

1 **Bacterial and fungal community dynamics during different stages of agro-industrial**
2 **waste composting and its relationship with compost suppressiveness**

3 Alicia Hernández-Lara*¹, Margarita Ros¹, Jessica Cuartero¹, María Ángeles
4 Bustamante², Raul Moral², Francisco Javier Andreu-Rodríguez², Juan A. Fernández^{3,4},
5 Catalina Egea-Gilabert^{3,4}, José Antonio Pascual¹

6 *Corresponding author: ahernandez@cebas.csic.es

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8 ¹ Centro de Edafología y Biología Aplicada del Segura (CSIC). Campus Universitario
9 de Espinardo, 30100 Murcia, Spain

10 ² Department of Agrochemistry and Environment, Miguel Hernández University, EPS-
11 Orihuela, ctra. Beniel Km 3.2, 03312, Orihuela, Alicante, Spain

12 ³ Department of Agricultural Engineering, Technical University of Cartagena, Paseo
13 Alfonso XIII, 48, 30203 Cartagena, Spain

14 ⁴ Plant Biotechnology Institute, Edificio I + D + i, Campus Muralla del Mar, 30202
15 Cartagena, Spain

16 **Abstract**

17 Composting is an advantageous and efficient process for recycling organic waste
18 and producing organic fertilizers, and many kinds of microorganisms are involved in
19 obtaining quality compost with suppressive activity against soil-borne pathogens. The
20 aim of this work was to evaluate the main differences in the effects of three composting
21 piles on the whole bacterial and fungal communities of baby-leaf lettuce crops and to
22 determine the specific communities by high-throughput sequencing related to
23 suppressiveness against the soil-borne plant pathogen *Pythium irregulare*- (*P.*

24 *irregulare*). Compost pile A was composed of 47% vineyard pruning waste, 34%
25 tomato waste and 19% leek waste; pile B was composed of 54% vineyard pruning waste
26 and 46% tomato waste; and pile C was composed of 42% vineyard pruning waste, 25%
27 tomato waste and 33% olive mill cake. The temperature and the chemical properties of
28 the piles were monitored throughout the composting process. In addition, the potential
29 suppressive capacity of the three composts (C_A, C_B and C_C) against *P. irregulare*
30 in baby-leaf lettuce was assessed. We found that the bacterial community changed
31 according to the composting phases and composting pile and was sensitive to chemical
32 changes throughout the composting process. The fungal community, on the other hand,
33 did not change between the composting piles and proved to be less influenced by
34 chemical properties, but it did change, principally, according to the composting phases.
35 All composts obtained were considered stable and mature, while compost C_C showed
36 higher maturity than composts C_A and C_B. During composting, the three piles
37 contained a greater relative abundance of Bacteroidetes, Proteobacterias and
38 Actinobacterias related to the suppression of soil-borne pathogens such as *Pythium*
39 *irregulare*. Composts C_A and C_B, however, showed higher suppressiveness against
40 *P. irregulare* than compost C_C. Deeper study showed that this observed
41 suppressiveness was favored by a higher abundance of genera that have been described
42 as potential suppressive against *P. irregulare*, such as *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium*,
43 *Truopera* and *Luteimonas*.

44 **Keywords:** composting process, microbial community, agro-industrial wastes, chemical
45 factors, *Pythium irregulare* suppressiveness

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 The bioconversion of agro-industry wastes through the composting process
49 results in a stabilized end-product known as compost (Meng et al., 2019). This is an
50 efficient and environmentally friendly method for managing and recycling agro-industry
51 waste and turning it into something that can be used as a soil amendment or as a
52 component of growing media (Blaya et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018b; Ding et al.,
53 2020). Such composts are used due to their high level of organic matter and nutrients,
54 lack of pathogens and low heavy metal content (Meng et al., 2019). Furthermore, they
55 have demonstrated a potentially suppressive effect against soil-borne pathogens
56 (Morales et al., 2016).

57 Microorganisms play a key role during the whole composting process and
58 compost maturation. The presence of certain microorganisms with different enzymatic
59 capabilities reflects the evolution of the composting process and results in added-value
60 quality compost (Meng et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2019; Zhong et al., 2020). Bacteria and
61 fungi are both functional communities in this process. Bacteria are characterized as
62 having high metabolic versatility (Ma et al., 2020), while fungi have the ability to use
63 many different carbon substrates as food sources and survive under different conditions,
64 including dry and acidic conditions or low nitrogen conditions (Meng et al., 2019).

