, Amendments, Organic, Precision*

Introduction

Soil health, commonly defined as the continued capacity of soil to function as a vital living ecosystem, supports plants, animals, and humans [1]. This definition emphasizes the role of living organisms within the soil and recognizes the soil as a dynamic and constantly changing medium [2]. Healthy soil provides essential ecosystem services that sustain life on Earth, including nutrient cycling, water filtration, and carbon sequestration [3]. Soil health is integral to global sustainability due to its multifaceted roles. As Papendick *et al.* [4] reported, soil health is paramount for sustainable food production. Healthy soils ensure better crop yields, leading to food security and economic stability for billions worldwide. Moreover, soils play a pivotal role in the global carbon cycle. They act as carbon sinks, offsetting greenhouse gas emissions, and thereby play a central role in mitigating climate change [5]. The maintenance of soil health is essential for preserving biodiversity, as soils are home to a significant proportion of global biodiversity [6]. However, there's growing concern about declining soil health due to various anthropogenic activities. Land degradation, including erosion, loss of organic matter,

compaction, salinization, and the presence of contaminants, is jeopardizing the health and productivity of soils worldwide [7]. The significance of this degradation is not just local or regional; its implications are global, particularly considering the vital role of soils in climate regulation, water availability, and food production [8]. In response to concerns about declining soil health, there has been a renewed interest in traditional and innovative soil management practices, including the use of organic amendments. Organic amendments can be broadly defined as materials derived from living organisms, added to soils to improve their physical, chemical, and biological properties [9]. Organic amendments encompass a diverse array of materials, such as compost, manure, biochar, green manures, and cover crops. These amendments can positively impact soil health in various ways. They often improve soil structure, enhance water retention capacity, increase soil microbial activity and diversity, and supply essential nutrients to crops [10]. The rise in popularity of organic amendments can be attributed to multiple factors. The sustainable agriculture movement, which emphasizes ecological balance and long-term sustainability, has championed the use of organic amendments [11]. Increased consumer demand for organically grown food has provided an economic incentive for farmers to adopt organic farming practices, including the use of organic amendments. Moreover, scientific evidence supporting the multiple benefits of organic amendments on soil health, crop yield, and environmental health has contributed to their increasing adoption. Given the global importance of soil health and the rising popularity of organic amendments, this review aims to offer a comprehensive examination of the relationship between the two. While there's substantial literature on the individual topics of soil health and organic amendments, there's a need for an integrative review that ties these themes together, especially in the context of global sustainability. The scope of this review encompasses an exploration of the types and sources of organic amendments, their impacts on soil health, and their implications for crop production and environmental health [12]. We will also delve into the socio-economic implications of organic amendments, considering their role in diverse agricultural systems, from smallholder farms to large-scale commercial operations. By bridging the realms of soil science, agronomy, ecology, and socio-economics, this review aims to provide a holistic understanding of the role of organic amendments in promoting soil health and global sustainability.

Soil Health

Soil health, often synonymous with soil quality, reflects the soil's capability to function as a living system [13]. It involves maintaining biological productivity, promoting environmental quality, and sustaining plant and animal health. The dynamic nature of soil health is evident in its changes across time in response to management decisions and land use. Soil health is not just a static attribute, but a continuum affected by management practices. Various components collectively determine soil health, and these can be categorized into physical, chemical, and biological domains Bunemann *et al.* [14] Viz. *Physical components*: These refer to the soil's physical properties and conditions such as soil texture, structure, depth, and water availability. The extent of aeration, water infiltration rate, and drainage can influence root growth and

microbial activity. *Chemical components*: These include aspects like soil pH, electrical conductivity, cation exchange capacity, and nutrient content. Chemical components influence nutrient availability, metal toxicity, and microbial processes. *Biological components*: These encompass the diversity and activity of soil microorganisms, presence of earthworms, nematodes, and soil fauna, as well as the organic matter content. Soil biota play a pivotal role in organic matter decomposition, nutrient cycling, and soil structure formation [15]. The health of the soil directly affects crop production and the broader ecosystem services. Healthy soils, rich in organic matter and inhabited by diverse microbiota, facilitate nutrient cycling, ensuring adequate nutrient supply to crops. Healthy soils also maintain good structure, which enhances water infiltration and root penetration, leading to better water-use efficiency and potentially higher crop yields. Soil health underpins various ecosystem services that go beyond crop production: *Water filtration and regulation*: Healthy soils, especially those with good structure and high organic matter, act as effective filters, purifying water and controlling its movement, reducing the risk of flooding and groundwater pollution [16]. *Carbon sequestration*: Soils, when well-managed, can act as carbon sinks, storing carbon in the form of organic matter, which is pivotal in the global efforts to combat climate change. *Biodiversity preservation*: Soils are habitats for countless species, from microorganisms to insects and small mammals. A healthy soil ensures the maintenance of this biodiversity, which can have cascading effects on above-ground biodiversity [17].

Modern agricultural and industrial practices, combined with certain natural processes, pose substantial threats to soil health: *Erosion*: Accelerated soil erosion, mainly due to inappropriate land management and excessive tillage, can lead to the loss of the fertile topsoil layer, reducing soil productivity and leading to downstream sedimentation. *Compaction*: The use of heavy machinery and overgrazing can cause soil compaction, which reduces the porosity of the soil, hindering root growth and reducing water infiltration rates. *Salinization*: Excessive irrigation, especially in arid regions without proper drainage, can cause salt accumulation on the soil surface. This salt buildup can inhibit crop growth and reduce soil fertility [18]. *Loss of organic matter*: Unsustainable farming practices, like excessive tillage and the non-inclusion of cover crops, can lead to the rapid decomposition and loss of soil organic matter, diminishing soil structure and nutrient content. *Loss of biodiversity*: Intensive agricultural practices, use of pesticides, and habitat destruction can lead to a significant reduction in soil biodiversity, disrupting essential ecosystem services like decomposition and nutrient cycling.

