

6

Biofertilizers for Sustainable Agriculture and Carbon Credit Generation: Benefits and Prospects

Shivangi Zaveri¹ & Sumita Dasgupta^{2*}

¹Research Scholar, Biotechnology Department, Bhagwan Mahavir University.

²Former Assistant Professor, Bhagwan Mahavir College of Basic and Applied Sciences, Bhagwan Mahavir University.

*Corresponding Author: sumitarup@gmail.com

Abstract

Sustainable agriculture refers to a farming system that can be sustained indefinitely. It seeks to satisfy increasing demand for food while preserving natural resources, maintaining environmental quality, and securing agricultural productivity for generations to come. Conventional farming methods, which rely heavily on synthetic fertilizers and chemical inputs, have boosted crop output but have also driven soil degradation, nutrient imbalances, water contamination, loss of biodiversity, and greenhouse gas emissions. These consequences have spurred efforts to find eco-friendly alternatives capable of sustaining yields while reducing environmental harm. Among the various sustainable agricultural inputs, biofertilizers have emerged as an effective and eco-friendly solution. Biofertilizers are formulations containing beneficial microorganisms that enhance plant growth and nutrient availability through natural processes like nitrogen fixation, phosphate and potassium solubilization, and the synthesis of growth-promoting compounds. By improving soil fertility, encouraging root growth, increasing nutrient-use efficiency, and supporting healthy microbial populations in soil biofertilizers decrease reliance on chemical fertilizers, raise productivity, and help restore soil health. They also strengthen plant resilience to environmental stress, supporting sustainable crop production amid shifting climate conditions. Beyond these agronomic benefits, biofertilizers help to mitigate climate change by reducing greenhouse gas emissions associated with the manufacture and excessive use of chemical fertilizers and by enhancing soil carbon sequestration. This creates a meaningful connection between biofertilizer-based farming and carbon credit systems, which offer financial incentives for practices that cut emissions or enhance carbon sequestration, encouraging wider adoption of climate-conscious farming approaches. This chapter explores sustainable agriculture's core principles, the drawbacks of chemical fertilizers, the classification and functions of biofertilizers, and their role in promoting soil health, environmental sustainability, and agricultural productivity. It also explores the relationship between biofertilizers and carbon

credits, highlighting their combined potential to support resilient, low-carbon, and sustainable agricultural systems for future generations.

Keywords: Biofertilizers, Sustainable Agriculture, Carbon Credits, Carbon Sequestration, Greenhouse Gases.

Introduction

Sustainable agriculture refers to a farming approach designed to produce food and agricultural goods while protecting the environment, preserving natural resources, and promoting the economic and social welfare of both current and future generations. It incorporates farming techniques that maintain soil health, manage water efficiently, limit pollution, support biodiversity, and reduce dependence on synthetic fertilizers and pesticides. At its core, sustainable agriculture strives to strike a balance among farm productivity, ecological health, and long-term viability (Velten et al., 2015). This approach has emerged as a fundamental strategy for addressing major global challenges, such as food insecurity, environmental degradation, climate change, and the unsustainable depletion of natural resources (FAO, 2017; Godfray et al., 2010). The growing global population has substantially increased the demand for food, placing greater pressure on agricultural production systems. However, conventional farming practices, characterized by the intensive use of synthetic agrochemicals and unsustainable exploitation of land resources, have resulted in declining soil fertility, contamination of water bodies, loss of biodiversity, and disruption of ecosystem stability. (Tilman et al., 2002; Foley et al., 2011). The impacts of climate change have further highlighted the urgency of sustainable farming. Rising temperatures, erratic rainfall, prolonged droughts, flooding, and the emergence of new pests and diseases have significantly disrupted agricultural output worldwide (IPCC, 2022). Sustainable agriculture represents a balanced and long-term approach to food production that integrates environmental conservation, economic viability, and social equity. It aims to meet the food and nutritional needs of the present generation while preserving the natural resources and ecological reliability necessary for future generations to meet their own needs (Pretty, 2008; United Nations, 2015). It promotes practices that protect soil, water, and wildlife while maintaining crop yields and enhancing the livelihoods of farming communities (Altieri, 1995). Sustainable agriculture equips farmers to remain productive amid these shifts while simultaneously reducing greenhouse gas emissions and minimizing environmental harm (Lal, 2004). Emerging technologies, including biotechnology, digital agricultural tools, and renewable energy sources are further advancing sustainable farming systems (Kumar et al., 2024). The integration of modern scientific innovations with traditional agricultural wisdom can improve crop resilience, restore soil health, and