65 Microbial abundance and diversity during composting depends on (among other
66 factors) the initial feedstock materials, the temperature, the oxygen concentration, the
67 moisture content and the pH and carbon/nitrogen ratio (Zhang et al., 2018a). The initial
68 feedstock carries the nutrients necessary for feeding the microorganisms and providing
69 a suitable environment for them. These microorganisms are responsible for the increase
70 in temperature during the composting process that reduces plant and animal pathogens
71 and weeds. The initial feedstock materials used are also responsible for the degree of
72 pile aeration (Meng et al., 2019). Temperature also controls the composting process due

73 to its effect on the microbial metabolic rate and population structure, which defines the
74 different composting phases, such as the mesophilic, thermophilic and maturation
75 phases (Jiang et al., 2017). Many difficulties in the composting process can be traced to
76 insufficient oxygen levels for supporting the decomposition process, a lack of optimal
77 moisture levels and insufficient turning frequency; all of these issues are influenced by
78 the type of initial feedstock (Tiquia, 2005; Bernal et al., 2009).

79 Quality compost must be mature—a quality linked to plant-growth potential and
80 phytotoxicity—and stable—a quality linked to the compost microbial activity (Azim et
81 al., 2018). Moreover, apart from these basic characteristics, composts can show added-
82 value properties, such as suppressive activity against phytopathogens and a biostimulant
83 and/or biofertilizing effect (Morales et al., 2016; De Corato, 2020). Composts made
84 from specific agro-industrial wastes and by-products have been proven to suppress a
85 wide variety of soil-borne plant pathogens (Bonanomi et al., 2007). Particularly,
86 composts made from tomato or leek waste from agri-food production processes, olive
87 mill cakes from olive oil industries and vineyard pruning residues from the wine
88 industry have been used to suppress *Pythium irregulare* (*P. irregulare*) in baby-leaf
89 lettuce (Hernández-Lara et al., 2021). This is one of the crops that is most affected by
90 this oomycete (Giménez et al., 2019), which mainly causes damping off and significant
91 reductions in plant growth (Van Beneden et al., 2009; Hernández-Lara et al., 2021).

92 The microbiota in composts have been found to be the main factor responsible
93 for suppressiveness. According to De Corato et al., (2018) composts from green wastes
94 are colonized by different fungi and bacteria belonging to highly diversified taxonomic
95 groups, such as *Bacillus*, *Trichoderma*, *Fusarium*, and other Eukarya belonging to
96 Ascomycota and Basidiomycota—all are potentially effective in controlling *P.*
97 *irregulare* and other soil-borne pathogens. Monitoring microbial succession is therefore

98 important in effectively managing the composting process (Zhang et al., 2018a).
99 Currently, the 16sRNA/ITS high-throughput sequencing technology is widely used for
100 exploring microbial diversity. It has been used to analyze the microbial communities in
101 samples from several different environments, including soils (Sun et al., 2015),
102 wastewater treatment plants (Prevost et al., 2015), water systems (Tiwari et al., 2021),
103 and composts (Holman et al., 2016).

104 The aim of this study was to determine the main differences between the
105 microbial communities in mixtures of different feedstocks (vineyard pruning waste,
106 tomato waste, leek waste and olive mill cake) during the different phases of composting
107 that could influence the suppressive activity of three specific composts against *P.*
108 *irregulare* in a baby-leaf lettuce crop. In this study, we considered the following
109 hypotheses: 1. Mixtures from different organic wastes and proportions can produce
110 composts with different microbiota and chemical characteristics, and consequently,
111 show different suppressive activity against *P. irregulare*; 2. Differences in the microbial
112 community between the different phases can be higher in the initial and maturation
113 phases; and 3. The stability and maturity of composts can influence suppressive activity
114 against *P. irregulare*.

115

116 **2. Materials and methods**

117 **2.1 Composting procedure and sampling**

118 Three open-air composting piles (10 m³) using the turning composting system
119 were established at Miguel Hernández University (Orihuela, Alicante, Spain). The piles
120 were composed of different proportions of agro-industrial wastes (dry weight basis), as
121 follows: Pile A: 47% vineyard pruning waste, 34% tomato waste and 19% leek waste;

122 Pile B: 54% vineyard pruning waste and 46% tomato waste; and Pile C: 42% vineyard
123 pruning waste, 25% tomato waste and 33% olive mill cake. The characteristics of the
124 initial wastes are shown in [Table 1](#). Mechanical turnings were carried out weekly until
125 the end of the bio-oxidative phase, and irrigation was conducted periodically to keep the
126 moisture of each composting pile at around 65%. The temperature was automatically
127 measured every six hours with a temperature data logger (HOBO-Data Logger U12-
128 006) at 30 cm from the surface. The composting process was monitored for 226 days in
129 the three piles. The samples were collected from three different sites throughout the
130 length of the composting pile, and for each of the three samples, seven different sub-
131 samples from the whole profile (from the top to the bottom of the pile) were taken and
132 mixed. The compost sampling was determined by the temperature conditions of the pile:
133 a) at the beginning of the composting process (initial); b) during the thermophilic phase
134 (thermophilic); c) when piles had cooled to ambient temperature and the temperature
135 did not increase (end of the bio-oxidative phase); and d) after the maturation phase
136 (maturation). The samplings correspond, respectively, to days 1, 70, 157 and 226 for
137 pile A; 1, 73, 157 and 226 for pile B; and 1, 60, 166 and 216 for pile C.