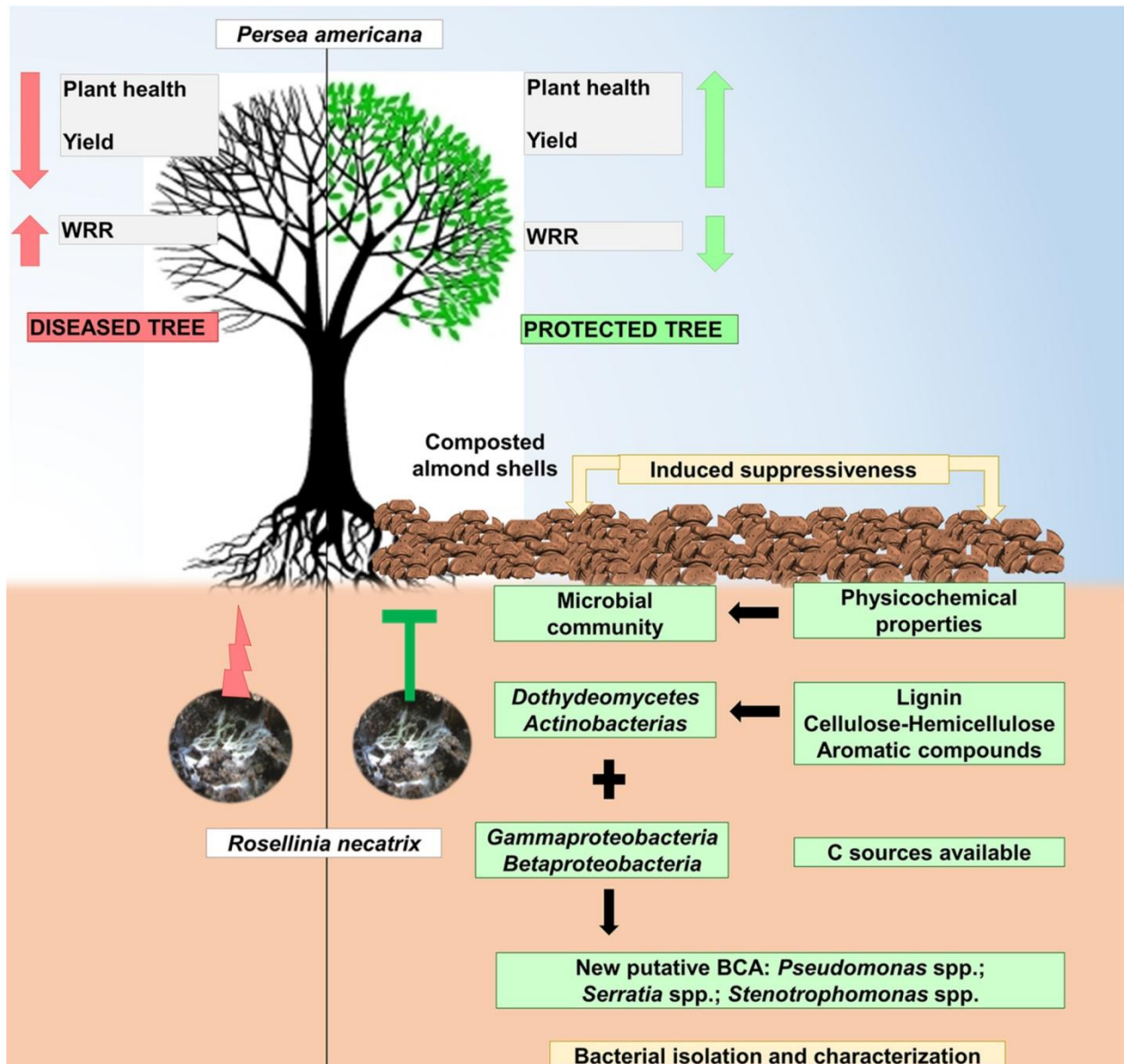


Image 1: The role of organic amendments to soil for crop protection (<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/>)

3. Traditional Soil Management Practices

Historical civilizations have long understood the importance of fertile land for crop production, with early agricultural societies implementing various soil management practices to maintain and enhance soil fertility. From the dawn of agriculture to modern-day, soil management has evolved, adopting practices based on cultural knowledge, scientific understanding, and technological advances. This section delves into traditional soil management practices, including their historical methods, the advent of synthetic fertilizers, and the implications of tilling and monoculture on soil health. Long before the introduction of synthetic inputs, early farmers

utilized a myriad of practices, developed over generations, to maintain soil fertility: *Crop rotation*: The ancient farming communities recognized the importance of rotating crops to reduce pest pressure and enhance soil fertility. Historical records indicate that crop rotation systems were in use in ancient Rome and China [19]. This method involves growing different types of crops in succession on the same piece of land, which aids in nutrient cycling and reduces soil-borne diseases. *Use of manure and compost*: Ancient civilizations, like the Indus Valley and the Nile Delta, integrated livestock farming with crop production. Livestock waste served as a valuable source of organic matter and nutrients for crops. The composting of organic materials, including plant residues and animal waste, provides an enriched source of organic matter and a wide range of nutrients, enhancing soil fertility and structure. *Agroforestry*: Many indigenous communities around the world practiced agroforestry—integrating trees into croplands. This system promotes soil conservation, enhances water retention, and boosts nutrient availability through leaf litter and deep rooting systems [20].

The 20th century marked the onset of the Green Revolution, characterized by the large-scale adoption of synthetic fertilizers. Derived from industrial processes, these fertilizers primarily contain essential macronutrients: nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and potassium (K). *Advantages* include *Immediate nutrient availability*: Synthetic fertilizers are typically readily available to plants, ensuring quick nutrient uptake and promoting rapid growth. *Consistency*: Unlike organic fertilizers, which can have variable nutrient content, synthetic fertilizers maintain consistent nutrient ratios [21]. *Increased yields*: The introduction of synthetic fertilizers played a crucial role in escalating crop yields during the Green Revolution, addressing the food demands of a rapidly growing global population. *Disadvantages* include *Soil degradation*: Excessive use of synthetic fertilizers can lead to soil acidification and a decline in organic matter, compromising long-term soil fertility. *Environmental pollution*: Overapplication or mismanagement can result in nutrient runoff, contaminating water bodies and leading to eutrophication, a phenomenon where water bodies receive excess nutrients, leading to dense plant growth and death of animal life from lack of oxygen [22]. *Loss of soil biodiversity*: Prolonged use can negatively impact soil microbial communities, impairing essential soil processes.

Tilling, Monoculture, and Their Implications for Soil Health

Tilling: Traditional tillage involves the mechanical agitation of soil to prepare fields for planting and control weeds. While tilling can improve seed-soil contact and aerate soil, its repeated use has implications: *Soil erosion*: Exposing soil particles, especially on sloping terrains, makes them susceptible to erosion by wind and water [23]. *Degradation of soil structure*: Continual tilling disrupts soil aggregates, affecting water infiltration and root penetration. *Loss of organic matter*: Frequent tilling accelerates the decomposition of soil organic matter, leading to its rapid loss [24]. *Monoculture*: This practice involves growing a single crop species over extensive areas year after year. *Pest and disease vulnerability*: Continuous cultivation of one crop can intensify pest and disease problems, necessitating increased pesticide use [25]. *Nutrient imbalance*: Each

crop has specific nutrient needs. Persistent monoculture can result in the depletion of certain soil nutrients and the accumulation of others, disturbing the natural nutrient balance [26].

