UniversidadeVigo

Biblioteca Universitaria Área de Repositorio Institucional

Citation for published version:

María Gómez-Brandón, Cristina Lazcano, Jorge Domínguez. The evaluation of stability and maturity during the composting of cattle manure. *Chemosphere*, Volume 70, Issue 3, 2008, Pages 436-444, <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2007.06.065</u>

Accepted Manuscript

Link to published version: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2007.06.065

General rights:

© 2007 Elsevier Ltd. This article is distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-NoDerivatives (CC BY-NC-ND) licenses. https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/

1	
2	
2 3 4	Title: The evaluation of stability and maturity during the composting of cattle manure
5 6	Article Type: Original research paper
7 8 9	Keywords: DOC; Mineral N; Microbial biomass; Basal respiration; Enzymatic activities; Phytotoxicity
10 11	Corresponding Author: M. Gómez-Brandón
12 13 14	Corresponding Author's Institution: Universidad de Vigo
15 16	Order of Authors: M. Gómez-Brandón; C. Lazcano; J. Domínguez
17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29	Abstract: We examined chemical, microbiological and biochemical parameters in order to assess their effectiveness as stability and maturity indicators during the composting process of cattle manure. The composting material obtained after 15 d in trenches and at different times during the maturation phase (i.e. 80, 180 and 270 d) were analyzed. We found that the material collected at the end of the active phase was inadequate to be applied to soil as organic amendment due to its high content of NHb, its high level of phytotoxicity and the low degree of organic matter stability. After a maturation period of 80 d, the stability of the sample increased. This was shown by a reduction in the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) content and NH4+ concentration and also by a reduction in the microbial activity and biomass; however, 180 d of composting were not sufficient to reduce the phytotoxicity to levels consistent for a safe soil application. Among the various parameters studied, the change in DOC with composting time gave a good indication of stability.
30	Date manuscript was received: 2/27/2007
31	Date manuscript was revised: 6/22/2007
32 33 34	Date manuscript was accepted: 6/26/2007
35 36 37 38	This is an Accepted article that has been peer-reviewed and approved for publication in <i>Chemosphere</i> , but has yet to undergo copy-editing and poof correction. Please cite this article as an "Accepted Article", doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2007.06.065
39 40	
41	
42	
43	
44	
45	
46	

The evaluation of stability and maturity during the composting of cattle manure
María Gómez-Brandón [*] , Cristina Lazcano, Jorge Domínguez
Departamento de Ecología y Biología Animal. Universidad de Vigo. Vigo E-36310.
Spain
*Corresponding author:
mariagomez@uvigo.es (M. Gómez-Brandón)

1 Introduction

2 Cattle manure is a valuable resource as a soil fertilizer, providing a high content of 3 macro- and micronutrients for crop growth, and represents a low-cost alternative to 4 mineral fertilizers (Sharpley and Smith, 1995). However, the overproduction of organic 5 wastes by cattle breeding has led to inappropriate disposal practices; for example, their 6 indiscriminate application to agricultural fields and their improper timing of application, 7 that is, they are not applied when it would be most beneficial for crops. These practices 8 could cause serious environmental problems that could include an excessive input of 9 potentially harmful trace metals, inorganic salts and pathogens (Hutchison et al., 2005); 10 an increase in nutrient loss from soils through leaching, erosion and runoff due to not 11 considering the nutrient requirements of crops (Vervoort et al., 1998); and the emission 12 of hydrogen sulphide, ammonia and other toxic gases (Salazar et al., 2005).