138 Each sample was sub-divided into two parts: one was stored at -80° C for DNA
139 extraction and the other was stored at 4° C for the later determination of
140 physicochemical and chemical properties.

141

142 **2.2 Chemical properties**

143 The pH and electrical conductivity (EC) of the composts were measured in a
144 1:10 (w/v) water-soluble extract, after shaking the fresh samples at 120 r/min for 60
145 min, using a pH meter and conductivity meter (Crison), respectively. Total nitrogen
146 (TN) and total organic carbon (TOC) were determined by dry combustion at 950 °C

147 using an Elemental Analyzer (C/N Flash EA 112 Series-Leco Truspec). The principle of
148 this method is that a microportion of the sample is injected into a heated reaction
149 chamber packed with an oxidative catalyst, where the water is vaporized and the
150 nitrogen and organic carbon is oxidized and transported via carrier gas streams to be
151 measured by the analyzer.

152

153 **2.3 DNA extraction, PCR amplification and sequencing**

154 Soil DNA was extracted from 0.5 g of compost using the DNeasy PowerSoil kit
155 (Qiagen, Germany) and purified with a QIAquick Gel extraction kit (Qiagen) following
156 the manufacturer's instructions. DNA extraction was performed in triplicate. The
157 quality of the DNA was examined by electrophoresis in 1.5% agarose gel. In addition, a
158 Qubit 3.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) and NanoDrop
159 2000 fluorospectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) were used,
160 respectively, to quantify the DNA samples, prior to sequencing on an Illumina MiSeq
161 platform at the Institute of Microbiology of the Czech Academy of Sciences (Prague,
162 Czech Republic). The V4 region of bacterial 16S rRNA was PCR-amplified using the
163 barcoded primers 515F and 806R (Argonne National Laboratory) ([Caporaso et al.,](#)
164 [2012](#)), and the fungal ITS2 region was amplified using the barcoded primers gITS7 and
165 ITS4 ([Ihrmark et al., 2012](#)). Three PCRs per sample were used for sequencing purposes.
166 The PCR mix and thermocycling conditions are shown in Table S1. The PCR products
167 were purified using a MinElute PCR purification kit (QIAGEN) according to the
168 manufacturer's instructions. A TruSeq PCR-Free kit (Illumina) was used for library
169 preparation. The sequencing of fungal and bacterial amplicons was performed in an
170 Illumina MiSeq C4SYS facility at the Institute of Microbiology of the Czech Academy
171 of Sciences (Prague, Czech Republic).

172 **2.4 Bioinformatics analysis**

173 Raw sequence data generated from Illumina Miseq were processed in QIIME2 v
174 2020.2.0 (Caporaso et al., 2010) through Oracle Virtualbox v 6.1. Fastq files were
175 imported into QIIME2 with the ‘single end method’ and the sequences were then
176 denoised and filtered with the *dada2* pipeline to remove noisy and chimeric sequences
177 (Callahan et al., 2016). Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) were generated by the
178 VSEARCH plugin at 99% identity (Rognes et al., 2016). Taxonomic assignation of
179 OTUs was performed using “*feature-classifier*” against the Silva 132 database for
180 bacteria and the Unite database for fungal sequences. Mitochondria and Chloroplast
181 sequences were removed from the bacteria database, as were low confident OTUs. The
182 data were rarefied to the depth of sample with the least reads, 2,000 sequences per
183 sample.

184 The sequences have been deposited in the ENA database with the accession code
185 PRJEB44354 and the project (study) name Microorganisms in agro-industrial waste
186 compost.

187 **2.5 *In vivo* assessment of compost as a growing medium against *Pythium irregulare***

188 A pot experiment was performed to evaluate compost suppressiveness against *P.*
189 *irregulare*. The red baby-leaf lettuce (*Lactuca sativa L.*) cultivar ‘Antoria’ (Rijk Zwaan,
190 De Lier, The Netherlands) was used as a host plant. The composts were mixed with
191 either commercial peat 315 [Blond/black 60/40 (Turbas y Coco Mar Menor S.L.)] at a
192 ratio of 3:1 (w:w) or peat alone (control treatment). The main physico-chemical and
193 chemical characteristics of the peat were as follows: a pH of 5.6; an EC of 1.0 dS m⁻¹;
194 466.8 g kg⁻¹ total C; 9.4 g kg⁻¹ total N; 0.3 g kg⁻¹ total P; and 0.9 g kg⁻¹ total K.

