

Building Soil Health and Fertility through Organic Amendments and Practices: A Review

Abstract:

Soil health and quality are foundational to agricultural sustainability and meeting global food security priorities. However, intensive farming practices have degraded soil ecosystems. Organic amendments and regenerative management practices can restore soil function by overcoming nutritional limitations, improving physical and biological properties, and promoting general soil and crop resilience. This review synthesizes research on major sources of organic soil amendments including animal manures, composts, cover crops, crop residues and living mulches. We describe their multifaceted edaphic and agronomic benefits from providing a slow release bank of macro and micronutrients, increasing soil organic matter, and stimulating beneficial microbial communities. Complementary and synergistic soil building practices are also covered, encompassing conservation tillage techniques like no-till, crop diversification via rotations and intercropping, and agroecological integration of trees and livestock. Although transitioning from degraded conventional systems requires patience as years of soil regeneration are needed to enable high system performance, outcomes consistently show integrated practices that minimize disturbance and maintain living ground cover while leveraging organic inputs can transform the foundation of agricultural systems by enhancing soil ecosystem function. Widespread adoption of this soil health paradigm can thereby enable sustainable intensification and resilience.

Keywords: Soil Quality, Organic Agriculture, Regenerative Farming, Agroecosystems, Agricultural Sustainability

Introduction

Soil health and fertility are foundational to sustainable agriculture and food production. As the world's population continues to grow, placing increasing demands on agricultural lands, maintaining and enhancing soil quality is critical. Industrialized agriculture has relied heavily on synthetic fertilizers and pesticides to maximize yields, but these practices come at an environmental and health cost that is prompting many farmers to shift toward organic practices aimed at long-term soil vitality. Organic amendments and regenerative techniques show tremendous promise for building healthy, fertile soils while also sequestering carbon, increasing nutrient and water efficiency, reducing erosion and runoff, and promoting biodiversity above and below the soil surface.

Soil quality encompasses chemical, physical and biological factors which together contribute to soil productivity and plant health (1). Two key indicators of soil quality are organic matter content and biological activity and diversity (2). Soil organic matter plays numerous beneficial roles, including retaining nutrients and moisture, binding particles into stable aggregates, facilitating gas exchange, fostering soil biota, and contributing plant-available nutrients upon decomposition (3). An abundance and diversity of soil organisms, like mycorrhizal fungi and nutrient-cycling bacteria, also promote soil health through decomposition of organic matter, nutrient mobilization and retention, soil aggregation, and disease suppression (4). Management decisions related to organic amendments, cover cropping, compost and compost tea applications, reduced tillage, and plant diversity all influence soil quality over both short and long time spans.

Building soil organic matter is a central aim and outcome of organic soil health practices. Plant residues, animal manures, compost, and other carbon-based soil amendments fuel soil microbes and

fauna while enhancing moisture and nutrient retention and binding properties (5). In the face of rising inorganic fertilizer costs and environmental impacts, optimizing and sustaining soil organic matter offers farmers natural fertility derived from organic nutrient cycling instead of costly external inputs with substantial embedded energy costs (6). Increasing soil carbon content not only enhances productivity but also mitigates climate change through carbon sequestration and reduced nitrous oxide emissions (7).

Compost and animal manures have long been used as organic amendments, providing a slow-release source of nutrients along with organic matter and microbial populations (8). More concentrated organic amendments like bone, blood, and feather meal can strategically supply nutrients like nitrogen and phosphorus. Allowing lands to rest in cover crops or pasture through crop rotations supplies renewable organic matter. Minimal tillage helps stabilize soil aggregates while reducing carbon losses. Integrating livestock with crops supports nutrient cycling. Taken all together, these organic techniques aim to feed soils more than plants, harnessing natural biological processes to sustain fertility.

Soil biological fertility derives from the soil food web – the complex community of organisms living all or part of their lives in the soil (9). These organisms interact in dynamic ways to cycle nutrients and contribute to soil structure and plant health through symbiotic relationships with roots. Mycorrhizal associations between plant roots and soil fungi aid plants in nutrient and water uptake in exchange for carbohydrates from photosynthesis (10). Nitrogen fixation carried out by rhizobium bacteria associated with legume roots makes atmospheric nitrogen biologically available to plants. Earthworms, arthropods, and other fauna mix and aerate soils while fragmenting residues and regulating microbial populations. Fungi and bacteria mineralize organic matter and release nutrients through decomposition. This biodiversity is self-reinforcing – organic matter feeds soil biota while an abundance and diversity of organisms maintains the soil system.

Although synthetic fertilizers and pesticides can quickly correct apparent deficiencies, over time these interventions impair biological components that regulate longer-term fertility and plant health (11). Organic techniques aim to nurture soil organism biodiversity through reduced tillage, organic matter additions, and decreased pesticide/fungicide applications (12). Balancing nutrients through organic sources tailored to soil tests helps avoid skewing soil biology. Allowing soils to rest and recharge through pasture or cover crop rotations contributes renewable organic matter to fuel the soil food web. By managing soils as living systems, organic practices leverage complex biological processes to sustain productivity.

In recent decades, scientific understanding of relationships between soil health, plant disease suppression, and stable crop yields has advanced considerably, clarifying mechanisms behind observations that organically managed soils often produce comparable or higher yields (13). Disease-suppressive soils develop through organic matter incorporation, reduced tillage, and decreased fungicide applications (14). These conditions foster general suppression from competitive microflora as well as specific suppression through antibiotics, parasite-host interactions and other quorum sensing effects (15). Mycorrhizae also play important roles protecting plants against soil-borne diseases (16). Building disease suppression and beneficial microbial associations enhances soil health while reducing pest pressure on crops (17).

Organic systems further emphasize working with natural ecological relationships, using crop rotations, timing of plantings, and interplanting of compatible species to control pests and diseases through biological synergies (18). Diverse rotations, cover crops and interplantings foster biodiversity above and below ground, protecting against losses to single pest pressures. Synergies like the “Three Sisters” planting of corn, beans and squash used by North American tribes optimize yields while balancing nutrients across crops. Maximizing beneficial ecological relationships minimizes external inputs, saving costs while protecting environmental quality.

Scientific studies consistently find organically managed soils to have significantly higher biological activity and biomass, notably of mycorrhizal fungi, earthworms and other fauna (19). Organically managed soils also exhibit improved soil structure and moisture infiltration due to higher stable aggregate content and biological binding of soil particles (20). Besides stabilizing soils, aggregates protect soil carbon and organic nitrogen from microbial decay (21). Combined with reduced tillage, stable aggregates decrease risks of erosion and nutrient losses while increasing rainfall capture and retention.

In addition to fostering soil biota, attributes like cation exchange capacity, micronutrient availability and pH balance contribute importantly to biologically-mediated soil health and fertility (22). Organic practices aim to feed soil biology while maintaining ideal physical and chemical properties through organic matter additions, micronutrient inputs, and pH amendments like lime and sulfur (23). Organic standards prohibit highly soluble synthetic fertilizers which can disrupt soil balance and leach into waterways, leading to eutrophication and dead zones. Selective use of concentrated natural inputs like fish emulsions and seaweed extracts provide bioavailable nutrients without environmental side effects. By balancing soil nutrients and biology, organically managed soils maintain productivity while conserving resources and protecting ecosystems.

Improving soil health and fertility through organic techniques holds tremendous potential to sustainably intensify agriculture on existing lands while also tapping agriculture’s potential to mitigate climate change through carbon sequestration (24). Increased crop yields, drought resilience and cost savings from enhancing biological soil processes are added benefits spurring wider adoption of organic practices (25). Realizing agriculture’s role in balancing environmental impacts and food production is vital to meeting rising 21st century demands sustainably. As scientific consensus grows around relationships between soil health, natural disease and pest regulation, water and nutrient efficiency, and ultimately crop yields, organic amendments and regenerative practices present proven means for farmers to enhance productivity while benefiting society through climate change mitigation and reduced pollution.

2.1. Definition and Concept of Soil Health

Soil health refers to the ability of soil to function as a living ecosystem that sustains plants, animals, and humans. Healthy soils maintain a diverse community of soil organisms that help to control plant disease, insect and weed pests, form beneficial symbiotic associations with plant roots, recycle essential plant nutrients, improve soil structure with positive repercussions for soil water and nutrient holding capacity, and ultimately improve crop production (26).

Soil health is evaluated in terms of the following characteristics (27):

Capacity of soil to accept, hold, and release nutrients to plants and soil organisms
 Presence of a diverse community of beneficial soil organisms (bacteria and fungi)
 Good soil structure allowing movement of air and water
 Capacity of soil to suppress disease causing organisms and pests
 Resilience to management disturbances and environmental stresses
 The concept of soil health emphasizes evaluating and managing soils as living systems by providing optimum conditions for crop growth, including managing organic matter, disturbing the soil as little as possible, keeping soils covered, and promoting biodiversity through crop rotation and cover crops (28).

Table 1. Key indicators of soil health

Physical Indicators	Chemical Indicators	Biological Indicators
Soil structure	Soil organic matter	Microbial biomass carbon and nitrogen

Infiltration/water holding capacity	Soil pH	Soil microbial community diversity
Bulk density	Plant available nutrients (N, P, K)	Potentially mineralizable nitrogen
Water stability of soil aggregates	Cation exchange capacity	Soil respiration
Porosity	Soil enzyme activities	Mycorrhizal colonization
Texture and depth of topsoil		

Physical Indicators Infiltration/water holding capacity Bulk density Water stability of soil aggregates Porosity Texture and depth of topsoil
Chemical Indicators Soil pH Plant available nutrients (N, P, K) Cation exchange capacity
Biological Indicators Soil microbial community diversity Potentially mineralizable nitrogen Soil respiration Mycorrhizal colonization

2.2. Significance for Agricultural Productivity and Sustainability

Soil health and fertility are key determinants of agricultural productivity and sustainability. Healthy soils provide essential nutrients for optimal plant growth and crop yields, and also enable long-term sustainability of farming through properties like water holding capacity, resistance to erosion, and biological pest suppression (29). Maintaining and enhancing soil health is fundamental to meet global food security needs and for sustainable intensification required to produce more food with reduced environmental impacts (30).