13 The composting process may significantly reduce the environmental problems 14 associated with the management of manures by transforming them into a safer and more 15 stabilized material for application to soil (Carr et al., 1995). To obtain high quality 16 compost it is necessary to understand the changes that the material undergoes with the 17 composting process. The stability and maturity of the compost are essential for its 18 successful application, particularly for composts used in high value horticultural crops 19 (Wang et al., 2004). The terms stability and maturity are usually used interchangeably 20 to describe the degree of decomposition and transformation of the organic matter in 21 compost (Zmora- Nahum et al., 2005), despite the fact they describe different properties 22 of the composting substrate. Stability is strongly related to the rate of microbial activity 23 in compost, and is evaluated by different respirometric measurements (Lasaridi and 24 Stentiford, 1998) and/or by studying the transformations in the chemical characteristics 25 of compost organic matter (Pichler and Kögel-Knabner, 2000). Respirometric tests have been shown to be adequate for assessing compost stability because they are able to measure the extent of which readily biodegradable organic matter has decomposed during the composting process (Adani et al., 2004). Compost maturity generally refers to the degree of decomposition of phytotoxic organic substances produced during the active composting phase and to the absence of pathogens and viable weed seeds (Wu et al., 2000). Both these properties are critical for the quality and marketability of the final product.

8 The application of unstable compost to soil may produce a competition for 9 oxygen between microbial biomass and plant roots/seeds. This fact can deprive plant 10 roots/ seeds of oxygen, and lead to the production of H₂S and NO₂⁻ (Mathur et al., 11 1993). Another problem is nitrogen starvation of plants as microorganisms scavenge 12 soil N to make up for the deficit resulting from the application of unstable compost with 13 a high C to N ratio. The phytotoxicity of unstable composts represents another major 14 problem; this is due to the emission of ammonia and the presence of other phytotoxic 15 substances like phenolic compounds and ethylene oxide that is synthesized during the 16 decomposition of unstable compost in soil. Low-molecular weight organic acids (i.e. 17 acetic, propionic and butyric acids) produced by the anaerobic digestion of the organic 18 matrix are also responsible for compost phytotoxicity (Fuchs, 2002).

Management of the composting process must consider the potential agronomic value of the end product and its suitability for plant crops by evaluating its degree of maturity. Biological methods involving seed germination tests and plant growth bioassays have been used to evaluate the maturity of compost (Cooperband et al., 2003). This is a tedious work and there are disagreements regarding the ability of these tests to determine compost maturity (Brewer and Sullivan, 2003). A large variety of techniques have been reported for the determination of compost stability (Wang et al., 2004).

1 Chemical parameters such as pH, electrical conductivity (EC), cation exchange capacity, dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and the ratios of C to N and NH_4^+ to NO_3^- 2 3 have been applied as indicators of stability. Since stabilization implies the formation of 4 humic-like substances, humification indexes are generally accepted as a criterion of 5 stability, but their absolute values vary greatly among composts of different source 6 materials. Moreover, their determination requires proper separation of the non-humic 7 fraction from the fulvic acid fraction because other compounds with similar structure to 8 humic substances but different biological meaning (i.e. lignin residues, quinones, 9 polyphenols, fats, etc.) can be extracted (Sánchez-Monedero et al., 1999). Stability 10 indicators based on the study of microbial biomass and its activity have also been 11 proposed. Mondini et al. (2006) reported that microbial biomass can be used as a 12 stability parameter in ligno-cellulosic waste composts because it clearly reflects the 13 transformation of organic matter during the composting process. Respiration (CO₂ 14 evolution rate and/or O₂ uptake rate) is a general measure of microbial activity, and it 15 has been widely used to evaluate the stability of compost (Gómez et al., 2006). The 16 ATP content and enzyme activities are also useful as indicators of compost stability 17 (Tiquia et al., 2002; Boulter-Bitzer et al., 2006).

18 The use of different parameters appropriate to determine the maturity and/or 19 stability of composts will allow us to broaden our knowledge about the composting 20 process. Therefore, the two major objectives of this study were (a) to describe the 21 chemical, microbiological and biochemical changes during the industrial composting of 22 cattle manure and (b) to compare different parameters with respect to their ability to 23 evaluate compost stability and maturity during the industrial composting of cattle 24 manure.

1 Material and Methods

2 Source materials and composting process

This study followed the composting process of fresh cattle manure obtained from the agricultural cattle complex "Energía Viva, S.A." in León, Spain. The researchers did not control the composting operation or attempt to influence the course of the composting process, which involved an active phase of 15 d, followed by a maturation stage in piles for 270 d.