optimize resource use (FAO, 2017; Kiprotich et al., 2025). Growing pressures from climate change, soil degradation, water scarcity, food insecurity, and a rapidly expanding global population have elevated sustainable agriculture to the forefront of the international development agenda. Consequently, governments, research institutions, international organizations, and farming communities increasingly recognize sustainable agriculture as a foundation for achieving global food security and the Sustainable Development Goals (FAO, 2017; United Nations, 2015; UNEP, 2016). Modern agricultural systems are no longer judged solely on their ability to produce enough food; they are increasingly expected to minimize greenhouse gas emissions, safeguard natural ecosystems, and make efficient use of finite natural resources (IPCC, 2022). In response, sustainable agriculture has promoted a wide range of environmentally responsible practices, including crop rotation, organic farming, integrated nutrient management, conservation tillage, agroforestry, rainwater harvesting, and the incorporation of biofertilizers and biopesticides into farming systems (Pretty, 2008; Conway, 1997; Gliessman, 2015). Within this landscape, biofertilizers stand out as a particularly valuable tool. The terminology surrounding biofertilizers varies across regions. In India, the term generally refers to microbial inoculants used to improve plant growth, whereas in many other countries, the term "microbial bioinoculant" is preferred (Mitter et al., 2021). Biofertilizers are formulations containing living or latent beneficial microorganisms that colonize the rhizosphere or plant tissues and enhance nutrient availability through natural processes such as biological nitrogen fixation, phosphate solubilization, potassium mobilization, and the production of plant growth-promoting substances (Vessey, 2003; Mitter et al., 2021). As noted by Bhardwaj et al. (2014), living microbial matter constitutes the primary component of these fertilizers. Accordingly, biofertilizers can be characterized as preparations of viable microorganisms that elevate soil fertility through processes such as atmospheric nitrogen fixation, phosphorus solubilization, organic waste breakdown, and the stimulation of plant development via naturally produced growth hormones. By harnessing natural biological processes to enhance nutrient availability and restore soil fertility, biofertilizers offer farmers a way to maintain and improve productivity while significantly reducing the environmental harm associated with heavy reliance on synthetic chemical fertilizers (Vessey, 2003; Mahanty et al., 2017).

Chemical Fertilizers and their Negative Impacts in Agriculture

Chemical fertilizers are synthetically produced, inorganic compounds that supply crops with the key nutrients required for healthy growth and increased yields, primarily nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and potassium (K) (Tilman et al., 2002). Widely used nitrogen sources include urea, ammonium sulfate, and ammonium nitrate, while superphosphate and diammonium phosphate are common phosphorus-based options. Potassium requirements are typically met through applications of potassium chloride or potassium sulfate (Savci, 2012). The widespread adoption of

chemical fertilizers gained momentum during the Green Revolution, driven by their capacity to deliver nutrients rapidly and increase agricultural productivity significantly. (Erisman et al., 2008). Over time, however, the unrestricted and prolonged use of these inputs has given rise to a range of serious environmental and agricultural concerns (Pretty, 2008).

Soil Degradation and Declining Fertility

Sustained dependence on chemical fertilizers takes a measurable toll on soil structure, texture, and long-term fertility. Excessive application tends to deplete soil organic matter and disturb the populations of beneficial microorganisms that drive nutrient cycling and maintain overall soil health (Mahanty et al., 2017). Gradually, soils become compacted, increasingly acidic, and less capable of supporting productive crops. Repeated fertilizer use can also throw soil nutrient balance out of alignment. Heavy reliance on nitrogen-heavy inputs without adequate replenishment of trace elements often leads to shortfalls in micronutrients such as zinc, iron, and manganese, ultimately compromising both crop quality and soil productivity (Savci, 2012).

Water Contamination and Eutrophication

A significant portion of fertilizers applied to farmland does not reach the intended crops. Instead, it is carried off by surface runoff or leached downward into rivers, lakes, and underground water reserves. The resulting accumulation of nitrogen and phosphorus in water bodies triggers explosive algal growth, a process known as eutrophication (Tilman et al., 2002). This depletes the oxygen dissolved in water, causing widespread death among aquatic organisms and destabilizing entire freshwater and coastal ecosystems. Nitrate infiltration into groundwater also presents a direct threat to human health, particularly for infants, in whom elevated nitrate exposure can cause methemoglobinemia, commonly referred to as blue baby syndrome (Camargo & Alonso, 2006).

Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Climate Impact

The industrial production of synthetic fertilizers is an energy-intensive process that draws heavily on fossil fuels, making it a notable contributor to global greenhouse gas emissions (Erisman et al., 2008). Compounding this, the over-application of nitrogen fertilizers in fields promotes the release of nitrous oxide, a greenhouse gas whose heat-trapping capacity far exceeds that of carbon dioxide (IPCC, 2022). The cumulative effect of these emissions means that chemical fertilizer use carries a substantial climate cost, adding meaningfully to the agricultural sector's overall contribution to global warming (Smith et al., 2007).

Loss of Soil Biodiversity

The chemical composition of synthetic fertilizers can be harmful to the diverse community of organisms that keep soils functioning. Nitrogen-fixing bacteria,

phosphate-solubilizing microbes, beneficial fungi, and earthworms are all vulnerable to the disrupting effects of prolonged chemical exposure (Vessey, 2003). As microbial diversity declines, the soil's ability to cycle nutrients efficiently weakens, and the stability of the broader soil ecosystem erodes — both of which undermine the foundation of long-term agricultural productivity (Mahanty et al., 2017).