Some key ecosystem services provided by healthy soils are (31):

Provision of nutrients, water retention, and anchorage for plants Regulation of water flow and storage Filtering and buffering against pollutants entering water and air Storage of carbon to mitigate greenhouse gas emissions Support biodiversity of soil organisms critical to nutrient cycling and pest regulation Declining soil health and quality is a growing threat, with FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization) estimating up to 40% of global agricultural soils degraded to some extent (32). Soil health degradation negatively impacts agricultural productivity via mechanisms like:

- (1) Reduced nutrient availability: lower soil organic matter reduces reserves of nitrogen and other nutrients
- (2) Poor soil structure: compaction and lack of aggregation impedes root penetration and growth
- (3) Increased erosion: loss of fertile topsoil and inability to retain moisture
- (4) Increased pests: lower biological diversity weakens natural pest suppression

Diminished soil health therefore threatens long term productivity, sustainability, and resilience of agriculture in the context of intensification needed to meet future food demands (33). This highlights the critical importance of building healthy agricultural soils through adoption of appropriate soil amendments and management practices.

2.3. Organic Amendments for Improving Soil Health

Application of organic amendments is a key strategy to enhance soil health by overcoming nutrient deficiencies, improving physical and biological properties like structure and microbial activity, and

combating issues like compaction (34). Sources of organic amendments commonly used in agriculture include:

Animal manures: Manures contain all essential plant nutrients, improve soil structure and cation exchange capacity, and increase populations of beneficial soil microbes. Limitations are bulky to transport and apply.

Compost: Aerobically decomposed organic matter that releases nutrients slowly. Compost enhances nutrient retention, improves soil structure, increases microbial biomass and diversity.

Cover crops and crop residues: Growing non-cash crops helps conserve soil and water, suppress weeds and pests, captures nutrients that may otherwise leach, and contributes organic matter upon decomposition. Limitation is reduction of land allocated to main crop.

Biochar: Charcoal produced through pyrolysis that persists in soil for hundreds of years. Biochar increases nutrient retention, enhances soil structure, raises pH, improves water holding capacity. Expensive to produce which limits adoption.

Vermicompost: Organic matter processed through earthworm digestion. Contains plant available nutrients and beneficial microbes, enhances germination and plant growth. Limited by production capacity.

Organic amendments replenish soil organic matter which serves as a reservoir of nutrients like nitrogen, improves soil structure to enhance root growth and prevent erosion, increases microbial biomass and diversity in soil food webs critical to nutrient cycling, and facilitates greater water retention (35). These mechanisms translate into healthier more productive agricultural soils.

2.4. Soil Management Practices Supporting Soil Health

In addition to organic amendments, adopting sustainable soil management practices helps protect and enhance agricultural soil health by minimizing disturbance and loss of soil while bolstering biological processes (36). Recommended management practices include:

Conservation tillage: Reducing or eliminating tillage decreases soil erosion and nutrient loss while preserving soil organic matter. No-till systems further benefit soil biological activity and structure.

Crop rotations: Rotating grains with legumes or pasture grass every 3-5 years avoids disease/pest buildups, balances nutrient demands across seasons, and protects soil from erosion.

Cover cropping: Planting legumes, grasses or brassicas during fallow periods or intercropped prevents soil exposure, fixes nitrogen, and may reduce disease/pests. Also helps conserve soil moisture and organic matter.

Controlled traffic: Restricting machinery loads to permanent lanes minimizes soil compaction while undisturbed inter-rows benefit soil biology and structure. Avoiding traffic on wet soils is particularly important.

Integrated pest management (IPM): An ecosystem-based strategy using monitoring to determine need-based applications of biological, physical and chemical pest treatments with emphasis on minimal use of chemicals. Helps protect biodiversity.

Taken collectively, these practices reinforce sustainable soil management to maintain productivity while conserving resources. Government policies aimed at incentivizing farmers to adopt soil-conserving practices through financial and technical support can help overcome barriers to widespread implementation (37).

3. Organic Amendments for Improving Soil Health

3.1. Animal Manures - Types, Benefits and Challenges

Animal manures refer to feces and urine excreted by livestock that can be applied as organic soil amendments. Common types of manures used in agriculture include (38):

Table 2. Major Types of Animal Manures Used as Soil Amendments

Manure Type	Key Plant Nutrients
Cattle	Nitrogen, Phosphorus
Poultry	Nitrogen, Phosphorus
Swine	Nitrogen, Phosphorus
Sheep	Nitrogen, Phosphorus
Horse	Nitrogen, Phosphorus
Rabbit	Nitrogen, Phosphorus

Benefits of animal manures as organic amendments:

- Source of major plant nutrients like nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium (39)
- Improves soil structure, aeration and moisture retention (40)
- Supplies organic matter for water holding capacity
- Provides range of micronutrients (Cu, Zn, Mn etc.)
- Introduces beneficial microorganisms that enhance nutrient cycling and disease suppression (41)
- Environmentally friendly fertilizer source that reduces reliance on chemicals

However some key challenges with using animal manures as amendments are (42):

- Bulky and costly to transport and apply over large areas
- Nutrient ratios may not match crop demands
- Odors associated with application and storage
- Potential water contamination with excess application
- Food safety issues with raw manures - require treatment before growing food crops
- Weed seeds and pathogens may be introduced

Despite challenges, animal manures remain widely used organic amendments to enhance soil health and productivity by overcoming nutrient limitations and improving physical, chemical and biological soil properties.

3.2. Composts - Feedstocks, Quality and Benefits

Compost refers to decomposed organic matter produced by controlled, predominantly aerobic processing. Composting stabilizes nutrients and reduces volume of organic materials like manures, crop residues, food scraps etc to produce a soil conditioner and slow-release fertilizer (43). Common compost feedstock sources include:

Table 3. Major Feedstock Sources Used for Compost Production

Feedstock Category	Specific Materials
Crop residues	Straw, stalks, leaves, pomace
Animal manures	Cattle, poultry, horse, swine
Food scraps	Fruits, vegetables, grains
Yard trimmings	Grass clippings, leaves
Forestry materials	Sawdust, wood chips
Biosolids	Treated sewage sludge

Quality considerations for composts include (44):

- Maturity index based on temperature and CO₂ evolution
- Nutrient content - N, P, K and micronutrients
- Carbon to nitrogen ratio
- Contaminants - heavy metals, plastic, glass
- Stability and degree of decomposition

Benefits of high quality composts as soil amendments:

- Slow nutrient release improves synchrony with crop needs (45)
- Enhances moisture retention and soil structure
- Increases soil organic matter and microbial populations/activity
- Improves cation exchange and nutrient holding capacities
- Can suppress soil-borne diseases that limit crop growth
- Environmentally sustainable fertilizer alternative

With increasing global volumes of organic wastes and biomass byproducts, recycling these materials through quality-controlled composting provides opportunities to produce organic amendments that enhance soil health while supporting circular economy principles.

3.3. Cover Crops and Green Manures - Types and Benefits

Cover crops and green manures refer to crops grown primarily to improve and protect soil health rather than for harvest. Cover crops are grown between production cycles of main crops while green manures are grown concurrently and plowed into soil. Major types include (46):

Table 4. Common Cover Crop and Green Manure Species

Cover Crop Type	Example Species
Legumes	Clovers, vetches, peas
Grasses	Rye, oats, wheat

Cover Crop Type	Example Species
Brassicac	Radish, turnips, mustards

Key benefits to soil health:

- Fix atmospheric nitrogen (legumes) otherwise limiting in soils (47)
- Scavenge and recycle nutrients that could leach from soil
- Reduce erosion by protecting soil surface from wind/rain impacts
- Increase soil organic matter and improve structure upon decomposition
- Suppress weeds, insects and disease causing pathogens (48)
- Increase biodiversity promoting beneficial organisms

However, challenges with cover crops/green manures are (49):

- Additional inputs (seed, labor) add costs not recouped by harvest
- Moisture use could limit water available to subsequent cash crops
- Nutrient immobilization possible if C:N ratio very wide
- Choosing optimal species adapted to environment/system

Despite challenges, integrating cover crops and green manures into cropping sequences is a proven strategy to bolster soil health and productivity while reducing reliance on synthetic fertilizers and pesticides (50).

3.4. Mulches and Crop Residues - Contributions to Soil Health

Mulches refer to materials applied over soil surfaces to conserve moisture, suppress weeds and moderate soil temperatures. Organic mulches decompose over time to provide nutrients and improve soil structure. Crop residues are plant parts left after harvest or pruning. Using mulches and retaining crop residues protects and enhances soil health through (51):

Table 5. Mechanisms by which Mulches and Crop Residues Improve Soil Health

Benefits	Details
Erosion control	Mulch absorbs raindrop impact and reduces dislodging of soil particles by wind and water
Moisture conservation	Reduces evaporation from soil surface resulting in greater water availability for crops
Weed suppression	Physical barrier blocks light preventing germination and growth of weeds
Temperature moderation	Insulating effect prevents extreme high and low soil temperatures
Organic matter contribution	Breakdown over time increases reserves of stable organic matter in soil
Nutrient recycling	Mineralization during decay releases plant essential nutrients like nitrogen and phosphorus

However potential challenges with using mulches and retaining crop residues are (52):

- High carbon residues can immobilize nitrogen limiting crop availability in short term
- Physical barriers could harbor slugs, rodents and other crop pests
- Additional expense if purchasing and transporting mulch materials
- Could interfere with planting and harvest operations if crop residues excessive

Integrated Organic Practices for Building Soil Health

4.1. Crop Rotations

Crop rotations are essential organic practices for improving soil health and fertility. Rotating crops from different plant families interrupts pest and disease cycles, increases soil biodiversity, and balances nutrient demands (1, 2). Thoughtfully designed rotations also enhance soil structure, microbial communities, and water retention over time (3, 4). Key considerations when planning crop rotations include the number and sequence of crops, choice of cover crops and green manures, and inclusion of perennial phases (5-7).

Implementing diverse crop rotations with 4-8 different crops grown over 4+ years is ideal (8, 9). Rotating between grass, legume, and brassica families ensures a wide range of root structures and depths that maintain soil porosity (10-12). Including deeprooted crops also promotes subsurfacenutrient cycling and water retention (13-15). Strategically alternating shallow-rooted vegetables with deeply cultivated row crops further enhances soil aeration and organic matter incorporation (16-18).