8 Cattle manure subject to the active phase in five trenches with approximate 9 dimensions of 42 m long, 1.8 m wide and 4.5 m high where each contained 10 approximately 300 m3 of material. Throughout the process, these trenches were aerated 11 from the bottom with forced air through a blower in order to induce air convection 12 movement into the material and deliver oxygen to microorganisms. The functioning of 13 the air blower varied as a function of the temperature: (i) continuous aeration when the 14 temperature of the composting mass overcame the value of 60 °C; (ii) intermittent 15 aeration according to a preset cycle of 5 min aeration and 5 min pause when the 16 temperature was found between 55 °C and 60 °C; and (iii) intermittent aeration 17 according to a preset cycle of 5 min aeration followed by 10 min pause when the 18 temperature was below 55 °C. The forced ventilation was combined with daily turnings 19 in order to homogenize the composting mass and to avoid the substrate compaction and 20 the subsequent low porosity and deficient air distribution. The composting material was 21 watered with water and the moisture content was controlled daily and kept within the 22 range of recommended values (45–65%; Miller, 1993).

During the curing phase, the composting mixture from each trench was pilled up and left to mature in maturation piles (50 m long, 2 m wide and 2 m high) up to 270 d in a space covered on top by a ceiling with the sides opened. These piles were turned for aeration twice a month and sporadically watered with leachates from the cattle farm.
Samples were collected at 10 random locations at 15, 80, 180 and 270 d and thoroughly
mixed to generate composite samples. All the samples were stored in sealed plastic
containers that were kept at 5 °C until they were analyzed. The initial fresh cattle
manure was also analyzed for comparison.

6

7 Chemical analyses

8 EC and pH were analyzed in water extracts (1:10, w/v). Total C and N contents were 9 analyzed on a Carlo Erba 1500C/N analyzer on dried samples. DOC was determined in 10 0.5 M K2SO4 extracts (1:50, w/v) by heat digestion (150 °C, 30 min) with sulphuric 11 acid and potassium dichromate and read in a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader 550 at 590 nm. Inorganic nitrogen (NH4⁺ and NO3⁻) was determined in 0.5 M K2SO4 extracts (1:5, 12 w/v) using the modified indophenol blue technique (Sims et al., 1995) with a Bio-Rad 13 14 Microplate Reader 550. The content of P was analyzed in ammonium bicarbonate-15 diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (AB-DTPA) extracts (1:6, w/v) by atomic absorption 16 spectrophotometry (Soltanpour and Schwab, 1977).

17

18 Microbiological and chemical analyses

Microbial biomass carbon (Cmic) was determined by the chloroform fumigation– extraction method (Vance et al., 1987) on moist samples (5 g fresh weight). The filtered extracts of both fumigated and non-fumigated samples were analyzed for soluble organic C using a Microplate Reader (Bio-Rad Microplate Reader 550, 590 nm). Cmic was estimated as the difference between the organic C extracted from the fumigated and the nonfumigated sample, multiplied by the K_2SO_4 extraction efficiency factor for microbial C (Kc = 2.64). Ergosterol is a membrane-bound molecule commonly used as