195 A total of 54 washed lettuce seeds were planted in 26-cm³ pots. Nine replicates
196 per compost were inoculated with 1.5 mL of *P. irregulare* (8.23 log copies ITS g⁻¹) and
197 another nine were not inoculated. *P. irregulare* was isolated from lettuce plants with
198 damping-off symptoms and quantified by qPCR according to [Giménez et al., \(2019\)](#).
199 The inoculum of *P. irregulare* was obtained by blending 50 mL of sterile water on a 4-
200 day growth of *P. irregulare* in PDA. The pots were placed in a germination chamber at
201 18±1 °C in the dark with a relative humidity of 80% for 48 hours. After this, the pots
202 were randomly distributed in a growth chamber at 24/18 °C day/night temperatures with
203 a relative humidity range of 60-70%. The lettuce plants were collected 25 days after
204 planting, and their aerial parts were weighed to obtain the fresh biomass. For the plants
205 infected with *P. irregulare*, the suppressiveness index (%) was also calculated using the
206 following formula:

$$207 \quad (\%) \text{ suppressiveness} = (\text{FBL inoculated} / \text{non-FBL inoculated}) * 100$$

208 FBL inoculated: the fresh biomass of the lettuce grown on *P. irregulare*-infected
209 growing media; non-FBL inoculated: the fresh biomass of lettuce grown on growing
210 media not infected with *P. irregulare*.

211 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

212 The statistical package R ([RStudio Team, 2021](#)) was used to perform the different
213 statistical analyses. The normality and homogeneity of variance assumptions were
214 assayed by Shapiro-Wilk and Levene's test in the car package ([Fox et al., 2007](#)). The
215 mean comparison was performed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)
216 followed by post-hoc tests, Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD). When
217 homoscedasticity was not met a Kruskal-Wallis test was performed followed by Dunn
218 test with a 'Benjamine-Hochberch' p-value adjust. Bacterial and fungal alpha diversity

219 indices (Chao1 and Shannon) were estimated using the vegan package ([Oksanen et al.,](#)
220 [2019](#)). The effect of the different compost piles on alpha diversity was evaluated using
221 one-way ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis, and the differences were tested by Tukey's HSD
222 or Dunn's post-hoc test, respectively. To visualize the indices, boxplot was performed
223 in R using the ggplot2 package v 1.4-5 ([Wickham, 2009](#)) .

224 Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) was performed to visualize the variation in
225 community composition based on the Bray-Curtis distance. To evaluate differences
226 between piles, a Permutation Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) was
227 conducted using the 'betadisper' and 'adonis' functions with 999 permutations from the
228 vegan package assuming the homogeneity of the variance. In the cases in which
229 homoscedasticity was not fulfilled, an Analysis of Similarities (ANOSIM) was carried
230 out instead. Relationships between the bacterial community and the rest of the
231 parameters were determined using the 'bioenv' function from the vegan package to find
232 the best subset of parameters (using Euclidean distance) that had a maximum correlation
233 with the community dissimilarity matrix ([Clarke and Ainsworth, 1993](#)).

234 Redundancy analysis (RDA) was performed to visualize the correlation between
235 OTUs and chemical parameters (Vegan package). The OTU abundance was Hellinger
236 transformed prior to analysis with the retained variables from the bioenv procedure
237 ([Legendre and Gallagher, 2001](#)), which was performed via the 'bioenv' function based
238 on Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

239 **3. Results**

240 **3.1 Temperature during composting**

241 The temperature profiles of the three piles are shown in [Fig. 1](#). The temperature in
242 the piles increased gradually for 80 days, reaching > 65° C (thermophilic phase); peak

243 thermophilic temperatures of between 70°C-75°C were attained. Once the thermophilic
244 phase was finished, the temperature progressively decreased (bio-oxidative phase) and
245 eventually reached constant values close to the external temperature (maturation phase).
246 Pile C showed the highest temperature values during the process, followed by pile B
247 and pile A (Fig. 1).

248 **3.2 Microbial diversity during the composting stages**

249 A total of 5,677,000 high-quality bacterial reads and 1,566,000 high-quality
250 fungal reads were obtained after quality filtering. In total, 1,215 bacterial OTUs and 40
251 fungal OTUs were identified, with 97% similarity.

252 Both bacterial and fungal diversity indices (Chao and Shannon) were calculated
253 based on the observed OTUs (Fig. 2, Table S2), respectively. In general, both bacterial
254 diversity indices showed an increase during the three composting processes, with
255 significant differences between piles during the first three stages (initial, thermophilic
256 and bio-oxidative). In the maturation phase, the piles showed similar values. On the
257 other hand, the fungal diversity indices of the three piles decreased from the initial to
258 the thermophilic phase and gradually increased in the two subsequent phases (Fig. 2,
259 Table S2).

260 Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity revealed
261 differences in the bacterial communities between the three piles that were independent
262 of the composting phase (Fig. 3a-d). PCoA of the fungal communities revealed different
263 community groups in the three piles in the initial phase (Fig. 3e-h), while in the other
264 phases, pile A and pile B were grouped together, completely separate from pile C (Fig.
265 3e-h).