Risks to Human and Environmental Health

Fertilizer residues that accumulate in crops and water supplies raise concerns about broader public health implications. Runoff carrying chemical contaminants threatens wildlife habitats and disrupts natural ecosystems (Savci, 2012). Prolonged exposure to environments affected by fertilizer pollution has been associated with heightened risks of respiratory conditions, potential links to certain cancers, and wider ecological imbalances that can take generations to reverse (Camargo & Alonso, 2006).

Biofertilizers: A Sustainable Alternative

Biofertilizers are preparations containing live microorganisms that work in partnership with plants to improve nutrient uptake and support healthy growth (Vessey, 2003). Unlike their synthetic counterparts, they are environmentally benign, economically accessible, and aligned with the principles of sustainable agriculture. By enhancing soil ecology rather than disrupting it, biofertilizers offer a pathway to maintaining and improving agricultural productivity without the environmental costs that accompany chemical fertilizer use (Mahanty et al., 2017).

Types of Biofertilizers

Biofertilizers are classified based on the specific nutrients they make available to plants and the mechanisms through which they enhance plant growth (Abbey et al., 2019).

Nitrogen-fixing biofertilizers rank among the most valuable microbial inoculants in sustainable agriculture. Nitrogen is essential for the synthesis of amino acids, proteins, nucleic acids, and chlorophyll, yet plants cannot directly utilize the nitrogen gas that constitutes nearly 78% of the atmosphere. Certain microorganisms overcome this limitation through the enzyme nitrogenase, which converts atmospheric nitrogen into ammonia and other plant-available forms through a process known as biological nitrogen fixation (Vessey, 2003; Olanrewaju et al., 2022). These microorganisms can be broadly classified as symbiotic, associative, and free-living. Symbiotic bacteria such as *Rhizobium* and *Bradyrhizobium* form root nodules on leguminous plants, where they fix atmospheric nitrogen in exchange for carbohydrates and a suitable habitat. This association can contribute substantial amounts of nitrogen to crops and significantly reduce the need for synthetic fertilizers (Glick, 2012; Mahanty et al., 2017). Associative bacteria such as *Azospirillum* colonize the root surfaces of cereals and grasses, fixing nitrogen while producing

phytohormones such as indole-3-acetic acid (IAA), gibberellins, and cytokinins that stimulate root growth and nutrient uptake (Vessey, 2003; Olanrewaju et al., 2022). Free-living bacteria such as *Azotobacter* fix atmospheric nitrogen independently in the soil and also produce vitamins and antimicrobial compounds that enhance plant growth and soil fertility (Mahanty et al., 2017).

Cyanobacteria, including *Anabaena*, *Nostoc*, and *Aulosira*, constitute another important group, particularly in rice cultivation where flooded conditions favour their nitrogen-fixing activity. The *Anabaena*–*Azolla* symbiosis, in particular, provides an efficient and low-cost source of biologically fixed nitrogen in paddy ecosystems (Olanrewaju et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2024).

Collectively, nitrogen-fixing biofertilizers enhance nitrogen availability through natural biological processes, improving crop productivity, reducing fertilizer costs, and minimizing the environmental impacts associated with synthetic nitrogen fertilizers. Consequently, they play a crucial role in sustainable and climate-smart agricultural systems (Mahanty et al., 2017; Shahzad et al., 2025).

Phosphate-solubilizing biofertilizers constitute another important category. Although phosphorus is an essential macronutrient for plant growth, a significant portion of soil phosphorus exists in insoluble forms that cannot be directly utilized by plants. Phosphate-solubilizing bacteria and fungi, including species of *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Aspergillus*, and *Penicillium*, convert insoluble forms of phosphorus into plant-available forms through the production of organic acids and phosphatase enzymes, thereby improving phosphorus nutrition in crops (Sharma et al., 2013; Kalayu, 2019).

Potassium-solubilizing biofertilizers play a crucial role in mobilizing potassium from insoluble mineral sources present in the soil. Potassium is essential for various physiological processes, including enzyme activation, photosynthesis, osmoregulation, and stress tolerance. Microorganisms such as *Bacillus mucilaginosus*, *Bacillus edaphicus*, and *Frateruria aurantia* release organic acids and other metabolites that solubilize potassium-bearing minerals, thereby increasing potassium availability for plant uptake (Etesami et al., 2017; Meena et al., 2014; Olaniyan et al., 2022).

Mycorrhizal biofertilizers, particularly arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF), form mutualistic associations with plant roots and significantly improve nutrient and water absorption. Fungal genera such as *Glomus* and *Rhizophagus* extend the root system through their hyphal networks, increasing the effective surface area for nutrient uptake (Fasusi et al., 2023; Sun and Shahrajabian, 2023).