4. Organic Amendments

In recent years, as concerns about the sustainability of conventional agriculture grow, the focus has shifted towards practices that not only boost soil fertility but also restore soil health and ecosystem function. Organic amendments emerge as one of the primary solutions in this paradigm, combining the wisdom of ancient agricultural traditions with modern scientific understanding. These amendments, derived from plant or animal matter, have long been a cornerstone in traditional agricultural systems, providing a myriad of benefits beyond just nutrient supply. This overview delves deeply into organic amendments, examining their types, sources, and the critical role they play in soil fertility enhancement. Organic amendments are materials derived from living organisms – primarily plants, animals, or microbes – that are added to the soil to improve its physical properties, biological activity, and nutrient content. When organic materials decompose in the soil, they not only provide essential nutrients to plants but also influence other soil parameters beneficially, such as water retention capacity, aeration, and structure [27]. There are several types of organic amendments, each with unique properties:

Compost: A product of the controlled aerobic decomposition of organic matter. *Manures*: Derived from livestock and poultry wastes. *Biochar*: A type of charcoal produced through pyrolysis of organic materials, intended for application to soil. *Green manures*: Fast-growing crops that are incorporated into the soil for the purpose of soil improvement. *Cover crops*: Planted primarily to manage soil erosion, soil fertility, soil quality, water, weeds, pests, and biodiversity in an agroecosystem. Sources of Organic Amendments include Table 1

Compost: Composting transforms organic waste materials, such as food scraps, yard trimmings, or agricultural residues, into a stable humus-like product through microbial activity. Rich in organic matter and a diverse set of nutrients, compost helps improve soil structure, water retention, and microbial activity [28]. *Manures*: Animal manures, such as cow dung, poultry litter, or goat droppings, are age-old sources of organic amendments. Beyond their nutrient content, they add beneficial microorganisms and organic matter to the soil. However, their nutrient content varies based on the animal's diet, age, and the storage and handling of the manure [29]. *Biochar*: Produced by heating organic materials under limited oxygen conditions, biochar has gained attention for its long-lasting positive impacts on soil. Its porous nature improves soil's water retention capacity and provides habitats for soil microbes, and its inherent stability makes it a candidate for carbon sequestration [30]. *Green manures*: These are typically leguminous crops like clover or alfalfa grown and then plowed back into the soil. Rich in nitrogen and other nutrients, they enhance soil fertility while also suppressing weeds [31]. *Cover crops*: Crops like rye or buckwheat are grown not for harvest but to cover the soil. Their roots help prevent soil erosion, and when tilled back into the ground, they contribute organic matter and nutrients. Their ability to suppress weed growth is an added advantage [32].

Table 1: Approximate amounts of macronutrients present in some agricultural crops at harvest, in various livestock and poultry manures, industrial and municipal biosolids, expressed in g kg⁻¹ dry matter. (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>)

Source	Nutrient content g kg ⁻¹			Nutrient ratio
	N	P	K	N:P:K
Maize (<i>Zea mays</i> L.)	13.5	1.8	14.1	7.5:1:7.8
Wheat (<i>Triticum aestivum</i> L.)	12.4	1.3	13.8	9.5:1:10.6
Oat (<i>Avena sativa</i> L.)	9.0	1.8	16.9	5.0:1:9.4
Soybean (<i>Glycine max</i> L. Merr.)	31.7	3.8	15.4	8.4:1:4.1
Alfalfa (<i>Medicago sativa</i> L.)	39.9	3.3	29.3	12.1:1:8.9
Liquid manure, dairy cattle	3.5	0.8	2.4	4.3:1:3.0
Solid manure, beef cattle	7.4	2.4	5.7	3.1:1:2.4
Liquid manure, pig	4.0	1.3	1.8	3.1:1:1.4
Solid manure, poultry (layer)	19.3	8.9	8.0	2.2:1:0.9
Primary paper-mill sludge	1.7	0.4	0.6	4.3:1:1.5
Secondary paper-mill sludge	31.3	7.3	4.5	4.3:1:0.6
Municipal wastewater effluent (liquid)	34.0	7.3	1.1	4.7:1:0.2
Municipal wastewater effluent (aerobic)	1.2	0.6	0	2.0:1:0
Municipal wastewater effluent (anaerobic)	2.8	1.4	0	2.0:1:0
Municipal wastewater effluent (cake)	37.6	13.1	1.1	2.8:1:0.08
Composted effluent cake	13.0	24.0	0.5	0.5:1:0.02

Nutrient Profile and Role in Soil Fertility

Organic amendments stand apart from synthetic fertilizers due to their comprehensive nutrient profiles. Unlike synthetic fertilizers, which might only supply a few primary nutrients (like N, P, and K), organic amendments offer a wide array of macro and micronutrients, albeit in varying amounts based on the amendment type. Moreover, these amendments play a pivotal role in soil

fertility beyond mere nutrient supply. The decomposition of organic materials enhances soil organic matter, which, in turn, influences soil structure, making it more friable and enhancing its water retention capacity [33]. The organic matter also serves as a food source for a myriad of soil organisms – from bacteria and fungi to earthworms and insects. These organisms play an indispensable role in nutrient cycling, making them available to plants in forms they can uptake. This biological activity also aids in the formation of soil aggregates, which further improves soil structure [34]. Another key aspect of organic amendments is their capacity to improve the soil's cation exchange capacity (CEC). A higher CEC means the soil can hold onto more nutrients, reducing leaching and making them readily available to plants [35].

5. Benefits of Organic Amendments for Soil Health

A growing number of farmers, agronomists, and researchers worldwide have come to recognize the multidimensional benefits of incorporating organic amendments into soil management practices. Beyond the initial allure of nutrient replenishment, organic amendments serve as catalysts for several vital soil health improvements. Drawing from the latest research and empirical experiences, this exposition will underscore the critical benefits of using organic amendments for holistic soil health. At the heart of fertile soils is the organic matter - a vast reservoir of carbon, nutrients, and life. Organic amendments are pivotal in elevating soil organic matter (SOM) levels. By introducing decomposable organic materials, these amendments, once broken down, become part of the stable SOM, increasing its overall concentration [36]. Elevated SOM levels enhance the soil's nutrient-holding capacity, create better conditions for soil life, and improve overall soil fertility. The process of decay and transformation of organic materials introduced to the soil, driven by microbes and other soil biota, ensures the persistence of this organic matter for years, enriching the soil in the long run [37]. A well-structured soil is characterized by the presence of aggregates - small clumps of soil particles bound together. These aggregates form essential spaces (or pores) that facilitate the movement of air and water. Organic amendments, particularly compost and manures, help in forming and stabilizing these aggregates. As SOM levels rise due to organic amendment application, the resultant improvement in soil structure makes it less susceptible to compaction [38]. Soil compaction, a frequent menace in intensively cultivated fields, impedes root growth and water infiltration, making its mitigation crucial for crop productivity. A teaspoon of healthy soil is believed to contain billions of microbes, ranging from bacteria and fungi to protozoa and algae. These microbes play cardinal roles in nutrient cycling, organic matter decomposition, and disease suppression. Organic amendments serve as a food source for these microbes, thereby stimulating their activity. As the microbial population flourishes, the diversity within this community also tends to increase, leading to a more resilient soil ecosystem capable of withstanding perturbations [39]. Water scarcity, accentuated by changing climate patterns, necessitates practices that can improve soil's water-holding capacity. Organic amendments, by virtue of enhancing soil structure and organic matter content, bolster the soil's ability to retain water. This is particularly beneficial during periods of drought, ensuring that crops have a steady water