266 3.3 Community composition of different composting stages

267 At the phylum level, 11 bacterial phyla were observed in the different composting
268 phases for the three composting processes (Fig. 4a, Table S3). In the three piles, at the
269 initial phase, the dominant phylum was Firmicutes (53.78%-70.59%), followed by
270 Proteobacteria and Actinobacteria. Bacteroidete was only observed in piles A and B. In
271 the thermophilic phase, the dominant phylum was Proteobacteria (41.60%-57.07%),
272 followed by Firmicutes, Actinobacteria, Chloroflexi, Bacteroidete and
273 Gemmatimonadetes. After the bio-oxidative and maturation phases, the most abundant
274 phyla were Proteobacteria (19.08%-30.59%), Bacteroidetes (22.22%-30.37%) and
275 Actinobacteria (17.11%-22.35%), followed by Chloroflexi, Firmicutes,
276 Gemmatimonadetes and Acidobacteria. Planctomycetes and Thaumarchaeota were only
277 observed in the maturation phase (Fig. 4a, Table S3). The phylum Firmicutes
278 significantly decreased through the composting phases, while Bacteroidetes and
279 Chloroflexi increased significantly (Fig. 4a, Table S3).

280 At the genus level, 55 classified bacterial genera were observed (Fig. 4b, Table
281 S4). In the initial phase, different genera like *Lactobacillus* (27.22%- 62.95%),
282 *Leuconostoc* (2.34%-41.42%), *Acetobacter* (12.02%-15.48%) and *Pseudomonas*
283 (3.08%-4.26%) were observed in all piles, and the first three disappeared after this
284 phase. Genera such as *Brevibacillus*, *Chryseobacterium*, *Paenibacillus*,
285 *Sphingobacterium* and *Stenotrophomonas* were observed in pile A and pile B only, and,
286 like the other genera mentioned above, they also disappeared after the initial phase. In
287 the thermophilic phase, genera such as *Acinetobacter* (24.57%-68.10%), *Bacillus*
288 (3.36%-5.09%) and *Pseudomonas* (3.52%-16.06%) were observed in the three piles
289 (Table S4), while genera such as *Pseudoxanthomonas*, *Solibacillus*, *Chryseolinea*,
290 *Planifilum*, *Thermomonospora* and *Thermopolyspora* were only observed in piles B and

291 pile C. After the bio-oxidative phase, the following three genera were found in the three
292 piles: *Chryseolinea* (21.59%-64.71%), *Bacillus* (13.64%-16.75%) and *Truepera* (3.35%-
293 11.85%) (Table S4). After maturation, the following four genera were common to the
294 three piles: *Pseudofulvimonas* (3.73%-12.51%), *Planktosalinus* (4.04%-8.47%),
295 *Chryseolinea* (9.96%-44.67%) and *Cellvibrio* (6.11%-21.57%).

296 The fungal community dynamics are shown in Fig. 4c-d, Table S5-S6. At the
297 phylum level (>1%), four fungal phyla were observed in the different composting
298 phases (Fig. 4c). The phylum Ascomycota was dominant in all phases and in the three
299 piles (58.34%-99.89%), except in pile B in the initial phase: in this case, Mucoromycota
300 was the most abundant phylum (96.13%) (Fig. 4c, Table S5), although it practically
301 disappeared after this phase. Basidiomycota was the second most abundant phylum and
302 was present in practically all phases and piles. Mortierellomycota was only observed in
303 all piles in the maturation phase.

304 At the genus level, 23 different fungal genera were observed (Fig. 4d, Table S6).
305 In the initial phase, different genera were observed in the three piles *Alternaria* (0.15%-
306 4.36%), *Candida* (0.74%-62.12%), *Issatcheukia* (0.22%-10.39%), *Kazachstania* (0.0%-
307 4.64%), *Kluveromyces* (0.34%-2.26%), *Vishniacozyma* (0.57%-5.18%), and *Mucor*
308 were observed in pile B only (70.77%); *Stemphylium* (1.93%), *Clostridium* (4.30%),
309 *Corynebacterium* (8.17%) and *Enterococcus* (6.87%) were observed in pile A only; and
310 *Clonostachys* (0.49%) was observed in pile C only. All of these genera disappeared
311 after the initial phase. *Aspergillus* (0.14%-7.75%), *Penicillium* (0.63%-3.06%) and
312 *Cladosporium* (6.0%-13.58%) were also observed in the three piles. In the thermophilic
313 and bio-oxidative phases, six fungal genera were dominant: in all piles, *Thermomyces*
314 showed the highest values (68.75%-89.27%), followed by *Mycothermus*,
315 *Myceliophthora*, *Coprinus*, *Aspergillus* and *Coprinopsis*. In the maturation phase,

316 *Thermomyces* still remained in high percentage in all piles (56.92%-65.99%), followed
317 by *Mycothermus*, *Aspergillus*, *Myceliophthora*, *Copriopsis* and *Coprinus* in piles B
318 and C. Some genera, including *Scedosporium* (0.43%-2.17%) and *Coprinellus* (26.5%-
319 2.88%), appeared in the maturation phase in the three piles, while other genera appeared
320 only in certain piles, like *Mortierella*, which appeared in piles B and C (2.33% and
321 0.82%, respectively) (Table S6).