In recent years, microbial consortia-based biofertilizers have gained considerable attention. These formulations contain combinations of beneficial microorganisms with complementary functions, such as nitrogen fixation, phosphorus

solubilization, potassium mobilization, and plant growth promotion (Singh et al., 2025). Such integrated biofertilizer products often exhibit synergistic effects, resulting in enhanced nutrient availability, improved crop performance, and greater resilience under diverse environmental conditions. As a result, consortium-based biofertilizers are increasingly being developed as next-generation solutions for sustainable agriculture (Chaudhary et al., 2023). Recent advances in microbial consortia, carrier technologies, and large-scale biofertilizer production are improving the commercial viability of biofertilizers and supporting their wider adoption in sustainable agricultural systems (Kumar et al., 2024; Samantaray et al., 2024; Chakraborty et al., 2024).

Biofertilizers in Sustainable Agriculture

Biofertilizers hold considerable importance in the context of sustainable agriculture, as they bolster soil health, stimulate plant growth, and reduce the reliance on synthetic chemical inputs. Sustainable agriculture aims to meet present food demands while conserving natural resources and maintaining ecological balance for future generations. In this context, biofertilizers represent environmentally friendly and renewable agricultural inputs that enhance long-term crop productivity while promoting environmental sustainability (Gliessman, 2015). These preparations consist of beneficial living organisms including bacteria, fungi, cyanobacteria, and algae that foster plant development by making essential soil nutrients more accessible. By colonizing the root zone or plant tissue, these microorganisms facilitate improved nutrient acquisition through natural mechanisms such as nitrogen fixation, phosphate solubilization, and the decomposition of organic material (Vessey, 2003). In contrast to synthetic fertilizers, biofertilizers pose no threat to soil or water quality and actively support ecological balance. Nitrogen-fixing, phosphate-solubilizing, and mycorrhizal biofertilizers collectively improve nutrient-use efficiency, reducing dependence on synthetic fertilizers. Their integration into crop production systems enhances soil fertility, supports long-term productivity, lowers production costs, and minimizes nutrient losses to the environment (Glick, 2012; Mahanty et al., 2017; Olanrewaju et al., 2022; Sharma et al., 2013). Beyond nutrient supply, biofertilizers positively influence overall soil health and the diversity of soil microbial communities. Prolonged application of chemical fertilizers tends to degrade soil structure, suppress microbial activity, and diminish fertility over time. Biofertilizers, by contrast, enrich soil organic content, promote better aeration, encourage beneficial microbial activity, and heighten overall soil biological function (Mahanty et al., 2017). These improvements in soil condition translate into enhanced water-holding capacity and greater resilience in crop production, particularly under the pressures of a changing climate. Biofertilizers also strengthen plants' ability to withstand environmental stressors and resist disease. Specific plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) generate hormones, vitamins, and antimicrobial agents that encourage root development and shield plants from harmful pathogens. This reduces

the need for chemical pesticides and supports more environmentally responsible farming practices. From an economic standpoint, biofertilizers offer tangible advantages to farmers by being cost-effective and reducing expenditure on synthetic fertilizers. Their incorporation into farming systems supports low-input and organic agriculture while curbing environmental pollution, decreasing greenhouse gas emissions, and limiting nutrient leaching into water bodies. In this way, biofertilizers make a meaningful contribution toward the broader objectives of sustainable agriculture — encompassing environmental protection, economic sustainability, and long-term food security. Biofertilizers improve nutrient availability, soil health, and plant growth by enhancing beneficial microbial activity. They reduce dependence on chemical fertilizers, increase stress tolerance and water-use efficiency, support organic and sustainable farming, improve crop quality, and help mitigate climate change through lower greenhouse gas emissions and greater soil carbon sequestration (Shahzad et al., 2025). The major roles of biofertilizers in promoting sustainable agriculture are summarized in Figure 1.

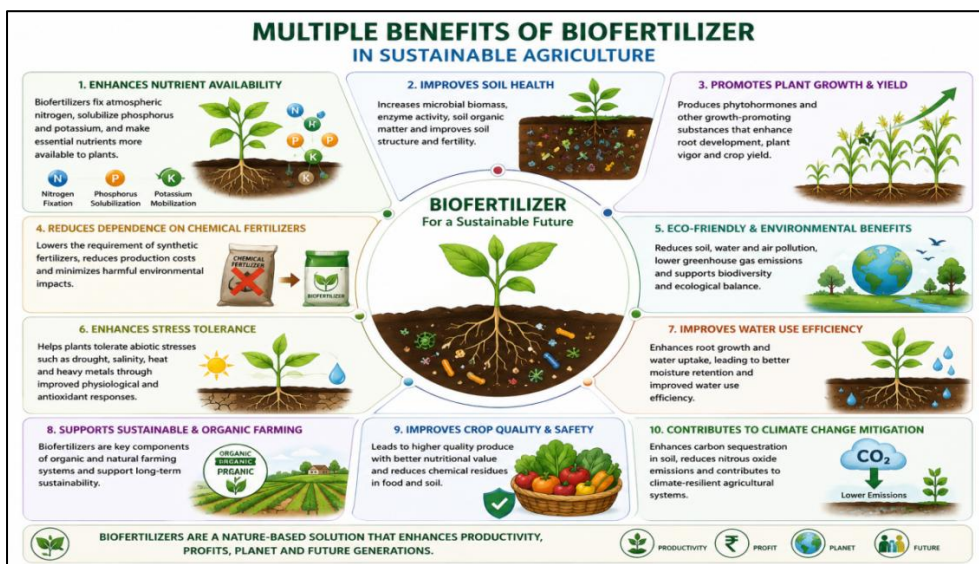


Figure 1: Major roles of biofertilizers in promoting sustainable agriculture.