supply, thereby enhancing their drought resistance [40]. The menace of soil erosion strips land of its fertile topsoil, posing threats to long-term agricultural productivity. By improving soil structure and increasing its organic matter content, organic amendments enhance the soil's resistance to erosive forces, whether they be wind or water. A well-structured soil allows water to infiltrate rather than run off, reducing the chances of surface erosion [41]. A potent weapon in the fight against climate change is the sequestration of carbon in soils. Organic amendments, especially biochar, have shown significant potential in this regard. Biochar, being resistant to microbial decay, remains in the soil for hundreds to thousands of years, acting as a stable carbon pool. Additionally, other organic amendments, through their role in enhancing SOM, contribute to the sequestration of atmospheric carbon dioxide, a prominent greenhouse gas [42]. Moreover, healthier soils with diverse microbial populations can reduce emissions of other greenhouse gases like nitrous oxide, further underlining the role of organic amendments in climate change mitigation [43].

6. Role of Organic Amendments in Crop Yield and Quality

Organic amendments have long been associated with the restoration of soil health and the enhancement of environmental quality. However, their direct and indirect impacts on crop yield and quality are a focal point for both the scientific community and farmers. By delving into multiple dimensions of crop production, from yield quantity to nutrient quality, we can better understand the comprehensive influence of organic amendments. The debate over organic versus synthetic farming inputs has been fervent, fueled in part by concerns over global food security, environmental health, and human nutrition. In terms of yield, numerous studies suggest that, on average, organic farming systems produce slightly lower yields compared to conventional systems using synthetic inputs [44]. However, it is crucial to note that this yield gap is highly variable and often narrows under proper management practices, diverse cropping systems, and when long-term soil health is considered [45]. Yet, focusing solely on yield could be misleading. A holistic evaluation must also consider the environmental costs, including greenhouse gas emissions, water use efficiency, and biodiversity loss. Organic systems, due to their reliance on organic amendments and reduced synthetic inputs, often fare better in these environmental dimensions, highlighting a trade-off between immediate yield and long-term sustainability [46]. One of the lesser-discussed benefits of organic amendments is their potential role in bolstering plant defenses against diseases. Organic-rich soils often harbor a diverse community of beneficial microbes that can suppress or outcompete pathogenic organisms. For instance, certain species of mycorrhizal fungi, which thrive in organically amended soils, form symbiotic relationships with plants, improving their nutrient uptake and enhancing their resistance to certain diseases [47]. Soils rich in organic matter may produce plants with enhanced physiological resistance. The theory posits that plants grown in such soils experience mild stress, which triggers their natural defense mechanisms. When exposed to pathogens, these plants are better equipped to ward off infections compared to plants grown in soils primarily reliant on synthetic fertilizers [48]. Organically amended soils tend to have a complex soil food web,

ranging from bacteria and fungi to larger organisms like earthworms. This intricately woven web plays a crucial role in the slow release of nutrients as organic materials break down. The continuous supply of nutrients, instead of periodic spikes common with synthetic fertilizers, ensures that plants have a consistent nutrient source throughout their growth stages. Organic amendments, especially those rich in mycorrhizal fungi, aid in the formation of symbiotic relationships with plant roots. These fungi extend their hyphae into the soil, effectively increasing the root's reach and facilitating the uptake of essential nutrients like phosphorus and certain micronutrients otherwise unavailable to the plant [49]. One of the salient arguments made by proponents of organic farming is the superior taste and nutritional quality of organically grown produce. Studies have shown that certain crops grown under organic systems have higher concentrations of antioxidants, certain vitamins, and beneficial compounds compared to their conventionally grown counterparts [50]. These differences are attributed to the enhanced soil health and nutrient availability in organically managed soils. Furthermore, the taste, often subjective yet discernible, is believed to be better in organically grown produce. Although concrete scientific evidence on this is sparse, it's hypothesized that the rich microbial activity and balanced nutrient profile in organically amended soils contribute to the improved taste of crops.

7. Environmental Impacts of Organic Amendments

The incorporation of organic amendments into agricultural systems is not just about improving soil health or increasing crop yield; it has profound implications for the environment. As global conversations shift towards sustainable agricultural practices, understanding the environmental impacts both positive and negative of organic amendments is paramount. Agriculture contributes significantly to global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, notably methane (CH_4) and nitrous oxide (N_2O), both of which have a greater warming potential than carbon dioxide (CO_2). Organic amendments can play a critical role in modulating these emissions. One of the primary benefits of organic amendments is their ability to enhance soil organic carbon (SOC) stocks. Compost, manure, and other organic materials can lead to increased carbon sequestration in soils, offsetting CO_2 emissions. A study by Powlson [51] demonstrated that restoring soil organic carbon could sequester CO_2 from the atmosphere, acting as a potential mitigation strategy against climate change. However, the application of organic amendments can also lead to GHG emissions, particularly N_2O . This is because these amendments often contain readily available nitrogen, which can be converted to N_2O by soil microbes through nitrification and denitrification processes. But, with appropriate management practices and optimal application rates, the N_2O emissions from organic amendments can be minimized [52]. Water pollution from agricultural activities, primarily nitrate leaching and the runoff of phosphorus, is a global concern. Organic amendments, due to their slow-release nutrient properties, can significantly reduce the risk of nitrate leaching compared to synthetic fertilizers. Compost, for example, has a complex organic structure that slowly releases nutrients, ensuring that plants have a more consistent nutrient supply over time. This slow release minimizes the amount of surplus nitrogen in the soil, reducing the potential for leaching [53]. Similarly, organic amendments can enhance