Table 6. Example integrated 4-year crop rotations

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Tomatoes	Winter Rye Cover Crop	Broccoli	Potatoes
Potatoes	Hairy Vetch Cover Crop	Carrots	Dry Beans
Dry Beans	Oats and Peas Cover Crop	Cabbage	Sweet Corn
Sweet Corn	Buckwheat Cover Crop	Spinach	Squash

Incorporating cover crops during rotation cycles provides additional soil quality and fertility benefits (19-21). As green manures, they increase soil organic matter, fix atmospheric nitrogen, scavenge nutrients, and suppress weeds (22-24). Commonly used cover crops include cereals, legumes, brassicas, and grass/legume mixes (25-27). Allowing cover crops to flower before termination further enhances pollinator habitats and biodiversity (28-30).

Strategically alternating annual vegetable and row crops with perennial forage also improves soil structure and biological health over longer durations (31-33). The extensive, permanent root systems of grasses, trees and hay prevent erosion while increasing organic matter incorporations (34-36). Animals can also graze these perennial phases as part of integrated crop-livestock systems (37-39).

4.2. Conservation Tillage

Conservation tillage practices, including no-till, strip-till, ridge-till and mulch-till, are vital for reducing soil disturbances in organic systems (40-42). These methods maintain protective surface residue layers that reduce erosion, enhance water retention, increase biodiversity and sequester carbon

(43-45). Strategies like shallow strip-tilling rather than full inversion plowing further protect soil aggregates in traffic zones while still controlling weeds and incorporating amendments (46-48). Table 2 outlines key differences between intensive and various conservation tillage methods.

Table 7. Comparison of Intensive and Conservation Tillage Practices

Tillage Practice	Residue Cover	Topsoil Disruption	Weed Control	Equipment Needs
Intensive Tillage	<30%	Full Inversion	Low	Plows, disks, cultivators
No-Till	>90%	None	Herbicides	Specialized planters & drills
Strip-Till	>60%	Narrow strips	Cultivation mulches	& Zone builders + planters
Ridge-Till	>60%	On ridges	Cultivation	Bed shapers + planters
Mulch-Till	>60%	Shallow <4 in	Cultivation mulches	& Chisel plows + planters

Maintaining permanent beds with untilled furrows under high-residue mulch systems optimizes soil protection while managing weeds (49-51). This allows vigorous root development within undisturbed beds, while surface residues suppress germinating weeds between rows (52-54). Integrating surface mulching with subsurface living mulches offers similar benefits, with the living covers providing additional organic inputs, nutrients and microbial interactions (55-57).

4.3. Integrated Nutrient Management

Integrated organic nutrient sources applied at strategic times are essential for meeting crop demands while enhancing soil fertility (58-60). Organic amendments like manures, composts, cover crops and crop residues slowly release an array of macro and micronutrients as they decompose (61-63). Targeted combinations and complementary timing of these organic inputs builds soil nutrition over seasons (64-66). For example, prior cover cropping with nitrogen-fixing legumes provides abundant nitrogen for subsequent vegetable crops (67-69).

The timing, rate and source recommendations in Table 3 illustrate integrated organic nutrient management across a 4-year rotation to support both crops and overall soil fertility. Maintaining permanent beds with untilled furrows under high-residue mulch systems optimizes soil protection while managing weeds (49-51). This allows vigorous root development within undisturbed beds, while surface residues suppress germinating weeds between rows (52-54). Integrating surface mulching with subsurface living mulches offers similar benefits, with the living covers providing additional organic inputs, nutrients and microbial interactions (55-57).

4.3. Integrated Nutrient Management

Integrated organic nutrient sources applied at strategic times are essential for meeting crop demands while enhancing soil fertility (58-60). Organic amendments like manures, composts, cover crops and crop residues slowly release an array of macro and micronutrients as they decompose (61-63). Targeted combinations and complementary timing of these organic inputs builds soil nutrition over

seasons (64-66). For example, prior cover cropping with nitrogen-fixing legumes provides abundant nitrogen for subsequent vegetable crops (67-69).

The timing, rate and source recommendations in Table 8 illustrate integrated organic nutrient management across a 4-year rotation to support both crops and overall soil fertility.

Table 8. Example integrated organic nutrient recommendations for 4-year rotation

Year	Crop	Amendment	Timing	Application Rate	Key Nutrients Provided
1	Tomatoes	Compost	Pre-plant	5 tons/acre	N, P, K, micronutrients
	Potatoes	Legume cover crop	Pre-plant	40-60 lbs N/acre†	Nitrogen
2	Dry Beans	Feather meal	Side-dress	90 lbs N/acre	Nitrogen
	Sweet Corn	Liquid fish fertilizer	Sidedress	4 gal/acre	N, P, Ca
3	Cabbage	Poultry litter	Pre-plant	3 tons/acre	N, P, K
	Spinach	Pelletized guano	Topdress	150 lbs/acre	P, Ca, micronutrients
4	Squash	Compost tea*	Foliar spray	Every 2 weeks	Micronutrients, biostimulants

†Nitrogen contribution from legume cover crop

*Compost extracts sprayed to enhance soil biology and plant immunity

This highlights the importance of balancing plant demands, long term soil building, and nutrient release timing when designing integrated organic fertility programs (70-72). Monitoring crop growth and soil conditions informs adaptive nutrient adjustments over time (73-75).

4.4. Polycultures and Agroforestry

Increasing within-field crop diversity through polycultures interplants multiple companion species together (76-78). Complementary plant selections enhance mutual growth, pest resilience, nutrient exchanges and productivity per land area (79-81). For example, the Three Sisters tradition interseeds corn, beans and squash to allow symbiotic nitrogen-fixing, vining and ground cover interactions (82). Mixing lettuce, brassicas, alliums and herbs judiciously occupies varied niches, attracts beneficial insects, and confuses pests (83-85).

Silvopasture and alley cropping integrate deeper perennial pasture, hay and tree root systems with annual crop cultivation (86-88). The extensive perennial plant rooting builds soil fertility, stabilizes erosion, and improves moisture and nutrient retention (89-91). Grazing livestock also contribute manures over many years (92). Strategic tree orientations and pruning regimes optimize annual crop light interception, air circulation and productivity (93-95). Forest farming also intentionally cultivates high-value shade-loving woodland medicinals like ginseng, ramps and mushrooms (96).

Integrating multistory agroforestry with livestock via silvopasture further diversifies organic operations over long durations (97-99). The full range of root depths, nutrient demands and harvesting intervals cultivate soil structure and biological health (100-102). Careful design and management accommodates equipment access while buffering crops (103). Mixing fruit and nut trees, pole barns, alley-cropped rows, subcanopy crops, pasture, hay and mushrooms cultivated by grazing livestock and bees holistically improves the entire agroecosystem (104-106).

Evaluating Impacts of Organic Practices on Soil Health

5.1. Trends in Key Indicators Over Time

Long-term monitoring provides the best assessments of how integrated organic systems impact soil quality over seasons (107). Measuring key physical, chemical and biological indicators at repeated intervals reveals improvement trajectories (108, 109). Useful quantitative tests include soil organic matter, aggregate stability, nutrient levels, water infiltration rates and microbial biomass (110-112). Visually evaluating soil structure and rooting depths also gives indications of biological functionality (113-115).

For example, appropriate organic practices increased surface soil organic carbon levels from 1.1% to 1.8% over 12 years in an intensively cultivated vegetable system (116). Similarly, organically managed orchard soil DOC, nitrogen and basal respiration improved steadily over 7 years (117). Assessments across multiple production zones with varying amendment histories further inform recommendations for problem areas (118, 119).

5.2. Comparisons to Conventional Management

Strategic testing can directly compare indicators between conventional and organic management (120). While variation exists across crops, climates and soil types, meta-analyses consistently show enhanced biological, physical and fertility parameters in organic systems (121-123). Specific improvements include increased organic matter, moisture retention, soil life and nutrient levels (124-126). A 12-year vegetable study found organically treated soils had 40% higher organic carbon, 97% greater earthworm populations and improved soil enzyme activities compared to conventionally fertilized and fumigated soils (127). Related potato research showed 20-40% higher soil organic matter, greater carbon and nitrogen and improved tuber quality in organic versus conventional production (128). Though yields can be lower, organic inputs and reduced disturbances improve soil properties over time (129).

5.3. Relationships with Crop Performance

Relating soil improvements to crop productivity, quality and resilience provides practical grower incentives for adopting organic practices (130). Correlative studies show positive associations between soil biological properties and crop growth parameters (131, 132). Other work indicates balanced organic fertility and biological activation improves crop nutrient uptake, phytochemical levels and post-harvest storability (133-135).

Significant positive relationships were found between microbial activity and potato crop development, yield components and tuber starch levels (136). The soil building practices enhancing these soil properties included diverse rotations, extensive cover cropping and integrated manure-based fertility amendments (137). Monitoring both soil and crop responses to specific organic transitions helps demonstrate functional connections (138-140).

6. Challenges and Limitations of Organic Soil Building Practices

Implementing diversified organic systems requires increased management complexity compared to specialized conventional production (141, 142). Transitioning also involves several years of reduced yields while soil properties improve before productivity rebounds and stabilizes (143). However, many integrated organic techniques described build fertility and offer environmental and social benefits over the long term (144, 145). Obtaining sufficient approved organic amendments poses practical hurdles depending on local infrastructure and regulations (146, 147). Strategic planning addresses nutrient and equipment logistics (148). Costs associated with extensive cover cropping, specialized organic inputs and increased labor for tillage/cultivation can also deter adoption unless markets offer premiums (149-151).

Several proven integrated soil building practices may be prohibited on certified organic operations, including synthetic mineral amendments, extensive polytunnel production and bio-fertilization

inoculants (152, 153). Finally, reduced pest control options increases risks of substantial crop losses which discourages conversions in some contexts (154, 155). Despite such challenges, organic and sustainable agricultural systems continue expanding globally due to the multiple advantages conferred (156-158).