Carbon Credits and Sustainable Agriculture

A carbon credit represents permission to emit one tonne of CO₂, or an equivalent quantity of another greenhouse gas, into the atmosphere. Companies that exceed their allotted emission limits are required to purchase additional credits to cover the surplus, whereas companies that emit less than their allowance can sell their unused credits to others. This buying and selling of credits between organizations has helped drive the growth of carbon trading markets worldwide (Gupta, 2011; UNFCCC, 2015). These instruments function within both cap-and-

trade frameworks and voluntary carbon markets, serving as a mechanism to curb greenhouse gas emissions while channeling financial resources toward climate-related initiatives (IPCC, 2022). Each credit represents the verified reduction, removal, or avoidance of one metric ton of carbon dioxide or an equivalent volume of other greenhouse gases. These credits are generated by projects that actively work to cut emissions including tree planting initiatives, shifts to renewable energy, methane capture systems, sustainable land management, and improvements in energy efficiency and can be bought and sold in carbon markets, enabling high-emitting organizations to offset their environmental impact (Lal, 2004). The origins of carbon trading lie in landmark international climate agreements, most notably the Kyoto Protocol and the Paris Agreement, which sought to place an economic value on carbon emissions as a way to discourage pollution (UNFCCC, 2015). Under this system, companies that keep their emissions below set thresholds can sell their unused allowances, while those exceeding permitted levels must purchase additional credits to remain compliant. This arrangement creates tangible financial motivation for businesses to invest in cleaner technologies and environmentally responsible operations (Stern, 2007). In the agricultural sector, carbon credits have become increasingly relevant as farmers adopt practices that boost carbon storage in soils and reduce on-farm emissions. Techniques such as minimal tillage, mixed agroforestry systems, organic cultivation, cover cropping, strategic crop rotation, and the application of biochar have all demonstrated the ability to lock carbon into soil and plant matter (West & Marland, 2002; Smith et al., 2007). Beyond their climate benefits, these approaches also enhance soil health, support biodiversity, and open up new income streams for farming communities, making them a valuable part of both environmental and rural development strategies (Lal, 2004). Soil itself plays a critical role as a natural carbon reservoir, and agricultural methods that build up organic matter within it can meaningfully draw down atmospheric carbon dioxide (Lal, 2004). Substituting chemical fertilizers with biofertilizers and reducing synthetic inputs further lowers nitrous oxide emissions another potent greenhouse gas strengthening the overall contribution of farming to carbon management goals (Smith et al., 2007). That said, carbon credit systems are not without their complications. Accurately quantifying how much carbon has been sequestered remains technically challenging, and concerns persist around market transparency, the exclusion of small-scale farmers from participation, and the risk of “greenwashing” where credits are claimed without genuine environmental benefit (IPCC, 2022). Robust scientific monitoring, independent verification, and well-designed regulatory oversight are therefore essential to maintaining the integrity of these markets. Taken together, carbon credits offer a meaningful pathway toward climate targets by aligning ecological responsibility with economic opportunity. When thoughtfully integrated with agricultural and conservation objectives, they hold genuine potential to accelerate the

shift toward farming systems that are both low in carbon and resilient in the face of a changing climate (Stern, 2007; UNFCCC, 2015).

Interrelationship between Biofertilizers and Carbon Credits

Biofertilizers and carbon credits are linked through their shared contribution to reducing agricultural emissions and advancing environmentally sustainable farming. Biofertilizers support cleaner farming by reducing reliance on synthetic chemical inputs, strengthening the soil's capacity to store carbon, and cutting down on emissions generated throughout the agricultural production cycle (Lal, 2004; Mahanty et al., 2017). These ecological advantages position biofertilizer-based farming as a relevant and valuable component of carbon credit frameworks (Smith et al., 2007). Conventional chemical fertilizers, nitrogen-based varieties in particular are significant sources of greenhouse gas emissions. Their manufacture is heavily dependent on fossil fuels, and when over-applied to fields, they trigger the release of nitrous oxide, a gas with a far greater warming effect than carbon dioxide (IPCC, 2022). Biofertilizers, including microbial agents such as *Rhizobium*, *Azotobacter*, *Azospirillum*, phosphate-solubilizing bacteria, and mycorrhizal fungi, offer a natural alternative by making nutrients accessible to plants through biological processes like nitrogen fixation and phosphorus solubilization (Vessey, 2003). Partial substitution of synthetic fertilizers with biofertilizers can significantly reduce greenhouse gas emissions associated with fertilizer production and field application, thereby contributing to more sustainable agricultural systems (Mahanty et al., 2017). Beyond emission reduction, biofertilizers positively influence soil health and microbial diversity, which in turn enhances the soil's long-term carbon storage potential. Greater microbial activity, stronger root development, and higher accumulation of organic matter all support the retention of carbon within the soil profile (Lal, 2004). Soils enriched with organic carbon function as effective carbon sinks, drawing in atmospheric carbon dioxide and holding it in stable form. The combined application of biofertilizers with conservation tillage, crop rotation, and organic farming enhances the sustainability of agricultural systems by improving soil health, reducing greenhouse gas emissions, and generating measurable environmental benefits that may qualify for carbon credit programs (West & Marland, 2002). There is also a direct link between biofertilizers and the eligibility criteria of many carbon farming and sustainability certification initiatives. Numerous voluntary carbon market programs reward farmers who implement climate-smart practices that simultaneously lower emissions and boost carbon sequestration (UNFCCC, 2015). The adoption of biofertilizers fits naturally within this category, as it reduces chemical pollution, improves the efficiency of nutrient utilization, and aligns with the principles of regenerative agriculture (Smith et al., 2007). Farmers who shift toward biological nutrient management and reduce their dependence on synthetic fertilizers may therefore find themselves eligible to earn and trade carbon credits. The benefits of