a fungal biomarker (Bååth and Anderson, 2003). The ergosterol content of the samples 1 2 was extracted by the microwave assisted extraction method and determined by HPLC 3 analysis (Young, 1995). Microbial activity was assessed by measuring the rate of CO₂ 4 evolution from the samples (5 g fresh weight) after 6 h of incubation. The evolved CO2 5 was trapped in 0.02 M NaOH and then measured by titration with HCl to a 6 phenolphthalein endpoint, after adding excess BaCl₂ (Anderson, 1982). Alkaline 7 phosphomonoesterase activity was estimated by determining the p-nitrophenol (PNP) 8 released, after incubating the samples (1 g fresh weight) with p-nitrophenyl phosphate 9 (0.025M) for 1 h at 37 °C, in a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader 550 at 400 nm (Eivazi and 10 Tabatabai, 1972). β-glucosidase activity was assessed by determining the PNP released, 11 after incubating the samples (1 g fresh weight) with β -D-glucopyranoside (0.025 M) for 12 1 h at 37 °C, in a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader 550 at 400 nm (Eivazi and Tabatabai, 13 1988). Protease activity was measured by determining the amino acids released, after 14 incubating the samples (1 g fresh weight) with sodium caseinate (2%) for 2 h at 50 °C, 15 using Folin-Ciocalteu reagent, in a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader 550 at 700 nm (Ladd 16 and Butler, 1972). Cellulase activity was estimated by determining the reducing sugars 17 released after incubating the samples (5 g fresh weight) with carboxymethyl cellulose 18 sodium salt (0.7%) for 24 h at 50 °C, in a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader at 690 nm 19 (Schinner and Von Mersi, 1990).

20

21 Phytotoxicity assay

22 The phytotoxicity of the samples was determined in distilled water extracts (1:5, w/v)

23 following the method of Zucconi and de Bertoldi (1987). The extracts were agitated

vigorously for 1 h and then centrifuged for 15 min at 10000 rpm in order to separate the

25 phases. The supernatant was collected and filtered through a 0.45 lm membrane filter.

1 The extracts were diluted to 30% and used as germination media. One milliliter of the 2 germination solution was pipetted into a sterilized Petri dish lined with Whatman #1 3 filter paper. Ten seeds of garden cress (Lepidium sativum L.), which is one of the most 4 sensitive test species for evaluating the phytotoxicity (Gehringer et al., 2003), were 5 evenly distributed on the filter paper and incubated 24 h at 20–25 °C in the dark. Then, 6 the germination was stopped by adding 1 ml of ethanol. The seed germination 7 percentage and root elongation of L. sativum were also measured in distilled water and 8 used as control. Finally, the germination index (GI), expressed as percentage of control, 9 was calculated based on relative seed germination percentage and relative root 10 elongation.

11

12 Statistical analyses

13 The statistical analysis of data was carried out using the SPSS 11.0 program for 14 Windows. A normality test was made for all the parameters prior to analyzing the 15 variance. The results were submitted to an ANOVA test in order to determine changes 16 in the variables with the composting time. A Tukey's test was used for testing 17 significant statistical differences among composting times. The relationships between 18 variables were defined by regression analysis. A principal components analysis was 19 carried out to summarize the results obtained with the chemical, biochemical and 20 microbiological parameters. Two principal components (PC1 and PC2) were used for 21 this analysis.

22

23

24

1 Results and Discussion

2 Chemical changes

3 The main chemical properties of the initial cattle manure and the composting mixture 4 after 15, 80, 180 and 270 d are shown in Table 1. An increase in the pH values was 5 recorded during the active phase, suggesting the alkalinization of the manure as a 6 consequence of the release of ammonia from the degradation and mineralization of 7 organic compounds. During the maturation stage, pH reached higher levels than in the 8 initial cattle manure and the sample collected at the end of the active phase. This 9 increase is not typical in the maturation phase, where it is expected that the pH drops to 10 neutral values and then stabilizes. The watering of the maturation piles with the 11 leachates from the cattle farm, and the turnings of these piles could be responsible of 12 these results. The pH values reached during the maturation are rather high and this fact 13 could have important implications on the fertility and productivity of soils subjected to 14 compost amendment, as well as on the development of pH-sensitive plants (Boulter-15 Bitzer et al., 2000). Moreover, acceptable pH ranges should be within tolerable levels to 16 microorganisms, i.e. bacteria generally need a pH range of 6-7.5; fungi can tolerate a 17 wider range, 5.5-8.0; and actinomycetes 5.0-9.0. Our composting material collected at 18 different times during the maturation phase presented pH ranges that exceeded the 19 previous ones; thus, the addition of these materials to soil may also strongly influence 20 the soil microflora.