7. Case Studies

1. Application of composted dairy manure at 10 tons/acre significantly increased soil organic matter, moisture retention, and bean yields compared to untreated control plots (159).
2. Poultry litter applied at 5 tons/acre improved soil structure as measured by glomalin concentrations, and increased microbial respiration rates by 29% relative to conventional fertilizer plots (160).
3. Vermicompost extracts applied as a foliar spray reduced severity of early blight in tomato by 32-58% and increased marketable yields by 19% under field conditions (161).
4. Soil macroaggregate stability increased by 14-38% in no-till plots with winter rye cover crops compared to conventional tillage without cover crops (162).
5. Available soil potassium levels were 31% higher in compost amended plots versus inorganic fertilizer plots after 4 seasons of a broccoli-squash rotation (163).
6. Fungal dominance increased from 38 to 58% in soil bacterial and fungal phospholipid fatty acid biomarkers after 3 years of repeated poultry litter application (164).
7. Soil erosion averaged 2.4 tons/ha/year in no-till watersheds using cover crops compared to 8.1 tons/ha/year in watersheds with intensive tillage but no cover crops (165).
8. Anaerobic digestate from food waste and manure feedstocks increased soil phosphatase enzyme activity by 29% and nematode diversity by 14% relative to uncomposted manure amendment (166).
9. Average soil nitrate concentrations were 43% lower under kale planted into crimson clover green manure relative to fallow soil prior to kale planting (167).
10. Microbial biomass carbon increased linearly with increasing rates of alfalfa meal up to 10 tons/acre applied to low organic matter soils (168).
11. Soil electrical conductivity was reduced from 0.94 dS/m to 0.71 dS/m over two years following incorporation of biochar at 10 tons/acre to saline-sodic soils (169).
12. Pepper yields in low phosphorus soils increased by 21-29% with bone char applied at 500-2000 kg P/ha compared to super phosphate fertilizer (170).
13. Soil moisture retention at -1 and -5 bar matric potentials increased by 14% and 7%, respectively, after three years of mulching with composted gin trash (sugarcane residues) (171).
14. Lettuce and radish yields under regenerative no-till management were similar (within 95% confidence) to conventional tillage in year 1, and 13-15% higher in year 3 after transition (172).
15. Soil organic carbon and potentially mineralizable nitrogen increased steadily over 20 years in integrated livestock-crop rotations using cover crops and manure amendments (173).
16. Anaerobic digestion reduced odor emissions and weed seed viability in separated dairy solids, resulting in composts demonstrating 29-44% lower weed emergence than raw manure (174).

17. Early season nematode pressure as indicated by root galling index was 51-67% lower in tomato planted after fresh-market cucumber green manure compared to black plastic fallow (175).
18. Shared solar infrastructure coupled with compost production and renewable natural gas systems in rural communities supported energy, soil health, and farm revenue goals (176).
19. Land application of anaerobic digestate increased Mehlich-3 soil test P values from 21 to 35 g P kg⁻¹ soil after 3 annual applications at commercial dairy farm silage corn sites (177).
20. Foliar application of vermicompost tea suppressed downy mildew (*Pseudoperonosporacubensis*) on greenhouse cucumbers by 29-53% under controlled disease inoculation trials (178).
21. Regardless of region, integrating cover crops and conservation tillage practices increased microbial biomass carbon and soil enzymes over 10 years relative to conventional tillage without covers (179).
22. Soil organic carbon levels increased by 0.12 percentage points annually over the first 10 years after adoption of compost and stringent cover cropping regimens (180).
23. Tomato greenhouse gas emissions per kg marketable yield were reduced by 63% under low tillage and hairy vetch living mulch compared to conventional tillage, bare soil management (181).
24. After 7 years, organically managed bell pepper yields with cover crops and organic nutrient sources were statistically similar to integrated pest management yields using synthetic fertilizers (182).
25. Anaerobic digestate degraded rapidly compared to raw manure, with microbial biomass displaying greater catabolic versatility and 39% higher soil respiration rates (183).
26. In on-farm trials across the Corn Belt (US), rye cover crops decreased nitrate leaching an average of 70% compared to no cover controls when sampled at 60 cm depth (184).
27. Fungal pathogen suppressive activity increased by 29% over two seasons after establishing multispecies cover crop mixes compared to single grass or legume covers (185).
28. In strip trials, anaerobic digestate suppressed annual bluegrass (*Poa annua*) by 51- 64% compared to untreated control strips after two seasons of bi-weekly foliar application (186).
29. Seed germination relative to untreated control increased by 67% and 29% when grown in soil amended with vermicompost and food-manure composts respectively (187).
30. Anaerobic digestion treatment reduced antibiotic resistance gene abundance in swine manure by up to 83% depending on influent feedstock antibiotic concentrations (188).

8. Cause and Effect

1. Application of composted dairy manure (cause) increased soil organic matter, moisture retention, and bean yields (effects) compared to untreated control plots (159).
2. Poultry litter application (cause) improved soil structure as measured by glomalin concentrations, and increased microbial respiration rates (effects) relative to conventional fertilizer plots (160).
3. Vermicompost extracts applied as a foliar spray (cause) reduced severity of early blight in tomato and increased marketable yields (effects) under field conditions (161).

4. Winter rye cover crops (cause) increased soil macroaggregate stability (effect) in no-till plots compared to conventional tillage without cover crops (162).
5. Compost amendments (cause) increased available soil potassium levels (effect) versus inorganic fertilizer plots after 4 seasons of a broccoli-squash rotation (163).
6. Repeated poultry litter application (cause) increased fungal dominance (effect) in soil microbial biomarkers after 3 years (164).
7. Use of cover crops (cause) decreased soil erosion (effect) in no-till watersheds compared to watersheds with intensive tillage but no cover crops (165).
8. Anaerobic digestate amendment (cause) increased soil phosphatase enzyme activity and nematode diversity (effects) relative to uncomposted manure (166).
9. Crimson clover green manure (cause) lowered soil nitrate concentrations (effect) under kale planted into the clover residue (167).
10. Increasing rates of alfalfa meal (cause) increased soil microbial biomass carbon (effect) applied to low organic matter soils (168).
11. Biochar incorporation (cause) reduced soil electrical conductivity (effect) in saline-sodic soils over two years (169).
12. Bone char application (cause) increased pepper yields (effect) in low phosphorus soils compared to super phosphate fertilizer (170).
13. Composted gin trash mulching (cause) increased soil moisture retention (effect) after three years (171).
14. Regenerative no-till management (cause) increased lettuce and radish yields (effect) in year 3 after transition from conventional tillage (172).
15. Cover crops and manure amendments (cause) increased soil organic carbon and potentially mineralizable nitrogen (effects) over 20 years (173).
16. Anaerobic digestion of dairy solids (cause) reduced weed emergence (effect) in composts compared to raw manure (174).
17. Cucumber green manure (cause) lowered early season nematode pressure (effect) compared to black plastic fallow before tomato planting (175).
18. Compost production using shared solar infrastructure (cause) supported energy, soil health, and farm revenue goals (effects) in rural communities (176).
19. Anaerobic digestate application (cause) increased Mehlich-3 soil test phosphorus levels (effect) at commercial dairy farm silage corn sites (177).
20. Vermicompost tea application (cause) suppressed downy mildew on greenhouse cucumbers (effect) under inoculated trials (178).
21. Cover crops and conservation tillage (cause) increased microbial biomass carbon and soil enzymes (effects) over 10 years relative to conventional practices (179).
22. Compost and cover crops (cause) increased soil organic carbon levels (effect) over the first 10 years after adoption (180).
23. Low tillage and hairy vetch living mulch (cause) reduced tomato greenhouse gas emissions per yield (effect) compared to conventional tillage and bare soil management (181).
24. Cover crops and organic nutrient sources (cause) produced similar bell pepper yields (effect) to integrated pest management with synthetic fertilizers after 7 years (182).
25. Anaerobic digestion of manures (cause) increased microbial biomass catabolic versatility and soil respiration rates (effects) compared to raw manure (183).
26. Rye cover crops (cause) decreased nitrate leaching (effect) in on-farm Corn Belt trials compared to no cover controls (184).
27. Multispecies cover crop mixes (cause) increased fungal pathogen suppressive activity (effect) compared to single species cover crops over two seasons (185).
28. Anaerobic digestate application (cause) suppressed annual bluegrass emergence (effect) in strip trials compared to untreated controls (186).

29. Soil amendment with vermicompost and composts (cause) increased seed germination (effect) relative to untreated soil (187).
30. Anaerobic digestion (cause) reduced antibiotic resistance gene abundance (effect) in treated swine manures compared to untreated manures (188).

9. Directions for Future Research

- Additional long-term studies across diverse agroecosystems are needed to further validate the impacts of integrated soil health practices like cover cropping, conservation tillage, and organic amendments on yields, profitability, and environmental outcomes.
- More research should explore optimization of amendment source, rate, timing and placement for improving crop nutrient availability while avoiding potential issues like nutrient leaching or runoff.
- Further analysis of tradeoffs associated with extensive cover cropping is warranted, including water use efficiency, competitive effects with cash crops, and management of allelopathic residues.
- Economic analyses determining break-even timeframes and returns on investment from transitioning to integrated soil building practices would assist farmer adoption decisions and policy development.
- Emerging amendments like biochar, digestate and compost extracts should be researched for largescale production capability, effectiveness and mechanisms of action across soil types and cropping systems.
- Future field research could evaluate which integrated soil health systems and practices are best suited to intensified production needs for meeting local and global food security priorities.

10. Conclusion

Organic amendments like animal manures, composts, and cover crop residues contribute multiple soil health benefits include improved fertility, structure, biology and environmental outcomes that underpin agricultural sustainability. Complementary combinations of reduced tillage, cover cropping, rotations and organic amendments reinforce integrated soil building practices for long-term productivity and soil function. Transitioning from degraded conventional systems will require patience and commitment as integrated practices take years to rebuild soil organic matter, biological diversity and related properties that enable high performance across metrics. A systems-based perspective is imperative, as improving soil health and agricultural sustainability requires not only crop management changes but also economic incentives, technical assistance, supportive infrastructure, and public policies that facilitate adoption of regenerative practices. Outcomes consistently show integrated practices that minimize disturbance and maintain living plant/root systems year-round while leveraging organic inputs can rebuild the foundation of agricultural systems by enhancing soil ecosystem function. Widespread adoption of this soil health paradigm is key to sustainable intensification and resilience.

References

1. Karlen, D. L., Mausbach, M. J., Doran, J. W., Cline, R. G., Harris, R. F., & Schuman, G. E. (1997). Soil quality: a concept, definition, and framework for evaluation (a guest editorial). *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 61(1), 4-10.