soil structure, increasing its water-holding capacity. This not only reduces surface runoff which can carry pollutants like phosphorus—but also promotes the infiltration and percolation of water, reducing the risk of both erosion and groundwater contamination [54]. Soil is a teeming ecosystem, home to a quarter of the planet's biodiversity. Organic amendments can significantly boost both microbial and macroscopic life in the soil. Adding organic matter provides a food source for many soil organisms, from bacteria and fungi to earthworms and beetles. This, in turn, leads to a more complex soil food web, which can improve nutrient cycling, pest suppression, and overall soil structure. For instance, the introduction of organic amendments has been associated with increased populations of mycorrhizal fungi, which form beneficial relationships with plant roots and aid in nutrient uptake [55]. Above the ground, healthier soils can support a wider variety of plant species, which attracts a diverse range of insects, birds, and other wildlife, creating a more resilient and balanced ecosystem. While organic amendments offer numerous environmental benefits, they are not devoid of risks. One primary concern is the introduction of pathogens, especially when using animal manures. If not properly treated or composted, these amendments can introduce harmful bacteria like *E. coli* or *Salmonella* into the soil, which can be taken up by crops and pose health risks to consumers [56]. Some organic amendments, especially those derived from urban waste streams, might contain heavy metals like lead, cadmium, and arsenic. When introduced to soils, these metals can be taken up by plants, entering the food chain and causing health problems for consumers [57]. Finally, residual chemicals, particularly from herbicides or pesticides present in composted plant material, can pose risks. These chemicals might impact crop growth or leach into groundwater, affecting aquatic ecosystems.

8. Economic and Social Implications

In the global quest for sustainable agriculture, the viability of practices is often weighed by their economic and social implications. Organic amendments, in this context, present a complex web of benefits and challenges, influencing everything from the financial calculus of farming to societal perceptions about food. This comprehensive evaluation provides insights into these multifaceted implications. Economic viability is a primary consideration for any agricultural practice. When we juxtapose organic amendments with synthetic fertilizers, we tread into a nuanced comparison of direct costs, long-term benefits, and externalities. Direct costs are often higher for synthetic fertilizers. They are industrially manufactured, entailing significant energy and resource inputs. According to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), global fertilizer prices have seen sporadic spikes due to energy prices, transport costs, and market dynamics [58]. Organic amendments, on the other hand, are frequently seen as cost-effective alternatives, especially if sourced locally. Composting agricultural waste, using farmyard manure, or growing green manures can significantly reduce external input costs for farmers. However, there can be indirect costs associated, such as labor or infrastructure for composting. Yet, a narrow focus on direct costs can be misleading. When we factor in long-term soil health, the balance shifts. Organic amendments improve soil structure, enhance its water-holding capacity, and bolster its resilience against pests and diseases. These benefits can translate into reduced costs for

irrigation, pest management, and even medical expenses in areas where pesticide exposure is a concern. Finally, externalities the indirect costs borne by society and not directly by producers or consumers can't be ignored. Synthetic fertilizers contribute to greenhouse gas emissions, water pollution, and biodiversity loss. These environmental damages have economic consequences, which are often borne by communities or governments [59]. Organic amendments, in contrast, have the potential to sequester carbon, purify water, and foster biodiversity, creating positive externalities. Resilience in agriculture is about the capacity to absorb shocks and continue producing. Organic amendments, by virtue of enhancing soil health, provide a buffer against unpredictable weather patterns, especially crucial in the face of climate change. For instance, soils enriched with organic matter retain water better, offering some drought resistance. This not only ensures some level of crop yield but can also be the difference between economic survival and bankruptcy for many farmers, especially in vulnerable regions [60]. Diversifying inputs—relying on a mix of organic and synthetic or wholly organic—can reduce dependency on external markets, shielding farmers from price volatility. This economic stability can empower farmers, reducing debt-driven distress prevalent in many agricultural communities [61]. Smallholder farms, which make up the vast majority of farms globally, often have limited access to capital. For them, the cost-effective nature of organic amendments can be transformative. By utilizing on-farm resources like animal manure or crop residues, they can improve their soil without significant financial investments [62]. Large-scale agricultural systems, often driven by market dynamics, might find the transition to organic amendments challenging. The immediate returns of synthetic fertilizers, in terms of yield boosts, are enticing. Yet, as consumer demand shifts and environmental regulations tighten, even large-scale operations are finding value in integrating organic practices to ensure long-term soil health and market access [63]. The global surge in demand for organic products is not just a fad; it's reflective of deeper societal shifts towards health and sustainability. Consumers are increasingly willing to pay premiums for products perceived as natural, healthy, and environmentally friendly [64]. Organic amendments play a pivotal role in organic farming, which eschews synthetic inputs. As more research emerges on the health benefits of organic foods reduced pesticide residues, higher nutrient content, etc. the role of organic amendments in meeting market demands becomes paramount. Moreover, the story of food how it's grown, what goes into it matters to consumers. As narratives around soil health, sustainable agriculture, and carbon sequestration become mainstream, farmers using organic amendments not only find an economic edge but also align with societal values.

9. Challenges and Limitations of Organic Amendments

While the benefits of organic amendments in agriculture are evident, their widespread adoption is not devoid of challenges. Addressing these limitations requires an understanding of their complexity and the multifaceted nature of the obstacles at hand. One of the primary concerns with organic amendments is the inconsistency in quality and nutrient content. Unlike synthetic fertilizers, which have a standardized composition, organic amendments can vary greatly in their nutrient makeup depending on their source and method of preparation. For instance, compost

derived from plant residues will have a different nutrient profile than that derived from animal manure. Within the same category, cattle manure can differ from poultry or pig manure in its nutrient content. These variations make it challenging for farmers to predict the exact benefits they will derive from specific organic amendments, thereby affecting the efficiency of nutrient application to crops [65]. Access to quality organic amendments is a challenge for many farmers, particularly in areas where industrial agriculture dominates. In such settings, there might be a limited availability of organic materials suitable for composting or green manure cultivation. Scalability is another related issue. While smallholder farmers might have the means to produce their own compost or other organic amendments, it can be challenging to scale these practices to cater to vast acreages of industrial farms. These large-scale farms require significant amounts of amendments to maintain soil health, and sourcing them can be problematic, both logistically and economically [66]. With the lack of clear standards or guidelines on the application rates of organic amendments, there's a potential risk of over-application. This can lead to nutrient imbalances in the soil. For instance, the excessive use of poultry manure, rich in phosphorus, can lead to soil phosphorus accumulation, posing environmental risks and compromising the balance of other nutrients in the soil. Certain organic amendments may have a high salt content, which when applied excessively, can exacerbate soil salinity issues, hindering plant growth and impacting soil biota [67]. The use of organic amendments, particularly those derived from animal sources, has raised regulatory concerns in various jurisdictions due to the potential presence of pathogens, heavy metals, and other contaminants. These concerns stem from incidents where improperly treated organic amendments led to outbreaks of diseases like E. coli. To address these issues, there's a dire need for standardization in the production and application of organic amendments. Such standardization would entail guidelines on composting temperatures, duration, and turning frequency to ensure pathogen reduction. However, implementing and monitoring these standards, especially in developing countries with limited resources, presents a significant challenge [68]. Transitioning to organic amendment practices can be economically challenging for many farmers, particularly those entrenched in the cycle of synthetic fertilizer use. Initial costs include setting up composting infrastructures, purchasing quality organic materials, or investing in training and education. Additionally, farmers accustomed to the immediate yield boosts from synthetic fertilizers might perceive a lag in benefits when switching to organic amendments. This potential lag, combined with the costs of transition, can deter many from adopting these sustainable practices [69].