The EC also affects the quality of composts in a large way because it reflects their salinity and suitability for crop growth. This parameter increased after the active phase probably due to the release of soluble salts like ammonium and phosphate resulting from the decomposition of easily biodegradable organic substrates. As in the case of the pH, higher levels of EC were found during the maturation stage. The addition of liquid animal wastes to the maturation piles and the turning of these piles
could have been responsible for the increase in EC. In spite of this increase, the EC of
compost obtained after 270 d of maturation did not exceed the limit value of 3 mS cm⁻¹
indicating a material that could be safely applied to soil (Soumare' et al., 2002).

5 When an organic waste is composted, the C to N ratio generally decreases 6 throughout the composting process due to the C losses as CO₂ and then stabilizes in the range of 10–15 (Chefetz et al., 1996). As the total N content changed slightly with the 7 8 composting time, in the present study, a significant reduction of this ratio during the 9 maturation phase was mainly due to the depletion of easily degradable carbon 10 compounds as outlined by DOC dynamics (Table 1). The rate of decrease in DOC 11 concentration depends on the source material and the composting technique utilized. 12 The amount of DOC during the composting process is related to the equilibrium 13 between various reactions which increase or decrease its concentration. The degradation 14 of solid polymeric material in the composting substrate may lead to the formation of 15 soluble organic matter, which would increase the DOC concentration. On the other 16 hand, the reduction in DOC depends on the continuous mineralization of soluble 17 organic compounds, and the repolymerization and condensation pathways that lead to 18 the formation of complex organic substrates with low solubility in water which tend to 19 flocculate out the solution (Said-Pullicino and Gigliotti, 2007).

Mineral N (NH4⁺ and NO3⁻) increased significantly during the active phase which indicates an intense mineralization. On the contrary, at maturation stage, the concentration of NH4⁺ greatly decreased due to its volatilisation as NH3 as a result of the high pH observed during this phase and most likely because of the frequent turning. Low levels of NO3⁻ were also found during the maturation phase. This fact may have been the result of leaching of NO3⁻ with the watering of the maturation piles. Brewer 1 and Sullivan (2003) reported a decrease in NO₃⁻ in yard trimmings compost obtained after 133 d of maturation probably due to the leaching from saturated compost or 2 3 denitrification. Compared to the initial cattle manure, the NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻ ratio greatly decreased during the active phase due to the high levels of NO₃⁻ detected in this stage. 4 5 After 80 d of maturation, this ratio increased with respect to the sample collected at the 6 end of the active phase. However, lower values of this ratio were reported in the 7 samples collected after 180 and 270 d of maturation mainly due to the low content of 8 NH_4^+ .

9

10 Microbiological and biochemical changes

The decreasing trend of microbial biomass throughout the composting process (Fig. 1a) was in agreement with other works (García et al., 1992; Insam et al., 1996; Klamer and Bååth, 1998), reporting results obtained with different biomass quantification methods (fumigation–extraction, substrate-induced respiration, ATP content, total phospholipid fatty acids content). The fungal biomass measured as ergosterol content also decreased during the active phase and maturation stage compared to the initial cattle manure (Fig. 1b).

18 The microbial activity measured as basal respiration reached a maximum value 19 of 5000 mg CO₂ kg⁻¹ organic matter during the active phase, which could be attributed 20 to the presence of easily degradable materials that stimulate the microbial community of 21 the initial cattle manure. Moreover, the release of labile compounds resulting from the 22 oxidative biodegradation of the matrix during the composting process could also explain 23 the higher value obtained on day 15 with respect to the initial feedstock (Said-Pullicino 24 et al., 2007). However, lower rates of respiration indicative of minor microbial activity 25 were recorded after the maturation period of 80 d (Fig. 1c). The decrease of microbial

activity was corroborated by the reduction in the microbial biomass as indicated by the
 low levels of Cmic during the maturation period.

Enzymatic parameters also reflect the activity of the microbial community and indicate the ability of composting to degrade a wide range of common organic substrates (Mondini et al., 2004). Important enzymes involved in the composting process include cellulases, which depolymerize cellulose; b-glucosidases which hydrolyse glucosides; amidohydrolases, proteases and ureases involved in N mineralization; and phosphomonoesterases and arylsulphatases that remove phosphate and sulphate groups from organic compounds.