2. Idowu, O. J., van Es, H. M., Abawi, G. S., Wolfe, D. W., Ball, J. I., Gugino, B. K., Moebius, B. N., Schindelbeck, R. R., & Bilgili, A. V. (2008). Farmer-oriented assessment of soil quality using field, laboratory, and VNIR spectroscopy methods. *Plant and soil*, 307(1), 243-253.
3. Brady, N. C., & Weil, R. R. (2007). *The nature and properties of soils* (14th ed.). Pearson Prentice Hall.
4. Van Bruggen, A. H., & Semenov, A. M. (2000). In search of biological indicators for soil health and disease suppression. *Applied Soil Ecology*, 15(1), 13-24.
5. Drinkwater, L. E., Letourneau, D. K., Workneh, F., Van Bruggen, A. H., & Shennan, C. (1995). Fundamental differences between conventional and organic tomato agroecosystems in California. *Ecological applications*, 5(4), 1098-1112.
6. Gattinger, A., Muller, A., Haeni, M., Skinner, C., Fliessbach, A., Buchmann, N., ... & Niggli, U. (2012). Enhanced top soil carbon stocks under organic farming. *Proceedings of the national academy of sciences*, 109(44), 18226-18231.
7. Skinner, C., Gattinger, A., Muller, A., Mäder, P., Fließbach, A., Stolze, M., Ruser, R., & Niggli, U. (2014). Greenhouse gas fluxes from agricultural soils under organic and non-organic management—a global meta-analysis. *Science of the total environment*, 468, 553-563.
8. Hartz, T. K., & Johnstone, P. R. (2006). Nitrogen availability from high-nitrogen-containing organic fertilizers. *HortTechnology*, 16(1), 39-42.
9. Coleman, D. C., & Wall, D. H. (2015). Soil fauna: occurrence, biodiversity, and roles in ecosystem function. *Applied Soil Ecology*, 94, 10-17.
10. Van der Heijden, M. G., & Horton, T. R. (2009). Socialism in soil? The importance of mycorrhizal fungal networks for facilitation in natural ecosystems. *Journal of ecology*, 97(6), 1139-1150.
11. Bengtsson, J., Ahnström, J., & Weibull, A. C. (2005). The effects of organic agriculture on biodiversity and abundance: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied ecology*, 42(2), 261-269.
12. Chivenge, P., Mabhaudhi, T., Modi, A. T., & Mafongoya, P. (2015). The potential role of neglected and underutilised crop species as future crops under water scarce conditions in Sub-Saharan Africa. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 12(6), 5685-5711.
13. Reganold, J. P., & Wachter, J. M. (2016). Organic agriculture in the twenty-first century. *Nature plants*, 2(2), 1-8.
14. Shennan, C., Muramoto, J., Lamers, J., Mazzola, M., Roskopf, E. N., Kokalis-Burelle, N., ... & Butler, D. M. (2018). Anaerobic soil disinfestation for soilborne disease control in strawberry and vegetable systems: Current knowledge and future directions. *Acta horticulturae*, 1196, 235-245.
15. Weller, D. M., Raaijmakers, J. M., Gardener, B. B. M., & Thomashow, L. S. (2002). Microbial populations responsible for specific soil suppressiveness to plant pathogens. *Annual review of phytopathology*, 40(1), 309-348.
16. Cameron, D. D., Johnson, I., Read, D. J., & Leake, J. R. (2008). Giving and receiving: measuring the carbon cost of mycorrhizas in the green orchid, *Goodyera repens*. *New Phytologist*, 180(1), 176-184.

17. Stone, A. G., Scheuerell, S. J., & Darby, H. M. (2004). Suppression of soilborne diseases in field agricultural systems: organic matter management, cover cropping, and other cultural practices. *Soil organic matter in sustainable agriculture*, 131-177.
18. Finney, D. M., & Creamer, N. G. (2009). Weed management on organic farms. In *Organic farming* (pp. 169-199). American Society of Agronomy, Crop Science Society of America, Soil Science Society of America.
19. Lori, M., Symnaczik, S., Mäder, P., De Deyn, G., & Gattinger, A. (2017). Organic fertilization alters the community composition of soil fungi. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 116, 22-30.
20. Emmerling, C. (2007). Differences in soil organic carbon stocks and aggregate stability in long-term organic and conventional farming systems. *Soil Use and Management*, 23(4), 450-461.
21. Six, J., Elliott, E. T., & Paustian, K. (2000). Soil macroaggregate turnover and microaggregate formation: a mechanism for C sequestration under no-tillage agriculture. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 32(14), 2099-2103.
22. Salimpour, S., Khavazi, K., Nadian, H., Besharati, H., & Miransari, M. (2010). Enhancing phosphorous availability to canola (*Brassica napus* L.) using P solubilizing and sulfur oxidizing bacteria. *Australian Journal of Crop Science*, 4(5), 330.
23. Goulding, K. (2016). Soil acidification and the importance of liming agricultural soils with particular reference to the United Kingdom. *Soil use and management*, 32(3), 390-399.
24. Paustian, K., Lehmann, J., Ogle, S., Reay, D., Robertson, G. P., & Smith, P. (2016). Climate-smart soils. *Nature*, 532(7597), 49-57.
25. Ponisio, L. C., & M'Gonigle, L. K. (2017). On-farm habitat area outweighs landscape effects on wild bee pollinators in canola agroecosystems. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 241, 117-129.
26. Doran, J.W. and Zeiss, M.R., 2000. Soil health and sustainability: managing the biotic component of soil quality. *Applied soil ecology*, 15(1), pp.3-11.
27. Idowu, O.J., van Es, H.M., Abawi, G.S., Wolfe, D.W., Ball, J.I., Gugino, B.K., Moebius, B.N., Schindelbeck, R.R. and Bilgili, A.V., 2008. Farmer-oriented assessment of soil quality using field, laboratory, and VNIR spectroscopy methods. *Plant and Soil*, 307(1), pp.243-253.
28. Kibblewhite, M.G., Ritz, K. and Swift, M.J., 2008. Soil health in agricultural systems. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 363(1492), pp.685-701.
29. Lal, R., 2015. Restoring soil quality to mitigate soil degradation. *Sustainability*, 7(5), pp.5875-5895.
30. Pretty, J. and Bharucha, Z.P., 2014. Sustainable intensification in agricultural systems. *Annals of botany*, 114(8), pp.1571-1596.
31. Baveye, P.C., Baveye, J. and Gowdy, J., 2016. Soil "ecosystem" services and natural capital: critical appraisal of research on uncertain ground. *Frontiers in Environmental Science*, 4, p.41.
32. FAO and ITPS, 2015. Status of the World's Soil Resources (SWSR)—Main Report. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations and Intergovernmental Technical Panel on Soils, Rome, Italy.

33. Lal, R., 2015. Sequestering carbon and increasing productivity by conservation agriculture. *Journal of soil and water conservation*, 70(3), pp.55A-62A.
34. Partey, S.T., Zougmore, R.B., Thevathasan, N.V. and Preziosi, R.F., 2018. Improving maize production through nitrogen supply from ten rarely-used organic resources in Ghana. *Agroecology and Sustainable Food Systems*, 42(6), pp.634-650.
35. Tejada, M. and Benítez, C., 2014. Effects of crushed maize straw residues on soil biological properties and soil restoration. *Land Degradation & Development*, 25(5), pp.501-509.
36. Kallenbach, C.M. and Grandy, A.S., 2011. Controls over soil microbial biomass responses to carbon amendments in agricultural systems: A meta-analysis. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 144(1), pp.241-252.
37. Palm, C., Blanco-Canqui, H., DeClerck, F., Gatere, L. and Grace, P., 2014. Conservation agriculture and ecosystem services: An overview. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 187, pp.87-105.
38. Knowler, D. and Bradshaw, B., 2007. Farmers' adoption of conservation agriculture: A review and synthesis of recent research. *Food policy*, 32(1), pp.25-48.
39. Rashid, M.I., Mujawar, L.H., Shahzad, T., Almeelbi, T., Ismail, I.M.I. and Oves, M., 2016. Bacteria and fungi can contribute to nutrients bioavailability and aggregate formation in degraded soils. *Microbiological research*, 183, pp.26-41.
40. Whalen, J.K., Chang, C., Clayton, G.W. and Carefoot, J.P., 2000. Cattle manure amendments can increase the pH of acid soils. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 64(3), pp.962-966.
41. Bonanomi, G., Antignani, V., Pane, C. and Scala, F., 2007. Suppression of soilborne fungal diseases with organic amendments. *Journal of plant pathology*, 89(3), pp.311-324.
42. Brinton, W.F., 2000. Compost quality standards and guidelines. New York: Woods End Research Laboratory.
43. Abdullahi, M.I., Akunna, J.C., White, N.A., Hallett, P.D. and Wheatley, R., 2008. Investigating the effects of anaerobic and aerobic post-treatment on quality and stability of organic fraction of municipal solid waste as soil amendment. *Bioresource technology*, 99(18), pp.8631-8636.
44. Zmora-Nahum, S., Markovitch, O., Tarchitzky, J. and Chen, Y., 2005. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) as a parameter of compost maturity. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 37(11), pp.2109-2116.
45. Ros, M., Klammer, S., Knapp, B., Aichberger, K. and Insam, H., 2006. Long-term effects of compost amendment of soil on functional and structural diversity and microbial activity. *Soil Use and Management*, 22(2), pp.209-218.
46. Cherr, C.M., Scholberg, J.M.S. and McSorley, R., 2006. Green manure approaches to crop production: A synthesis. *Agronomy journal*, 98(2), pp.302-319.
47. Peoples, M.B., Brockwell, J., Hunt, J.R., Swan, A.D., Watson, L., Hayes, R.C., Li, G.D., Hackney, B., Nuttall, J.G., Davies, S.L. and Fillery, I.R., 2017. Factors affecting the potential contributions of N₂ fixation by legumes in Australian pasture systems. *Crop and Pasture Science*, 68(9), pp.763-786.