322 **3.4 Chemical changes during the composting process**

323 The main physico-chemical and chemical characteristics of the different raw
324 materials used to produce the three composts are shown in Table 1. The pH and EC
325 increased throughout the process in the three piles: the pH values increased from 5.51-
326 6.69 to 8.94-8.41, and the EC values increased from 3.31-4.07 to 3.65-5.98 dS m⁻¹. Pile
327 A showed the highest pH and EC values during the whole composting process (Table
328 2).

329 The total organic carbon decreased in the three piles throughout the composting
330 process (Table 2). Out of the three piles, pile C showed the highest total organic C
331 during the four composting phases (Table 2). The total N content, on the other hand,
332 increased during composting, and pile A showed significantly higher nitrogen levels in
333 the initial phase (Table 2). In the three piles, the C/N ratio decreased gradually during
334 composting, while pile C showed the highest C/N ratio throughout the composting
335 process (Table 2).

336 In terms of microorganisms considered to be human pathogens, the composts in
337 our study showed levels below the maximum limit allowed in composts used as
338 fertilizers according to Spanish legislation (Real Decreto 506/2013; US EPA
339 regulations) (Hernandez-Lara et al., 2021). They can therefore be used as fertilizers

340 according to Spanish legislation ([BOE 2013](#)) and considered Class A Biosolid composts
341 ([EPA 2003](#); [EC, 2011](#))

342 **3.5 Correlation between microbial communities and chemical parameters**

343 Redundancy analysis (RDA) was performed to further analyze the relationship
344 between the chemical properties of the composts and the bacterial and fungal
345 communities during the different composting phases ([Fig. 5](#)). The bacterial community
346 was clearly separated in each phase according to the different piles ([Fig. 5a, b, c and d](#)).
347 The first and second axis (RDA1 and RDA2) explained 62.85%, 55.22%, 45.44% and
348 32.32% of the variation in the bacterial community composition in the initial,
349 thermophilic, bio-oxidative and maturation phases, respectively ([Fig. 5a, b, c and d](#)).
350 The length of the arrow in the RDA plot indicates the degree of correlation between the
351 environmental factor and sample distribution. The analysis indicated that the most
352 significant correlations with the bacterial community changed according to the different
353 phases. In the initial and thermophilic phases, pH, EC, TN, TC and C/N were
354 parameters that correlated the most with the bacterial community ([Fig. 5a, b](#)). In the bio-
355 oxidative phase, however, temperature was also incorporated ([Fig. 5c](#)). In the
356 maturation phase, only EC, pH and temperature remained significant ([Fig. 5d](#)).

357 On the contrary, the fungal community was not clearly separated in each phase
358 according to the different piles ([Fig. 5e, f, g, h](#)). The first and second axis explained
359 40.65%, 38.87%, 27.97% and 27.70% of the variation in the fungal community in the
360 initial, thermophilic, bio-oxidative and maturation phases, respectively ([Fig. 5e, f, g, h](#)).
361 In the initial phase, the parameters that correlated the most with the fungal community
362 were EC, temperature and TOC, and in the thermophilic phase, NT was also
363 incorporated ([Fig. 5e, f](#)). In the bio-oxidative stage, the correlated parameters were

364 temperature and C/N, while in the maturation phase, the correlated parameters were pH,
365 temperature and TOC (Fig. 5g, h).

366 **3.6 Compost suppressiveness against *Pythium irregulare***

367 Once the composting process was finished, the three composts obtained were
368 tested to evaluate their suppressiveness, and they showed a higher suppressiveness
369 index against *P. irregulare* than peat for baby-leaf lettuce crops (Fig. 6). Out of the
370 three composts, composts A (C_A) and B (C_B) showed higher suppressiveness
371 indexes than compost C (C_C).

372

373 **4. Discussion**

374 **4.1 Assessment of the composting process**

375 The selection of the materials and effective management of the composting
376 process are key in obtaining an added-value compost, i.e., stable organic matter with a
377 suppressive capacity and without phytotoxic compounds or plant or animal pathogens
378 (Morales et al., 2016). The temperature profiles of the different piles are indicators of
379 the microbial activity involved during the composting process, considering that
380 microorganisms play key roles in the transformation of the raw materials into compost
381 and in their suppressive activity (Hadar and Papadopoulou, 2012; Morales et al., 2016).
382 Pile C showed higher temperatures than the other piles during the process and a longer
383 bio-oxidative phase due to the high percentage of olive mill cake, a recalcitrant material
384 that slows down the composting process and may hinder the ability of microorganisms
385 and their enzymes to degrade the cake (Alburquerque et al., 2004).