10. Future Trends and Opportunities

Organic amendments have been central to sustainable agricultural practices for centuries. Their role in enhancing soil health, improving crop yield, and mitigating environmental impacts is well-documented. As we advance into the 21st century, it is imperative to gaze into the future of organic amendments, highlighting emerging trends and opportunities that promise to reshape the agricultural landscape. The traditional techniques of producing organic amendments, though effective, often lack the scalability and precision needed for modern agriculture. Recent research

has shed light on innovative methods that can revolutionize the way organic amendments are produced and applied. For example, aerobic composting techniques, which are traditionally time-consuming, are now being expedited using controlled microbial inoculants. These microbial communities accelerate the decomposition of organic materials, leading to quicker compost maturity and enhanced nutrient content [70]. Innovations in application techniques, such as deep banding compost or manure, have shown promising results in increasing nutrient availability to plants, reducing surface runoff, and enhancing water retention in soil [71]. The potential of organic amendments is significantly amplified when integrated with other sustainable agricultural practices. For instance, combining organic amendments with conservation tillage can not only increase soil organic matter but also reduce soil erosion and enhance water retention [72].

Another promising integration is with agroforestry. Incorporating organic amendments in agroforestry systems can boost soil fertility, augmenting tree growth, and increasing crop yields. Moreover, such integrative practices can provide long-term carbon sequestration benefits, playing a crucial role in climate change mitigation. The dawn of the digital agriculture era has opened new avenues for precision farming. Sensors, drones, and data analytics can play a transformative role in organic amendment application. For instance, soil sensors can provide real-time data on nutrient content, pH, and moisture levels. Using this data, farmers can apply organic amendments with precision, ensuring that the soil receives the exact nutrients it requires [73]. Additionally, machine learning algorithms can predict the decomposition rates of different organic materials, helping farmers anticipate the release of nutrients and adjust their cropping practices accordingly. The global challenge of waste management offers a unique opportunity in the domain of organic amendments. Instead of viewing agricultural and municipal wastes as liabilities, they can be upcycled into valuable soil amendments. A notable example is the conversion of food waste into compost. With the global food waste estimated at over a billion tons annually, there's tremendous potential to convert this waste into nutrient-rich compost. Additionally, techniques like vermicomposting, where earthworms break down organic waste, can further enhance the quality of the compost derived from waste materials. Agro-industrial residues, such as rice husks and sugarcane bagasse, can be transformed into biochar – a stable carbon-rich material that not only improves soil fertility but also sequesters carbon, mitigating greenhouse gas emissions [74].

Conclusion

The increasing recognition of organic amendments' role in sustainable agriculture has underscored their multifaceted benefits, ranging from enhanced soil health to improved crop yield and mitigation of environmental impacts. As technological innovations intertwine with traditional agricultural practices, the potential to optimize organic amendment use through precision farming becomes more tangible. Embracing opportunities, such as upcycling waste materials, paves the way for a holistic approach to sustainable agriculture. However, despite the

myriad of advantages, challenges in scalability, standardization, and quality assurance persist. As the global community strives for food security, environmental conservation, and climate resilience, organic amendments stand as a pivotal tool, promising to be a linchpin in the evolution of sustainable farming for future generations.

References:

1. Alkorta, I., Aizpurua, A., Riga, P., Albizu, I., Amézaga, I., & Garbisu, C. (2003). Soil enzyme activities as biological indicators of soil health. *Reviews on environmental health*, 18(1), 65-73.
2. Hartemink, A. E. (2016). The definition of soil since the early 1800s. *Advances in Agronomy*, 137, 73-126.
3. Trivedi, P., Singh, B. P., & Singh, B. K. (2018). Soil carbon: Introduction, importance, status, threat, and mitigation. In *Soil carbon storage* (pp. 1-28). Academic Press.
4. Papendick, R. I., & Parr, J. F. (1992). Soil quality—the key to a sustainable agriculture. *American Journal of Alternative Agriculture*, 7(1-2), 2-3.
5. Raihan, A., Begum, R. A., Mohd Said, M. N., & Abdullah, S. M. S. (2019). A review of emission reduction potential and cost savings through forest carbon sequestration. *Asian Journal of Water, Environment and Pollution*, 16(3), 1-7.
6. Fitter, A. H., Gilligan, C. A., Hollingworth, K., Kleczkowski, A., Twyman, R. M., Pitchford, J. W., & Members of the Nerc Soil Biodiversity Programme. (2005). Biodiversity and ecosystem function in soil. *Functional Ecology*, 19(3), 369-377.
7. Lal, R. (2015). Restoring soil quality to mitigate soil degradation. *Sustainability*, 7(5), 5875-5895.
8. Kopittke, P. M., Menzies, N. W., Wang, P., McKenna, B. A., & Lombi, E. (2019). Soil and the intensification of agriculture for global food security. *Environment international*, 132, 105078.
9. Neina, D. (2019). The role of soil pH in plant nutrition and soil remediation. *Applied and environmental soil science*, 2019, 1-9.
10. Rahman, G. M., Rahman, M. M., Alam, M. S., Kamal, M. Z., Mashuk, H. A., Datta, R., & Meena, R. S. (2020). Biochar and organic amendments for sustainable soil carbon and soil health. *Carbon and nitrogen cycling in soil*, 45-85.
11. Thakur, N., Nigam, M., Mann, N. A., Gupta, S., Hussain, C. M., Shukla, S. K., ... & Khan, S. A. (2023). Host-mediated gene engineering and microbiome-based technology optimization for sustainable agriculture and environment. *Functional & Integrative Genomics*, 23(1), 57.
12. Bitew, Y., & Alemayehu, M. (2017). Impact of crop production inputs on soil health: a review. *Asian Journal Plant Science*, 16(3), 109-131.
13. Alkorta, I., Aizpurua, A., Riga, P., Albizu, I., Amézaga, I., & Garbisu, C. (2003). Soil enzyme activities as biological indicators of soil health. *Reviews on environmental health*, 18(1), 65-73.