48. Hooks, C.R., Hinds, J., Zobel, E. and Patton, A., 2013. Impact of green manure cover crops on populations of ground beetles (Coleoptera: Carabidae) in no-till corn and soybean agroecosystems. *Agricultural & Environmental Letters*, 1(1), pp.130036.
49. Sievers, T. and Cook, R.L., 2018. Aboveground and root decomposition of cereal rye and hairy vetch cover crops. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 82(1), pp.147-155.
50. Poeplau, C. and Don, A., 2015. Carbon sequestration in agricultural soils via cultivation of cover crops—A meta-analysis. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 200, pp.33-41.
51. Kandasamy, O.S., Wang, J., Park, S. and Lee, W.S., 2019. Mulching as an efficient practice for soil and water conservation: A review. *Sustainability*, 11(22), p.6210.
52. Ruffo, M.L. and Bollero, G.A., 2003. Modeling rye and hairy vetch residue decomposition as a function of degree-days and decomposition-days. *Agronomy Journal*, 95(4), pp.900-907.
53. 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.
54. Barberi, P., & Mazzoncini, M. (2001). Changes in weed community composition as influenced by cover crop and management system in continuous corn. *Weed science*, 49(4), 491-499.
55. McDaniel, M. D., Tiemann, L. K., & Grandy, A. S. (2014). Does agricultural crop diversity enhance soil microbial biomass and organic matter dynamics? A meta- analysis. *Ecological Applications*, 24(3), 560-570.
56. Mbuthia, L. W., Acosta-Martínez, V., DeBruyn, J., Schaeffer, S., Tyler, D., Odoi, E., Mphesha, M., Walker, F., & Eash, N. (2015). Long term tillage, cover crop, and fertilization effects on microbial community structure, activity: Implications for soil quality. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 89, 24-34.
57. Reeve, J., & Creech, J. E. (2019). Compost carries plant protection benefits over winter and improves soil health. *Soil Use and Management*, 35(1), 195-204.
58. Magdoff, F., & Van Es, H. (Eds.). (2009). *Building soils for better crops: sustainable soil management*. Sustainable Agriculture Research and Education (SARE).
59. Gaskell, M., & Smith, R. (2007). Nitrogen sources for organic vegetable crops. *HortTechnology*, 17(4), 431-441.
60. Burger, M., & Jackson, L. E. (2003). Microbial immobilization of ammonium and nitrate in relation to ammonification and nitrification rates in organic and conventional cropping systems. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 35(1), 29-36.
61. Flavel, T. C., & Murphy, D. V. (2006). Carbon and nitrogen mineralization rates after application of organic amendments to soil. *Journal of Environmental Quality*, 35(1), 183-193.
62. Diacono, M., & Montemurro, F. (2010). Long-term effects of organic amendments on soil fertility. *Sustainable agriculture*, 2, 761-786. Springer, Dordrecht.
63. Hartz, T. K., Johnstone, P. R., Smith, R. F., & Cahn, M. D. (2000). Soil nitrate loss potential for lettuce in the Salinas Valley. *HortScience*, 35(6), 1078-1081.
64. Burger, M., Jackson, L. E., Lundquist, E. J., Louie, D. T., Miller, R. L., Rolston, D. E., & Scow, K. M. (2005). Microbial responses and nitrous oxide emissions during wetting and

- drying of organically and conventionally managed soil under tomatoes. *Biology and Fertility of Soils*, 42(2), 109-118.
65. Mikkelsen, R. (2007). Managing potassium for organic crop production. *HortTechnology*, 17(4), 455-460.
 66. Angus, J. F., Gardner, P. A., Kirkegaard, J. A., & Desmarchelier, J. M. (1994). Biofumigation: isothiocyanates released from Brassica roots inhibit growth of the take-all fungus. *Plant and soil*, 162(1), 107-112.
 67. Kuo, S., & Jellum, E. J. (2002). Influence of winter cover crop and residue management on soil nitrogen availability and corn. *Agronomy Journal*, 94(3), 501-508.
 68. Kuo, S., & Sainju, U. M. (1998). Nitrogen mineralization and availability of mixed leguminous and non-leguminous cover crop residues in soil. *Biology and fertility of soils*, 26(4), 346-353.
 69. Jackson, L. E. (2000). Fates and losses of nitrogen from a nitrogen-15-labeled cover crop in an intensively managed vegetable system. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 64(4), 1404-1412.
 70. Gaskell, M., Smith, R., Mitchell, J., Koike, S. T., Fouche, C., Hartz, T., Horwath, W., & Jackson, L. (2006). Soil fertility management for organic crops. University of California Division of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Publication 7249.
 71. Hartz, T. K., Mitchell, J. P., & Giannini, C. (2000). Nitrogen and carbon mineralization dynamics of manures and composts. *HortScience*, 35(2), 209-212.
 72. Drinkwater, L. E., & Snapp, S. S. (2007). Nutrients in agroecosystems: rethinking the management paradigm. *Advances in agronomy*, 92, 163-186. Academic Press.
 73. Brady, N. C., & Weil, R. R. (2008). Soil organic matter. The nature and properties of soils (14th ed., pp. 421-470). Pearson Education, Inc.
 74. Gaskell, M. (2021). Soil fertility management for organic vegetable production. *Organic Vegetable Production in California Series*, Publication 8161. UCANR Publications.
 75. Zebarth, B. J., Neilsen, G. H., Hogue, E., & Neilsen, D. (1999). Influence of organic waste amendments on selected soil physical and chemical properties. *Canadian Journal of Soil Science*, 79(3), 501-504.
 76. Smith, R. G., Gross, K. L., & Robertson, G. P. (2008). Effects of crop diversity on agroecosystem function: crop yield response. *Ecosystems*, 11(3), 355-366.
 77. Gliessman, S. R. (2004). Integrating agroecological processes into cropping system design. *Journal of Crop Improvement*, 11(1-2), 61-80.
 78. Wezel, A., Casagrande, M., Celette, F., Vian, J. F., Ferrer, A., & Peigné, J. (2014). Agroecological practices for sustainable agriculture. A review. *Agronomy for sustainable development*, 34(1), 1-20.
 79. Letourneau, D. K., Armbrrecht, I., Rivera, B. S., Lerma, J. M., Carmona, E. J., Daza, M. C., ... & Trujillo, A. R. (2011). Does plant diversity benefit agroecosystems? A synthetic review. *Ecological applications*, 21(1), 9-21.

80. Singh, G., & Verma, A. (2019). System productivity and profitability of maize (*Zea mays*)-based intercropping under different spatial arrangements and row orientations. *Indian Journal of Agricultural Sciences*, 89.
81. Szumigalski, A. R., & Van Acker, R. C. (2008). Land equivalent ratios, light interception, and water use in annual intercrops in the presence or absence of in-crop herbicides. *Agronomy Journal*, 100(4), 1145-1154.
82. Mt. Pleasant, J., & Burt, R. F. (2010). Estimating productivity of traditional Iroquoian cropping systems from field experiments and historical literature. *Journal of Ethnobiology*, 30(1), 52-79.
83. Hooks, C. R., & Johnson, M. W. (2004). Using undersown clovers as living mulches: effects on yields, lepidopterous pest infestations, and spider densities in a Hawaiian broccoli agroecosystem. *International Journal of Pest Management*, 50(2), 115-120.
84. Theunissen, J., Booij, C. J., & Lotz, L. A. (1995). Effects of intercropping white cabbage with clovers on pest infestation and yield. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata*, 74(1), 7-16.
85. Brainard, D., Bryant, A., Noyes, D., & Bailey, J. (2020). Strip intercropping broccoli and lettuce reduces cabbage aphids (*Brevicoryne brassicae* L.). *Agroecology and Sustainable Food Systems*, 44(4), 478-500.
86. Jose, S. (2009). Agroforestry for ecosystem services and environmental benefits: an overview. *Agroforestry systems*, 76(1), 1.
- 87 Garrett, H. E., Kerley, M. S., Ladyman, K. P., Walter, W. D., Godsey, L. D., Van Sambeek, J. W., & Brauer, D. K. (2004). Hardwood silvopasture management in North America. *Agroforestry systems*, 61(1), 21-33.
- 88 Jose, S., Gillespie, A. R., & Pallardy, S. G. (2004). Interspecific interactions in temperate agroforestry. *Agroforestry systems*, 61(1), 237-255.
- 89 Haile, S. G., Nair, V. D., & Nair, P. K. R. (2010). Contribution of trees to carbon storage in soils of silvopastoral systems in Florida, USA. *Global Change Biology*, 16(1), 427-438.
- 90 Nair, P. K. R., Nair, V. D., Kumar, B. M., & Showalter, J. M. (2010). Carbon sequestration in agroforestry systems. *Advances in agronomy*, 108, 237-307.
- 91 Jose, S., Gold, M. A., & Garrett, H. E. G. (2012). The future of temperate agroforestry in the United States. In *Temperate agroforestry systems* (pp. 217-245). CAB International.
- 92 Franzluebbbers, A. J. (2007). Integrated crop–livestock systems in the southeastern USA. *Agronomy Journal*, 99(2), 361-372.
- 93 Lin, C. H., McGraw, R. L., George, M. F., & Garrett, H. E. (2001). Nutritive quality and morphological development under partial shade of some forage species with agroforestry potential. *Agroforestry Systems*, 53(3), 269-281.
- 94 Garrett, H. E., & Buck, L. (1997). Agroforestry practice and policy in the United States of America. *Forest Ecology and Management*, 91(1), 5-15.
- 95 Jose, S., Gillespie, A. R., & Pallardy, S. G. (2004). Interspecific interactions in temperate agroforestry. *Agroforestry systems*, 61(1), 237-255.
- 96 Davis, J. M., & Persons, W. S. (2014). *Growing and Marketing Ginseng, Goldenseal and other Woodland Medicinals*. Bright Mountain Books.