biofertilizers extend further to soil conservation and biodiversity, both of which reinforce ecosystem stability in the context of a changing climate. Improved soil fertility and enhanced water retention reduce the need for energy-intensive farming inputs, which lowers the overall carbon footprint of agricultural operations and adds to their value within global carbon management strategies (Mahanty et al., 2017). However, incorporating biofertilizers into carbon credit accounting is not straightforward. Quantifying their precise contribution to carbon sequestration and emission reduction is technically demanding, given the wide variation in soil conditions, climate zones, crop types, and microbial behavior across different farming environments (IPCC, 2022). Establishing credible participation in carbon markets therefore requires dependable monitoring systems, rigorous scientific validation, and consistent measurement standards.

In summary, biofertilizers and carbon credits converge around the common objective of climate-responsible agriculture. Through their capacity to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, build soil carbon reserves, and limit environmental harm, biofertilizers can play a meaningful role in carbon credit generation while simultaneously supporting the long-term productivity and sustainability of global food systems (Lal, 2004; UNFCCC, 2015).

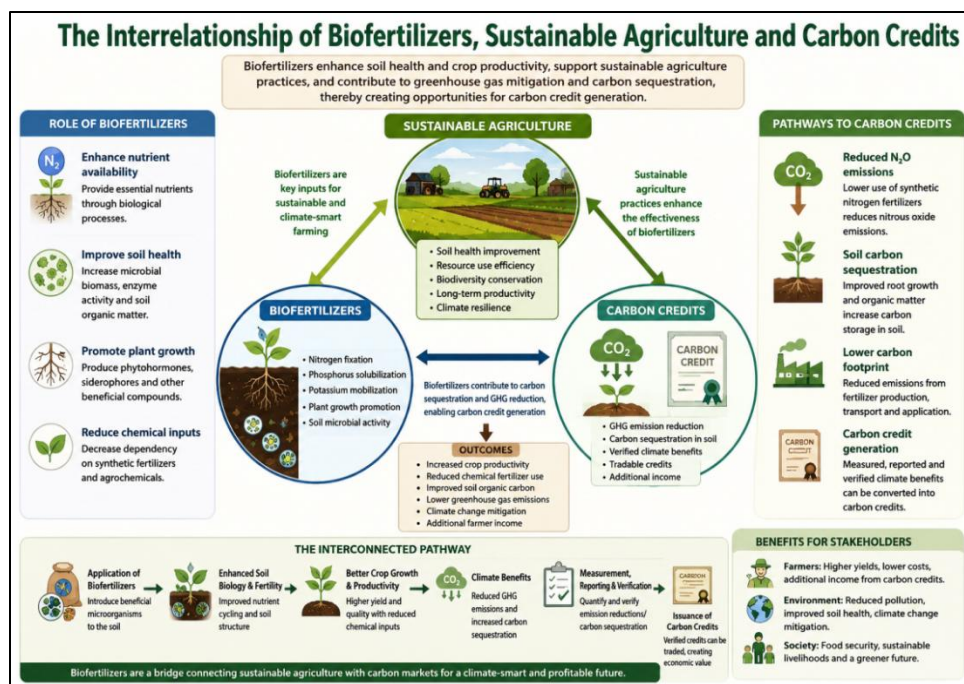


Figure 2: The interrelationship of Biofertilizers, sustainable agriculture and Carbon credits.

Conclusion

Biofertilizers play a vital role in promoting sustainable agriculture by improving nutrient availability, restoring soil health, and enhancing plant growth. Their application reduces dependence on synthetic chemical fertilizers, thereby minimizing environmental pollution, lowering greenhouse gas emissions, and preserving soil fertility over the long term. In addition to increasing agricultural productivity, biofertilizers contribute to soil carbon sequestration and improved nutrient-use efficiency, making farming systems more environmentally sustainable. These ecological benefits align closely with the objectives of carbon credit programs, which reward practices that reduce greenhouse gas emissions and enhance carbon storage. Consequently, the integration of biofertilizers into agricultural systems represents a promising approach to achieving sustainable food production while creating opportunities for carbon credit generation and additional income for farmers. Through their combined contributions to environmental protection, agricultural productivity, and climate change mitigation, biofertilizers can play a significant role in the development of resilient and low-carbon agricultural systems for future generations.