386 The bacterial diversity increased during the composting process, probably due to
387 a higher species richness or equitability according to the availability of easily available

388 organic substances (Wang et al., 2018; Meng et al., 2019). Moreover, the piles showed
389 different bacterial community structures during composting, probably due to the nature
390 of the different mixes of starting feedstock and their transformation throughout the
391 different composting stages (Estrella-González et al., 2019; Jurado et al., 2020). On the
392 other hand, fungal diversity indices have been found to decrease in the thermophilic
393 phase and increase in the bio-oxidative and maturation phases, according to Galitskaya
394 et al., (2017). This is likely due to the fact that some fungal species are less specialized
395 than bacteria and are not thermo-tolerant so cannot survive at high temperatures (>65
396 °C). This suggests a self-purification process (Zhong et al., 2020). Fungal species are
397 often recovered in the maturation phase, where temperatures are moderate (<45°C),
398 explaining in part the highly similar fungal communities shared between piles (Meng et
399 al., 2019).

400 During the composting process, Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes,
401 Chloroflexi and Actinobacteria were the most abundant bacteria, and Ascomycota and
402 Basidiomycota were the most abundant fungi, indicating that these were the major
403 players in the composting processes studied (Wang et al., 2018; Meng et al., 2019;
404 Zhong et la., 2020).

405 In the initial phase, in accordance with Tian et al. (2013), Firmicutes was the
406 most abundant phyla, followed by Proteobacteria. The low pH in the initial phase,
407 principally in pile C (pH = 5.4), could be due to the high amount of lactic acid bacteria
408 such as *Lactobacillus* species. This species forms lactic acid and other organic acids and
409 also possesses the ability to produce antibiotic compounds (Partanen et al., 2010;
410 Nakasaki et al., 2019). The high level of lactic acid would explain the presence of
411 *Acetobacter*, which uses lactic acid as a main substrate (Partanen et al., 2010). The

412 presence of *Pseudomonas* can also indicate an ability to inhibit soil-borne pathogens
413 (Haas and Défago, 2005).

414 Ascomycota and Mucoromycota were the dominant microbial communities in
415 the initial phase, which is similar to results obtained by Liu et al. (2021). Ascomycota
416 dominate all the phases because they can secrete a variety of cellulose- and
417 hemicellulose-degrading enzymes and efficiently utilize nutrients in compost (Meng et
418 al., 2019). The highest abundance of Mucoromycota found in pile B could be due to a
419 high abundance of *Mucor*, a filamentous fungi normally dominant in fresh organic
420 wastes (Mehta and Satyanarayana, 2013; Wang et al., 2018). The presence of certain
421 yeasts able to metabolize cellulose and lignin—such as *Candida*, *Issatchekia* or
422 *Kluveromyces*, found in all piles, and *Vishniacozyma* or *Kazachstania*, found in piles A
423 and B—indicates that yeasts were followed by the growth of thermophilic bacteria
424 (Choi and Park, 1998; Partanen et al., 2010). In addition, some plant and human
425 pathogens, such as *Stemphyllum*, *Clostridium*, *Corynebacterium* and *Enterococcus*, and
426 soil-borne pathogens, such as *Alternaria*, disappeared with the high temperatures
427 reached in the thermophilic phase (Neher et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2017)).

428 In the thermophilic phase, the genera belonging to the phyla Proteobacteria,
429 Firmicutes and Actinobacteria were the bacteria groups involved in the turnover of
430 organic matter, including the extensive degradation of cellulose and lignocellulose
431 residues (Steger et al., 2007) . Moreover, these bacteria are characterized by a high
432 tolerance to unfavourable conditions or an ability to live under environmental stress,
433 mainly through endospore formation (Li et al., 2019; Meng et al., 2019). *Pseudomonas*
434 were also observed that can play important roles in the denitrification and degradation
435 of pollutants (Lalucat et al., 2006), and it is known that many strains could also promote
436 plant growth and suppress plant disease (Haas and Défago, 2005). Other genera,

437 including *Pseudoxanthomonas*, *Solibacillus*, *Chryseolinea*, *Planifilum*,
438 *Thermomonospora* and *Thermopolyspora*, were only observed in piles B and C, which
439 showed the highest temperature values during the composting process. Some of these
440 genera, e.g. *Solibacillus* and *Thermomonospora*, have been observed by other authors in
441 this phase (Antunes et al., 2016).

442 There was a high diversity of thermophilic and thermotolerant fungi
443 [*Thermomyces*, *Myceliophthora* and *Mycothermus* (*Mycothermus thermophiles*)] in all
444 piles. These fungi are capable of withstanding temperatures above 45 °C for a long time
445 (Zhang et al., 2015; 2018b). Other thermophilic fungal genera such as *Aspergillus*, have
446 been observed in accordance with (Sebök et al., 2016), this genus has been found to be
447 a common saprophytic fungi on food wastes in the initial phase (Neher et al., 2013).
448 During the bio-oxidative phase and maturation phase, Firmicutes decreased
449 significantly in accordance with other studies (Ren et al., 2016; Meng et al., 2019), and
450 Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Chloroflexi and Actinobacteria became the four major
451 phyla. The genus *Truepera*, able to live under thermophilic temperatures (Krishnan et
452 al., 2017), joined *Pseudomonas*, *Bacillus* and thermotolerant fungi such as
453 *Thermomyces*, *Mycothermus* and *Aspergillus* that were still maintained during the bio-
454 oxidative phase.