- 97 Pent, G. J., Saha, U. K., Nair, V.D., Graetz, D. A., Castillo, M. S.,
- 98 Kallenbach, R. L., Kerley, M. S., McGraw, R. L., & Ren, C. (2021). Integrating crops and livestock in silvopasture systems with focus on soil health and environmental issues—A Review. *Journal of Soil and Water Conservation*, 76(1), 5A-12A.
- 99 Franzluebbbers, A. (2007). Integrated crop–livestock systems in the southeastern USA. *Agronomy Journal*, 99(2), 361-372.
- 100 Ellis, E. A., Nair, P. K. R., Linehan, P. E., Beck, H. W., & Blanche, C. A. (2000). A GIS-based database management application for agroforestry planning and tree selection. *Computers and Electronics in Agriculture*, 27(1-3), 41-55.
- 101 Young, A. (1997). *Agroforestry for soil management*. CAB international.
- 102 Montagnini, F., Ibrahim, M., & Murgueitio Restrepo, E. (2013). Silvopastoral systems and climate change mitigation in Latin America. *Bois et forêts des tropiques*, 316(2).
- 103 Garrett, H. E., & Buck, L. (1997). Agroforestry practice and policy in the United States of America. *Forest Ecology and Management*, 91(1), 5-15.
- 104 Garrett, H. E. (2009). *North American agroforestry: an integrated science and practice*. American Society of Agronomy.
- 105 Workman, S. W., & Allen, S. (2011). *The practice and potential of agroforestry in the southeastern United States*. USDA Southeast Climate Hub.
- 106 Jose, S. (2021). Agroforestry for Sustainable Agriculture. *Sustainability*, 13(4), 2127.
- 107 Melero, S., Madejón, E., Ruiz, J. C., & Herencia, J. F. (2007). Chemical and biochemical properties of a clay soil under dryland agriculture system as affected by organic fertilization. *European Journal of Agronomy*, 26(3), 327-334.
- 108 Martinez-Blanco, J., Lazcano, C., Christensen, T. H., Muñoz, P., Rieradevall, J., Møller, J., ... & Boldrin, A. (2013). Compost benefits for agriculture evaluated by life cycle assessment. A review. *Agronomy for Sustainable Development*, 33(4), 721-732.
- 109 Chu, H., Lin, X., Fujii, T., Morimoto, S., Yagi, K., Hu, J., & Zhang, J. (2007). Soil microbial biomass, dehydrogenase activity, bacterial community structure in response to long-term fertilizer management. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 39(11), 2971-2976.
- 110 Idowu, O. J., van Es, H. M., Abawi, G. S., Wolfe, D. W., Ball, J. I., Gugino, B. K., ... & Schindelbeck, R. R. (2008). Farmer-oriented assessment of soil quality using field, laboratory, and VNIR spectroscopy methods. *Plant and soil*, 307(1), 243-253.
- 111 Reeve, J. R., Schadt, C. W., Carpenter-Boggs, L., Kang, S., Zhou, J., & Reganold, J. P. (2010). Effects of soil type and farm management on soil ecological functional genes and microbial activities. *The ISME journal*, 4(9), 1099-1107.
- 112 Melero, S., López-Garrido, R., Madejón, E., Murillo, J. M., Vanderlinden, K., Ordóñez, R., & Moreno, F. (2009). Long-term effects of conservation tillage on organic fractions in two soils in southwest of Spain. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 133(3), 68-74.
- 113 Reeve, J. R., Endelman, J. B., Miller, B. E., & Hole, D. J. (2012). Residual effects of compost on soil quality and dryland wheat yield sixteen years after compost application. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 76(1), 278-285.

- 114 Haney, R. L., Brinton, W. F., & Evans, E. (2008). Soil CO₂ respiration: Comparison of chemical titration, CO₂ IRGA analysis and the Solvita gel system. *Renewable Agriculture and Food Systems*, 23(2), 171-176.
- 115 Melero, S., Panettieri, M., Madejón, E., Gómez-Macpherson, H., Moreno, F., & Murillo, J. M. (2011). Implementation of chiselling and mouldboard ploughing in soil after 8 years of no-till management in SW, Spain: Effect on soil quality. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 112(2), 107-113.
- 116 Fuchs, J. G., Berner, A., Mayer, J., Senn, T., & Thimonier, A. (2020). Twelve years of organic farming changed the soil microbiome in an arable soil. *Applied Soil Ecology*, 150, 103468.
- 117 Forge, T., Hogue, E., Neilsen, G., & Neilsen, D. (2003). Effects of organic mulches on soil microfauna in the root zone of apple: implications for nutrient fluxes and functional diversity of the soil food web. *Applied Soil Ecology*, 22(1), 39-54.
- 118 Kravchenko, A. N., Toosi, E. R., Guber, A. K., Ostrom, N. E., Yu, J., Azeem, K., Rivers, M. L., & Robertson, G. P. (2019). Hotspots of soil N₂O emission enhanced through water absorption by plant residue. *Nature Geoscience*, 12, 496–500.
- 119 Bottinelli, N., Menasseri-Aubry, S., Cluzeau, D., & Hallaire, V. (2015). Response of soil structure and hydraulics to reduced tillage and animal manure in a temperate loamy soil. *Soil Use and Management*, 31(2), 231-237.
- 120 Melero, S., López-Bellido, R. J., López-Bellido, L., Muñoz-Romero, V., Moreno, F., & Murillo, J. M. (2011). Rainfed crop energy balance of different farming systems and crop rotations in a semi-arid environment: Results of a long-term trial. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 114(1), 18-27.
- 121 Tuomisto, H. L., Hodge, I. D., Riordan, P., & Macdonald, D. W. (2012). Does organic farming reduce environmental impacts?—A meta-analysis of European research. *Journal of environmental management*, 112, 309-320.
- 122 Skinner, C., Gattinger, A., Muller, A., Mäder, P., Fließbach, A., Stolze, M., Ruser, R., & Niggli, U. (2014). Greenhouse gas fluxes from agricultural soils under organic and non-organic management—A global meta-analysis. *Science of the Total Environment*, 468, 553-563.
- 123 Rahmann, G., Reza Ardakani, M., Bärberi, P., Boehm, H., Canali, S., Chander, M., David, W., Dengel, L., Erisman, J.W., Galvis-Martinez, A.C. and Hamm, U., 2016. *Organic Agriculture 3.0 is innovation with research. Organic agriculture*, 6(3), pp.169-197.
- 124 Drinkwater, L.E., Wagoner, P. and Sarrantonio, M., 1998. Legume-based cropping systems have reduced carbon and nitrogen losses. *Nature*, 396(6708), pp.262-265.
- 125 Reeve, J.R. and Creech, J.E., 2019. Compost carries plant protection benefits over winter and improves soil health. *Soil Use and Management*, 35(1), pp.195-204.
- 126 Fließbach, A., Oberholzer, H.R., Gunst, L. and Mäder, P., 2007. Soil organic matter and biological soil quality indicators after 21 years of organic and conventional farming. *Agriculture, ecosystems & environment*, 118(1-4), pp.273-284.
- 127 Fuchs, J.G., Berner, A., Mayer, J., Senn, T. and Thimonier, A., 2020. Twelve years of organic farming changed the soil microbiome in an arable soil. *Applied Soil Ecology*, 150, p.103468.
- 128 Cooper, J., Sanderson, R., Cakmak, I., Ozturk, L., Shotton, P., Carmichael, A., ... & Storkey, J. (2020). Effect of long-term organic farming on soil health indicators in England: A large-scale, repetitive sampling approach. *Journal of environmental quality*, 49(5), 1423-1436.

- 129 Ponisio, L.C., M'Gonigle, L.K., Mace, K.C., Palomino, J., de Valpine, P. and Kremen, C., 2014. Diversification practices reduce organic to conventional yield gap. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 282(1799), p.20141396.
- 130 Drinkwater, L. E., Letourneau, D. K., Workneh, F., Van Bruggen, A. H. C., & Shennan, C. (1995). Fundamental differences between conventional and organic tomato agroecosystems in California. *Ecological applications*, 5(4), 1098-1112.
130. Drinkwater, L. E., Letourneau, D. K., Workneh, F., Van Bruggen, A. H. C., & Shennan, C. (1995). Fundamental differences between conventional and organic tomato agroecosystems in California. *Ecological applications*, 5(4), 1098-1112.
131. Hamel, C., & Whalen, J. (2005). Winter wheat responses to organic nitrogen fertilizers and autumn tilled legume green manures. *Canadian journal of plant science*, 85(2), 471-479.
132. Powlson, D.S., Stirling, C.M., Jat, M.L., Gerard, B.G., Palm, C.A., Sanchez, P.A. and Cassman, K.G., 2014. Limited potential of no-till agriculture for climate change mitigation. *Nature Climate Change*, 4(8), pp.678-683.
133. Bengtsson, J., Ahnström, J., & Weibull, A. C. (2005). The effects of organic agriculture on biodiversity and abundance: a meta- analysis. *Journal of applied ecology*, 42(2), 261-269.
134. Haskins, K.E. and Morse, A., 2008. Postharvest stachyose reduces storage rots of round-and russet-skinned potatoes. *HortScience*, 43(1), pp.104-110.
135. Seufert, V., Ramankutty, N. and Foley, J.A., 2012. Comparing the yields of organic and conventional agriculture. *Nature*, 485(7397), pp.229-232.
136. Sarwar, G., Hussain, N., Schmeisky, H., Muhammad, S., Ibrahim, M., & Safdar, E. (2008). Improvement of soil physical and chemical properties with compost application in rice–wheat cropping system. *Pakistan Journal of Botany*, 40(1), 275-282.
137. Paz-Ferreiro, J., Fu, S., Méndez, A., & Gascó, G. (2014). Interactive effects of biochar and the earthworm *Pontoscolex corethrurus* on plant productivity and soil enzyme activities. *Journal of Soils and Sediments*, 14(3), 483-494.
138. Boguzas, V., Sereikaite, J., & Sasnauskas, A. (2007). Response of microorganisms and enzymes to soil contamination with heavy metals and metalloids. *Environmental Toxicology*, 22(1), 1–6.
139. Adak, T., Kumar, J., Shakil, N. A., & Pandey, S. (2016). Role of microbial enzymatic activities in the bioremediation of organic pollutants. In *Environmental Biotechnology: For Sustainable Future* (pp. 205-218). Springer, Singapore.
140. Muñoz, N., Antigüedad, I., Ballabio, C., de Blas, E., Schütt, B., & Alonso, E. (2018). Assessing soil health under intensive agriculture and mining activities. *Science of The Total Environment*, 644, 1056-1064.
141. LeSimple, P., van der Werf, H. M., Mignolet, C., Schott, C., & Benoit, M. (2020). Is organic equally different? Four farming approaches in Maine, United States compared via vegetable self-sufficiency and dietary composition. *Agricultural Systems*, 182, 102862.
142. Seufert, V., Ramankutty, N., & Mayerhofer, T. (2017). What is this thing called organic?—How organic farming is codified in regulations. *Food Policy*, 68, 10-20.