14. Bünemann, E. K., Bongiorno, G., Bai, Z., Creamer, R. E., De Deyn, G., De Goede, R., ... & Brussaard, L. (2018). Soil quality—A critical review. *Soil biology and biochemistry*, 120, 105-125.
15. Hendrix, P. F., Crossley, D. A., Blair, J. M., & Coleman, D. C. (2020). Soil biota as components of sustainable agroecosystems. In *Sustainable agricultural systems* (pp. 637-654). CRC press.
16. Timmis, K., & Ramos, J. L. (2021). The soil crisis: the need to treat as a global health problem and the pivotal role of microbes in prophylaxis and therapy. *Microbial Biotechnology*, 14(3), 769-797.
17. Giller, K. E., Beare, M. H., Lavelle, P., Izac, A. M., & Swift, M. J. (1997). Agricultural intensification, soil biodiversity and agroecosystem function. *Applied soil ecology*, 6(1), 3-16.
18. Ayars, J. E., Christen, E. W., & Hornbuckle, J. W. (2006). Controlled drainage for improved water management in arid regions irrigated agriculture. *agricultural water management*, 86(1-2), 128-139.
19. Vanlauwe, B. (2004). Integrated soil fertility management research at TSBF: the framework, the principles, and their application. *Managing nutrient cycles to sustain soil fertility in sub-Saharan Africa*, 25-42.
20. Amare, D., Wondie, M., Mekuria, W., & Darr, D. (2019). Agroforestry of smallholder farmers in Ethiopia: practices and benefits. *Small-scale Forestry*, 18, 39-56.
21. Liu, M., Hu, F., Chen, X., Huang, Q., Jiao, J., Zhang, B., & Li, H. (2009). Organic amendments with reduced chemical fertilizer promote soil microbial development and nutrient availability in a subtropical paddy field: The influence of quantity, type and application time of organic amendments. *Applied Soil Ecology*, 42(2), 166-175.
22. Mee, L. (2006). Reviving dead zones. *Scientific American*, 295(5), 78-85.
23. Blanco-Canqui, H., Lal, R., Blanco-Canqui, H., & Lal, R. (2008). Soil and water conservation. *Principles of soil conservation and management*, 1-19.
24. Álvaro-Fuentes, J., López, M. V., Cantero-Martínez, C., & Arrúe, J. L. (2008). Tillage effects on soil organic carbon fractions in Mediterranean dryland agroecosystems. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 72(2), 541-547.
25. Lithourgidis, A. S., Dordas, C. A., Damalas, C. A., & Vlachostergios, D. (2011). Annual intercrops: an alternative pathway for sustainable agriculture. *Australian journal of crop science*, 5(4), 396-410.
26. Bennett, A. J., Bending, G. D., Chandler, D., Hilton, S., & Mills, P. (2012). Meeting the demand for crop production: the challenge of yield decline in crops grown in short rotations. *Biological reviews*, 87(1), 52-71.
27. Muscolo, A., Sidari, M., & Mercurio, R. (2007). Influence of gap size on organic matter decomposition, microbial biomass and nutrient cycle in Calabrian pine (*Pinus laricio*, Poiret) stands. *Forest Ecology and Management*, 242(2-3), 412-418.
28. Cooperband, L. R. (2000). Composting: art and science of organic waste conversion to a valuable soil resource. *Laboratory medicine*, 31(5), 283-290.

29. Ribaudó, M., Kaplan, J. D., Christensen, L. A., Gollehon, N., Johansson, R., Breneman, V. E., ... & Peters, M. (2003). Manure management for water quality costs to animal feeding operations of applying manure nutrients to land. *USDA-ERS Agricultural Economic Report*, (824).
30. Aslam, Z., Khalid, M., & Aon, M. (2014). Impact of biochar on soil physical properties. *Scholarly Journal of Agricultural Science*, 4(5), 280-284.
31. Brust, G. E. (2019). Management strategies for organic vegetable fertility. In *Safety and practice for organic food* (pp. 193-212). Academic Press.
32. Kort, J., Collins, M., & Ditsch, D. (1998). A review of soil erosion potential associated with biomass crops. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 14(4), 351-359.
33. Obour, P. B., Lamandé, M., Edwards, G., Sørensen, C. G., & Munkholm, L. J. (2017). Predicting soil workability and fragmentation in tillage: a review. *Soil Use and Management*, 33(2), 288-298.
34. Shepherd, M. A., Harrison, R., & Webb, J. (2002). Managing soil organic matter—implications for soil structure on organic farms. *Soil use and Management*, 18, 284-292.
35. Major, J., Steiner, C., Downie, A., & Lehmann, J. (2012). Biochar effects on nutrient leaching. In *Biochar for environmental management* (pp. 303-320). Routledge.
36. Dungait, J. A., Hopkins, D. W., Gregory, A. S., & Whitmore, A. P. (2012). Soil organic matter turnover is governed by accessibility not recalcitrance. *Global Change Biology*, 18(6), 1781-1796.
37. Ekschmitt, K., Liu, M., Vetter, S., Fox, O., & Wolters, V. (2005). Strategies used by soil biota to overcome soil organic matter stability—why is dead organic matter left over in the soil?. *Geoderma*, 128(1-2), 167-176.
38. Pulleman, M., Jongmans, A., Marinissen, J., & Bouma, J. (2003). Effects of organic versus conventional arable farming on soil structure and organic matter dynamics in a marine loam in the Netherlands. *Soil Use and Management*, 19(2), 157-165.
39. She, W., Bai, Y., Zhang, Y., Qin, S., Feng, W., Sun, Y., ... & Wu, B. (2018). Resource availability drives responses of soil microbial communities to short-term precipitation and nitrogen addition in a desert shrubland. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 9, 186.
40. Prescott, C. E. (2010). Litter decomposition: what controls it and how can we alter it to sequester more carbon in forest soils?. *Biogeochemistry*, 101, 133-149.
41. Dontsova, K., & Norton, L. D. (1999, May). Effects of exchangeable Ca: Mg ratio on soil clay flocculation, infiltration and erosion. In *Sustaining the global farm. Selected papers from the 10 th International Soil Conservation Organisation Meeting. Purdue University and the USDA-ARS National Soil Erosion Research Laboratory* (pp. 580-585).
42. Sarfraz, R., Hussain, A., Sabir, A., Ben Fekih, I., Ditta, A., & Xing, S. (2019). Role of biochar and plant growth promoting rhizobacteria to enhance soil carbon sequestration—A review. *Environmental monitoring and assessment*, 191, 1-13.
43. Bhattacharyya, P., Nayak, A. K., Mohanty, S., Tripathi, R., Shahid, M., Kumar, A., ... & Rao, K. S. (2013). Greenhouse gas emission in relation to labile soil C, N pools and functional microbial diversity as influenced by 39 years long-term fertilizer management in tropical rice. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 129, 93-105.