455 RDA analysis showed that the bacterial community was clearly more affected by
456 chemical parameters than the fungal community during the first three stages of
457 composting, indicating that the former community was more sensitive to environmental
458 fluctuations than the fungal community (Jiang et al., 2017; Meng et al., 2019).
459 Therefore, composts are a potentially profitable source of microbiota to be used as a
460 suppressive soil amendment or growing media.

461 In addition, the rates of nutrient transformation and compost maturation are
462 processes mainly sponsored by bacteria and fungi (Meng et al., 2019). The
463 biodegradation of the organic matter increases electrical conductivity and pH during
464 composting due to the degradation of acid compounds and the liberation of ammonia.
465 (Albuquerque et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2019). Pile C showed the highest levels of TOC
466 throughout the composting process due to its high percentage of olive mill cake as
467 starting feedstock, which extended the bio-oxidative phase in this pile (Albuquerque et
468 al., 2004). These processes also involved a decrease in the C/N ratio, which has been
469 widely mentioned as an index of compost maturity, with values below 15–20 being
470 indicative of mature compost (Morales et al., 2016).

471

472 **4.2 Determination of the suppressive properties of the composts against *Pythium*** 473 ***irregulare***

474 The composting process produces an ideal environment for the growth of
475 microbes involved in controlling different plant diseases (Mehta et al., 2014) and that
476 are the key in understanding the suppressive process (Blaya et al., 2016; De Corato et
477 al., 2018; Scotti et al., 2020). This process could occur through competition among
478 microbial populations, antibiosis, hiperparasitism and/or systemic acquired resistance
479 and induced systemic resistance (De Corato, 2020). The degree of decomposition of the
480 organic matter and the nature of the substrates critically affects the composition of
481 bacterial taxa, as well as the populations and activities of the biocontrol agents
482 contained therein, which are considered key factors in disease suppression (Ros et al.,
483 2005). During composting, the three piles in the current study contained a greater
484 relative abundance of Bacteroidetes, Proteobacterias and Actinobacterias, all of which
485 have been well documented to be correlated with the suppression of soil-borne

486 pathogens that cause plant diseases such as *Pythium irregulare* (De Corato et al., 2018;
487 Scotti et al., 2020). *Bacillus* or *Pseudomonas*, for instance, have been found to
488 effectively control pathogens.

489 In the maturation phase, composts C_A and C_B showed greater suppressive
490 activity against *P. irregulare* than compost C_C. It has been shown that the genera
491 *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium*, which were present in the highest abundance in both piles
492 A and B, promote suppression against soil-borne pathogens like *Pythium spp.* (De
493 Corato et al., 2018). In addition, the *Trupera* and *Luteimonas* genera were relatively
494 highly represented in all three piles. The higher abundance of these genera in piles A
495 and B than in pile C, could potentially be linked to the higher suppressiveness of these
496 composts, even though they do not have a well described suppressive role in literature
497 (Scotti et al., 2020). On the other hand, it has been shown that extremely stable and
498 mature compost shows lower suppressiveness (Van Elsas and Postma, 2007), as is the
499 case in compost C.

500 In addition, it has been described that plant-based composts can show
501 suppressive activity due to the presence of aromatic compounds or soluble organic
502 molecules, such as potentially bioactive soluble components released by the dissolved
503 humic substances (Pascual et al., 2000). This suppressiveness depends on the compost
504 composition (Morales et al., 2016), as we observed in our study in which the compost
505 with the highest proportions of tomato waste (34%-46%)—mainly tomato pulp waste
506 and peels—and with antimicrobial compounds, such as phenolic and carotenoid
507 compounds (e.g. lycopene, β -carotene and lutein), showed the highest suppressiveness.

508 **Conclusions**

509 This study showed that the selection of raw materials and effective management
510 of the composting process are important factors in obtaining mature compost that has
511 the added-value of being suppressive against plant pathogens such as *P. irregulare*. The
512 specific raw material feedstock selected produced different levels of bacterial and
513 fungal diversity and abundance throughout the composting phases, and significant
514 differences were observed among the composting piles. Feedstock materials combining
515 vineyard pruning waste, tomato waste and leek waste favored the presence of some
516 suppressive microorganisms in the final product, including *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium*,
517 and other microorganisms like *Trupera* and *Luteimonas* that could be responsible for
518 the observed Suppressiveness. Incorporating olive mill cake into the pile resulted in a
519 more stable but less suppressive compost.

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