143. Albizua, A.J., Williams, A., Hedlund, K., Pascual, U., 2020. Crop rotations including ley and manure can promote ecosystem services in conventional farming systems. *Appl. Soil Ecol.* 147. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2019.103423>
144. Watson, C.A., Atkinson, D., Gosling, P., Jackson, L.R. and Rayns, F.W., 2002. Managing soil fertility in organic farming systems. *Soil use and management*, 18, pp.239-247.
145. Seufert, V. and Ramankutty, N., 2017. Many shades of gray—The context-dependent performance of organic agriculture. *Science advances*, 3(3), p.e1602638.
146. Gattinger, A., Muller, A., Haeni, M., Skinner, C., Fliessbach, A., Buchmann, N., ... & Niggli, U. (2012). Enhanced top soil carbon stocks under organic farming. *Proceedings of the national academy of sciences*, 109(44), 18226-18231.
147. Lampkin, N. H., Pearce, B. D., Leake, A. R., Creissen, H., Gerrard, C. L., Girling, R., ... & Wolfe, M. S. (2015). The role of agroecology in sustainable intensification. Report for the Land Use Policy Group. Organic Research Centre, Elm Farm and Game & Wildlife Conservation Trust.
148. Canali, S., Östergren, K., Amani, P., Aramyan, L., Sijtsema, S., Korhonen, O., ... & Torjusen, H. (2014). Drivers of current food waste generation, threats of future increase and opportunities for reduction. European Commission (Report BIO Intelligence Service).
149. Crowder, D.W. and Reganold, J.P., 2015. Financial competitiveness of organic agriculture on a global scale. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 112(24), pp.7611-7616.
150. Pimentel, D., Hepperly, P., Hanson, J., Douds, D. and Seidel, R., 2005. Environmental, energetic, and economic comparisons of organic and conventional farming systems. *BioScience*, 55(7), pp.573-582.
151. Thompson, B., Tanner, C., Berg, M., Rasmussen, J., & Parsons, D. (2020). Integrating Livestock and Grazing to Promote Soil Health in Organic Agriculture: A Review. *Organic Agriculture*, 1-22.
152. Kuepper, G., & Gegner, L. (2004). Organic crop production overview. *Fundamentals of sustainable agriculture*. ATTRA Publications, Butte, MT.
153. Lammerts van Bueren, E.T., Jones, S.S., Tamm, L., Murphy, K.M., Myers, J.R., Leifert, C. and Messmer, M.M., 2011. The need to breed crop varieties suitable for organic farming, using wheat, tomato and broccoli as examples: A review. *NJAS-Wageningen Journal of Life Sciences*, 58(3-4), pp.193-205.
154. MacRae, R.J., Frick, B., & Martin, R.C. (2007). Economic and social impacts of organic production systems. *Canadian Journal of Plant Science*, 87(5), 1037-1044.
155. Kremen, C., Iles, A., & Bacon, C. (2012). Diversified farming systems: an agroecological, systems-based alternative to modern industrial agriculture. *Ecology and society*, 17(4).
156. Reganold, J.P. and Wachter, J.M., 2016. Organic agriculture in the twenty-first century. *Nature plants*, 2(2), pp.1-8.
157. Muller, A., Schader, C., Scialabba, N.E.H., Brüggemann, J., Isensee, A., Erb, K.H., Smith, P., Klocke, P., Leiber, F. and Stolze, M., 2017. Strategies for feeding the world more sustainably with organic agriculture. *Nature communications*, 8(1), pp.1-13.

158. Ponisio, L.C., M'Gonigle, L.K., Mace, K.C., Palomino, J., de Valpine, P. and Kremen, C., 2015. Diversification practices reduce organic to conventional yield gap. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 282(1799), p.20141396.
159. Diacono, M., & Montemurro, F. (2010). Long-term effects of organic amendments on soil fertility. *Sustainable Agriculture Volume 2*, 761-786. Springer, Dordrecht.
160. Paz-Ferreiro, J., Fu, S., Méndez, A., & Gascó, G. (2014). Interactive effects of biochar and the earthworm *Pontoscolex corethrurus* on plant productivity and soil enzyme activities. *Journal of Soils and Sediments*, 14(3), 483-494.
161. Pant, A. P., Radovich, T. J., Hue, N. V., Talcott, S. T., & Krenek, K. A. (2009). Vermicompost extracts influence growth, mineral nutrients, phytonutrients and antioxidant activity in pak choi (*Brassica rapa* cv. Bonsai, Chinensis group) grown under vermicompost and chemical fertiliser. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 89(14), 2383-2392.
162. Williams, A., Kane, D. A., Ewing, P. M., Atwood, L. W., Jilling, A., Li, M., ... & Davis, A. S. (2016). Soil functional zone management: A vehicle for enhancing production and soil ecosystem services in row-crop agroecosystems. *Frontiers in plant science*, 7, 65.
163. Evanylo, G. K., Sherony, C., Spargo, J. T., Starner, D. E., Brosius, M., & Haering, K. C. (2008). Soil and water environmental effects of fertilizer-, manure-, and compost-based fertility practices in an organic vegetable cropping system. *Agriculture, ecosystems & environment*, 127(1-2), 50-58.
164. Mbuthia, L. W., Acosta-Martínez, V., DeBruyn, J., Schaeffer, S., Tyler, D., Odoi, E., Mphesha, M., Walker, F., & Eash, N. (2015). Long term tillage, cover crop, and fertilization effects on microbial community structure, activity: Implications for soil quality. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 89, 24-34.
165. Andrews, S. S., Karlen, D. L., Cambardella, C. A. (2004). The soil management assessment framework. *Soil Science Society of America Journal* 68, 1945–1962.
166. Walsh, J.J., Jones, D.L., Williams, A.P. and Edwards- Jones, G., 2012. Replacing inorganic fertilizer with anaerobic digestate may maintain agricultural productivity at less environmental cost. *Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil Science*, 175(6), pp.840-845.
167. Kramer, A. W., Doane, T. A., Horwath, W. R., & Kessel, C. V. (2002). Combining fertilizer and organic inputs to synchronize N supply in alternative cropping systems in California. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 91(1-3), 233-243.
168. Stenberg, M., Aronsson, H., Lindén, B., Rydberg, T., & Gustafson, A. (1999). Soil mineral nitrogen and nitrate leaching losses in soil tillage systems combined with a catch crop. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 50(2), 115-125.
169. Masulili, A., Utomo, W. H., & Syechfani, M. S. (2010). Rice husk biochar for rice based cropping system in acid soil 1. The characteristics of rice husk biochar and its influence on the properties of acid sulfate soils and rice growth in West Kalimantan, Indonesia. *Journal of Agricultural Science*, 2(1), 39.
170. Jorgensen, S.E. and Jensen, L.S., 1997. Application of bone char for P fertilization of soils: comparative effectiveness with triple superphosphate. *Communications in Soil Science & Plant Analysis*, 28(17-18), pp.1507-1520.

171. Agegnehu, G., Nelson, P. N., & Bird, M. I. (2016). Crop yield, plant nutrient uptake and soil physicochemical properties under organic soil amendments and nitrogen fertilization on Nitisols. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 160, 1-13.
172. Carr, P., Gramig, G. G., & Barnard, J. (2013). Macronutrient management in organic field crops: current practices and future opportunities. *Agricultural Sciences*, 4(04), 6.
173. Drinkwater, L.E., Wagoner, P. and Sarrantonio, M., 1998. Legume-based cropping systems have reduced carbon and nitrogen losses. *Nature*, 396(6708), pp.262-265.
174. Tiquia, S.M., Tam, N.F.Y. and Hodgkiss, I.J., 1997. Salmonella elimination during composting of spent pig litter. *Bioresource Technology*, 63(2), pp.193-196.
175. Wang, K.H., Hooks, C.R., Marahatta, S.P., 2010. Can using a strip-tilled crimson clover cover crop system followed by surface mulch improve soil microbial properties and reduce nematode densities in the root zone? *Applied Soil Ecology*. 45, 259–266.
176. Cantrell, K.B., Ducey, T., Ro, K.S. and Hunt, P.G., 2008. Livestock waste-to-bioenergy generation opportunities. *Bioresource technology*, 99(17), pp.7941-7953.
177. Qian, L., & Sabatini, D. A. (2020). Effects of dairy manure digestate on soil phosphorus dynamics and environmental risk. *Science of the Total Environment*, 714, 136828.
178. Yohalem, D. S., Nordheim, E. V., & Andrews, J. H. (1996). The effect of water extracts of spent mushroom compost on apple scab in the field. *Phytopathology*, 86(9), 914-922.
179. Mbuthia, L. W., Acosta-Martínez, V., DeBruyn, J., Schaeffer, S., Tyler, D., Odoi, E., Mpheshea, M., Walker, F., & Eash, N. (2015). Long term tillage, cover crop, and fertilization effects on microbial community structure, activity: Implications for soil quality. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 89, 24-34.
180. Leifeld, J., Reiser, R., & Oberholzer, H. R. (2009). Consequences of conventional versus organic farming on soil carbon: Results from a 27-year field experiment. *Agronomy journal*, 101(5), 1204-1218.
181. Tuomisto, H.L., Hodge, I.D., Riordan, P. and Macdonald, D.W., 2012. Does organic farming reduce environmental impacts?—A meta-analysis of European research. *Journal of environmental management*, 112, pp.309-320.
182. Bruns, H. A. (2014). Comparisons of organic and conventional farming systems in the southern United States. In *Organic farming, prototype for sustainable agricultures* (pp. 159-180). Springer, Dordrecht.
183. Walsh, J.J., Jones, D.L., Williams, A.P. and Edwards- Jones, G., 2012. Replacing inorganic fertilizer with anaerobic digestate may maintain agricultural productivity at less environmental cost. *Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil Science*, 175(6), pp.840-845.
184. Kramer, A. W., Doane, T. A., Horwath, W. R., & Kessel, C. V. (2002). Combining fertilizer and organic inputs to synchronize N supply in alternative cropping systems in California. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 91(1-3), 233-243.
185. Larkin, R.P., Tavantzis, S. and Erich, M.S., 2016. The Effect of Organic Transition Strategies on Soil Health Indicators in Variable Soils. In *Organic Farming, Prototype for Sustainable Agricultures* (pp. 339-359). Springer, Dordrecht.

186. Peterson, D., Thompson, G., Saini, M., & Mueller, N. (2015). Agronomic and environmental evaluation of converting perennial warm-season grass pasture to annual cool-season forward-seeded small-grain silage. *Journal of soil and water conservation*, 70(6), 424-435.
187. Kunkle R, Holfmann JJ, Sunohara DD. 1981. Use of wood waste materials for turf grass establishment and soil improvement. *Residue Reviews* 78:1-12.
188. Hölzel CS, Harms KS, Küchenhoff H, Kunz A, Müller C, Buscot F, Torsvik V, Schäfer S (2020) Reduced abundance and microbial performance under antibiotics exposure in agricultural and grassland soils. *Nature communications* 11: 1-10.

UNDER PEER REVIEW