44. Badgley, C., Moghtader, J., Quintero, E., Zakem, E., Chappell, M. J., Aviles-Vazquez, K., ... & Perfecto, I. (2007). Organic agriculture and the global food supply. *Renewable agriculture and food systems*, 22(2), 86-108.
45. Affholder, F., Poeydebat, C., Corbeels, M., Scopel, E., & Tittone, P. (2013). The yield gap of major food crops in family agriculture in the tropics: Assessment and analysis through field surveys and modelling. *Field Crops Research*, 143, 106-118.
46. Seufert, V., & Ramankutty, N. (2017). Many shades of gray—The context-dependent performance of organic agriculture. *Science advances*, 3(3), e1602638.
47. Pal, A., & Pandey, S. (2014). Role of glomalin in improving soil fertility. *International journal of plant and soil science*, 3, 112-29.
48. Altieri, M. A., & Nicholls, C. I. (2003). Soil fertility management and insect pests: harmonizing soil and plant health in agroecosystems. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 72(2), 203-211.
49. Teotia, P., Kumar, M., Prasad, R., Kumar, V., Tuteja, N., & Varma, A. (2017). Mobilization of micronutrients by mycorrhizal fungi. *Mycorrhiza-function, diversity, state of the art*, 9-26.
50. Crinnion, W. J. (2010). Organic foods contain higher levels of certain nutrients, lower levels of pesticides, and may provide health benefits for the consumer. *Alternative Medicine Review*, 15(1).
51. Powlson, D. S., Whitmore, A. P., & Goulding, K. W. (2011). Soil carbon sequestration to mitigate climate change: a critical re-examination to identify the true and the false. *European Journal of Soil Science*, 62(1), 42-55.
52. Lazcano, C., Zhu-Barker, X., & Decock, C. (2021). Effects of organic fertilizers on the soil microorganisms responsible for N₂O emissions: A review. *Microorganisms*, 9(5), 983.
53. Shaviv, A., & Mikkelsen, R. L. (1993). Controlled-release fertilizers to increase efficiency of nutrient use and minimize environmental degradation—A review. *Fertilizer research*, 35, 1-12.
54. Charlesworth, S. M., Harker, E., & Rickard, S. (2003). A review of sustainable drainage systems (SuDS): A soft option for hard drainage questions?. *Geography*, 99-107.
55. Gosling, P., Hodge, A., Goodlass, G., & Bending, G. D. (2006). Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and organic farming. *Agriculture, ecosystems & environment*, 113(1-4), 17-35.
56. Charlesworth, S. M., Harker, E., & Rickard, S. (2003). A review of sustainable drainage systems (SuDS): A soft option for hard drainage questions?. *Geography*, 99-107.
57. Sarma, H., Deka, S., Deka, H., & Saikia, R. R. (2011). Accumulation of heavy metals in selected medicinal plants. *Reviews of environmental contamination and toxicology*, 63-86.
58. Horrigan, L., Lawrence, R. S., & Walker, P. (2002). How sustainable agriculture can address the environmental and human health harms of industrial agriculture. *Environmental health perspectives*, 110(5), 445-456.
59. Bennett, N. J., Blythe, J., White, C. S., & Campero, C. (2021). Blue growth and blue justice: Ten risks and solutions for the ocean economy. *Marine Policy*, 125, 104387.

60. Eakin, H., Tucker, C., & Castellanos, E. (2006). Responding to the coffee crisis: a pilot study of farmers' adaptations in Mexico, Guatemala and Honduras. *Geographical Journal*, 172(2), 156-171.
61. Bollier, D. (2020). Commoning as a transformative social paradigm. In *The new systems reader* (pp. 348-361). Routledge.
62. Bollier, D. (2020). Commoning as a transformative social paradigm. In *The new systems reader* (pp. 348-361). Routledge.
63. Bocken, N. M., Short, S. W., Rana, P., & Evans, S. (2014). A literature and practice review to develop sustainable business model archetypes. *Journal of cleaner production*, 65, 42-56.
64. Nandi, R., Bokelmann, W., Gowdru, N. V., & Dias, G. (2017). Factors influencing consumers' willingness to pay for organic fruits and vegetables: Empirical evidence from a consumer survey in India. *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, 23(4), 430-451.
65. Petersen, S. O., Sommer, S. G., Béline, F., Burton, C., Dach, J., Dourmad, J. Y., ... & Mihelic, R. (2007). Recycling of livestock manure in a whole-farm perspective. *Livestock science*, 112(3), 180-191.
66. Vanlauwe, B., & Giller, K. E. (2006). Popular myths around soil fertility management in sub-Saharan Africa. *Agriculture, ecosystems & environment*, 116(1-2), 34-46.
67. Bello, S. K., Alayafi, A. H., Al-Solaimani, S. G., & Abo-Elyousr, K. A. (2021). Mitigating soil salinity stress with gypsum and bio-organic amendments: A review. *Agronomy*, 11(9), 1735.
68. Wichuk, K. M., & McCartney, D. (2007). A review of the effectiveness of current time-temperature regulations on pathogen inactivation during composting. *Journal of Environmental Engineering and Science*, 6(5), 573-586.
69. Duflo, E., Kremer, M., & Robinson, J. (2011). Nudging farmers to use fertilizer: Theory and experimental evidence from Kenya. *American economic review*, 101(6), 2350-2390.
70. Li, S., Zhang, J., Ji, C., Gu, W., Li, R., & Zou, J. (2017). Effects of inoculation of complex microbial inoculants on the process and greenhouse gas (CH₄ and N₂O) emissions of cattle manure aerobic composting. *Journal of Nanjing Agricultural University*, 40(6), 1041-1050.
71. Das, S. K., Ghosh, G. K., & Avasthe, R. (2020). Application of biochar in agriculture and environment, and its safety issues. *Biomass Conversion and Biorefinery*, 1-11.
72. Ding, Z., Kheir, A. M., Ali, O. A., Hafez, E. M., ElShamey, E. A., Zhou, Z., ... & Seleiman, M. F. (2021). A vermicompost and deep tillage system to improve saline-sodic soil quality and wheat productivity. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 277, 111388.
73. Mutyalamma, A. V., Yoshitha, G., Dakshyani, A., & Padmavathi, B. V. (2020). Smart Agriculture to Measure Humidity Temperature Moisture Ph. and Nutrient Values of the Soil using IoT. *International Journal of Engineering and Advanced Technology (IJEAT)*, 9(5).
74. Sarkar, A., Ranjan, A., & Paul, B. (2019). Synthesis, characterization and application of surface-modified biochar synthesized from rice husk, an agro-industrial waste for the removal of hexavalent chromium from drinking water at near-neutral pH. *Clean Technologies and Environmental Policy*, 21, 447-462.