References

1. Abbey, L., Abbey, J., Leke-Aladekoba, A., Iheshiulo, E. M. A., & Ijenyo, M. (2019). Biopesticides and biofertilizers: Types, production, benefits, and utilization. In *Byproducts from agriculture and fisheries: Adding value for food, feed, pharma, and fuels* (pp. 479–500). Wiley. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119383956.ch20>
2. Altieri, M. A. (1995). *Agroecology: The science of sustainable agriculture* (2nd ed.). Westview Press.
3. Bhardwaj, D., Ansari, M. W., Sahoo, R. K., & Tuteja, N. (2014). Biofertilizers function as key players in sustainable agriculture by improving soil fertility, plant tolerance and crop productivity. *Microbial Cell Factories*, 13, Article 66. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2859-13-66>
4. Camargo, J. A., & Alonso, Á. (2006). Ecological and toxicological effects of inorganic nitrogen pollution in aquatic ecosystems: A global assessment. *Environment International*, 32(6), 831–849. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2006.05.002>
5. Chakraborty, S., [full author list needed]. (2024). A review of agricultural microbial inoculants and their carriers in bioformulation. *Rhizosphere*, 29, Article 100843. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rhisph.2023.100843>

6. Chaudhary, P., Kumar, A., Singh, B., & Sharma, A. (2023). Microbial consortia: An emerging approach for sustainable agriculture and enhanced crop productivity. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 14, Article 1192058. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2023.1192058>
7. Conway, G. (1997). *The doubly green revolution: Food for all in the twenty-first century*. Cornell University Press.
8. Erisman, J. W., Sutton, M. A., Galloway, J., Klimont, Z., & Winiwarter, W. (2008). How a century of ammonia synthesis changed the world. *Nature Geoscience*, 1(10), 636–639. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo325>
9. Etesami, H., Emami, S., & Alikhani, H. A. (2017). Potassium-solubilizing bacteria (KSB): Mechanisms, promotion of plant growth, and future prospects—A review. *Journal of Soil Science and Plant Nutrition*, 17(4), 897–911. <https://doi.org/10.4067/S0718-95162017000400005>
10. Fasusi, O. A., Babalola, O. O., & Adejumo, T. O. (2023). Harnessing plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in agroecosystem sustainability. *CABI Agriculture and Bioscience*, 4, Article 26. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s43170-023-00172-7>
11. Foley, J. A., Ramankutty, N., Brauman, K. A., Cassidy, E. S., Gerber, J. S., Johnston, M., Mueller, N. D., O'Connell, C., Ray, D. K., West, P. C., Balzer, C., Bennett, E. M., Carpenter, S. R., Hill, J., Monfreda, C., Polasky, S., Rockström, J., Sheehan, J., Siebert, S., & Zaks, D. P. M. (2011). Solutions for a cultivated planet. *Nature*, 478(7369), 337–342. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature10452>
12. Food and Agriculture Organization. (2017). *The future of food and agriculture: Trends and challenges*. FAO.
13. Glick, B. R. (2012). Plant growth-promoting bacteria: Mechanisms and applications. *Scientifica*, 2012, Article 963401. <https://doi.org/10.6064/2012/963401>
14. Gliessman, S. R. (2015). *Agroecology: The ecology of sustainable food systems* (3rd ed.). CRC Press.
15. Godfray, H. C. J., Beddington, J. R., Crute, I. R., Haddad, L., Lawrence, D., Muir, J. F., Pretty, J., Robinson, S., Thomas, S. M., & Toulmin, C. (2010). Food security: The challenge of feeding 9 billion people. *Science*, 327(5967), 812–818. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1185383>
16. Gupta, Y. (2011). Carbon credit: A step towards green environment. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research*, 11(5), 16–19.

17. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. (2022). *Climate change 2022: Mitigation of climate change. Contribution of Working Group III to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781009157926>
18. Kalayu, G. (2019). Phosphate solubilizing microorganisms: Promising approach as biofertilizers. *International Journal of Agronomy*, 2019, Article 4917256. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/4917256>
19. Kiprotich, K., Muema, E., Wekesa, C., Ndombi, T., Muoma, J., Omayio, D., & Tarus, J. (2025). Unveiling the roles, mechanisms and prospects of soil microbial communities in sustainable agriculture. *Discover Soil*, 2(1), Article 10. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s44378-025-00037-4>
20. Kumar, A., Saharan, B. S., Parshad, J., Gera, R., Choudhary, J., & Yadav, R. (2024). Revolutionizing Indian agriculture: The imperative of advanced biofertilizer technologies for sustainability. *Discover Agriculture*, 2(1), Article 24. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s44279-024-00037-y>
21. Lal, R. (2004). Soil carbon sequestration impacts on global climate change and food security. *Science*, 304(5677), 1623–1627. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1097396>
22. Mahanty, T., Bhattacharjee, S., Goswami, M., Bhattacharyya, P., Das, B., Ghosh, A., & Tribedi, P. (2017). Biofertilizers: A potential approach for sustainable agriculture development. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 24, 3315–3335. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-016-8104-0>
23. Meena, V. S., Maurya, B. R., & Verma, J. P. (2014). Does a rhizospheric microorganism enhance K⁺ availability in agricultural soils? *Microbiological Research*, 169(5–6), 337–347. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micres.2013.09.003>
24. Mitter, E. K., Tosi, M., Obregón, D., Dunfield, K. E., & Germida, J. J. (2021). Rethinking crop nutrition in times of modern microbiology: Innovative biofertilizer technologies. *Frontiers in Sustainable Food Systems*, 5, Article 606815. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fsufs.2021.606815>
25. Olaniyan, F. T., Alori, E. T., Adekiya, A. O., Ayorinde, B. B., Daramola, F. Y., Osemwegie, O. O., & Babalola, O. O. (2022). The use of soil microbial potassium solubilizers in potassium nutrient availability in soil and its dynamics. *Annals of Microbiology*, 72, Article 45. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13213-022-01701-8>
26. Olanrewaju, O. S., Ayangbenro, A. S., Glick, B. R., & Babalola, O. O. (2022). Biofertilizer: The future of food security and food safety. *Microorganisms*, 10(6), Article 1220. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms10061220>

27. Pretty, J. (2008). Agricultural sustainability: Concepts, principles and evidence. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 363(1491), 447–465. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2007.2163>
28. Samantaray, A., Chattaraj, S., Mitra, D., Ganguly, A., Kumar, R., Gaur, A., Mohapatra, P. K. D., de Los Santos-Villalobos, S., Rani, A., & Thatoi, H. (2024). Advances in microbial based bio-inoculum for amelioration of soil health and sustainable crop production. *Current Research in Microbial Sciences*, 7, Article 100251. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crmicr.2024.100251>
29. Savci, S. (2012). An agricultural pollutant: Chemical fertilizer. *International Journal of Environmental Science and Development*, 3(1), 73–80. <https://doi.org/10.7763/IJESD.2012.V3.191>
30. Shahzad, M., Hayat, R., Mujtaba, G., Rehman, W. U., & Nadeem, M. (2025). Biofertilizers in sustainable agriculture: Mechanisms, applications, and future prospects. *Discover Agriculture*, 3, Article 224. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s44279-025-00318-0>
31. Sharma, S. B., Sayyed, R. Z., Trivedi, M. H., & Gobi, T. A. (2013). Phosphate solubilizing microbes: Sustainable approach for managing phosphorus deficiency in agricultural soils. *SpringerPlus*, 2, Article 587. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2193-1801-2-587>
32. Singh, M., Jha, S., Pathak, D., & Maisnam, G. (2025). Advancing biofertilizers: The evolution from single-strain formulations to synthetic microbial communities (SynCom) for sustainable agriculture. *Discover Plants*, 2(1), Article 226. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s44372-025-00318-w>
33. Smith, P., Martino, D., Cai, Z., Gwary, D., Janzen, H., Kumar, P., McCarl, B., Ogle, S., O'Mara, F., Rice, C., Scholes, B., & Sirotenko, O. (2007). Agriculture. In B. Metz, O. R. Davidson, P. R. Bosch, R. Dave, & L. A. Meyer (Eds.), *Climate change 2007: Mitigation. Contribution of Working Group III to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge University Press.
34. Stern, N. (2007). *The economics of climate change: The Stern review*. Cambridge University Press.
35. Sun, W., & Shahrajabian, M. H. (2023). The application of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi as microbial biostimulants: Sustainable approaches in modern agriculture. *Plants*, 12(17), Article 3101. <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants12173101>
36. Tilman, D., Cassman, K. G., Matson, P. A., Naylor, R., & Polasky, S. (2002). Agricultural sustainability and intensive production practices. *Nature*, 418(6898), 671–677. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature01014>

37. United Nations. (2015). *Transforming our world: The 2030 agenda for sustainable development*.
38. United Nations Environment Programme. (2016). *Global environment outlook (GEO-6)*.
39. United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2015). *Paris Agreement*.
40. Velten, S., Leventon, J., Jager, N., & Newig, J. (2015). What is sustainable agriculture? A systematic review. *Sustainability*, 7(6), 7833–7865. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su7067833>
41. Vessey, J. K. (2003). Plant growth promoting rhizobacteria as biofertilizers. *Plant and Soil*, 255(2), 571–586. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1026037216893>
42. West, T. O., & Marland, G. (2002). A synthesis of carbon sequestration, carbon emissions, and net carbon flux in agriculture: Comparing tillage practices in the United States. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 91(1–3), 217–232. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8809\(01\)00233-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8809(01)00233-X).