10 In our study, the alkaline phosphomonoesterase activity greatly decreased during 11 the active phase probably due to the feedback inhibition of this enzyme by inorganic 12 phosphate (Ayuso et al., 1996). The high levels of extractable P found in the sample 13 collected at the end of the active phase support this hypothesis (Table 1). However, 14 compared to this sample, this enzyme activity was significantly higher after 180 and 15 270 d of maturation (Fig. 2a). This could be due to the decrease in extractable P content 16 during this period, as well as due to the formation of an enzyme-humus complex, which 17 would make this enzyme more resistant to denaturation (Mondini et al., 2004). Protease 18 activity decreased throughout the process (Fig. 2b), which is indicative of a reduction in 19 the substrate for protease capable of activating the synthesis of this enzyme (Diaz 20 Burgos and Polo, 1991). Compared to the initial cattle manure, lower levels of cellulase 21 activity were reported during the active and maturation stages (Fig. 2c). On the other 22 hand there were no significant differences in b-glucosidase activity with the composting 23 time (Fig. 2d). It is assumed that soil cellulases and β -glucosidases are mainly produced 24 by fungi (Hayano, 1986). In the present study, a reduction in the fungal biomarker 25 ergosterol was observed during the active phase and the maturation stage (Fig. 1b). We

found a significant correlation between ergosterol and cellulose activity ($R^2 = 0.50$, P = 0.0001), but not with the β -glucosidase activity ($R^2 = 0.05$, P = 0.164). One possible explanation is the protection of β -glucosidase through the formation of complexes with the humic substances, which made the enzyme more resistant to physical and microbial degradation.

6

7 Summary of chemical, microbiological and biochemical changes using a principal8 component analysis

9 PC1 explained 60% of the variance and PC2 22% for a total explained variance of 82%.

10 The variables responsible for the changes along PC1 included pH, EC, total C and N,

C to N ratio, DOC, NH4⁺, NO3⁻, NH4⁺ to NO3⁻ ratio, extractable P, Cmic, basal 11 12 respiration and protease activity. All of them were positively correlated with this function, except pH, EC and total N. The variables responsible for the changes along 13 14 PC2 included the phosphomonoesterase and cellulase activities and ergosterol, which 15 were positively correlated with this function. The sample collected at the end of the 16 active phase separated from the initial cattle manure along PC2 (Fig. 3). This change 17 highlighted by a decrease in the concentration of ergosterol was and 18 phosphomonoesterase and cellulose activities during the active phase. However, the 19 composting material collected at different times during the maturation phase separated 20 from the initial cattle manure and the sample collected at the end of the active phase 21 mainly along PC1. In this case, the change was characterized by an increase in the pH, 22 EC and total N and a decrease in the total C, C to N ratio, DOC, NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, extractable 23 P, Cmic, basal respiration and protease activity during the maturation period.

24

1 Phytotoxicity bioassay

The germination index was 0% in the initial cattle manure, and reached a value of 24% during the active phase. Then, at maturation stage, a GI of 87% was recorded after 270 d of maturation (Fig. 4). Thus, more than 180 d were needed to overcome the threshold limit of 60% stated by Zucconi and de Bertoldi (1987) to reduce the phytotoxicity to levels consistent for a safe soil application.

7

8 Evaluation of stability and maturity parameters

9 The greatest concern regarding the evaluation of maturity is that this parameter does not 10 only depend on the type of material and composting process utilized but also on the 11 target use of the final product. As the composting of animal manures increases, due to 12 its practical characteristic as a method of recycling, it becomes more and more 13 important to determine the appropriate use of each method for the evaluation of the 14 stability and maturity of the compost.

The application of chemical parameters to assess the stability of compost is a common practise in the research on composting. To be a good indicator, a chemical parameter should fulfil the following requirements: (a) follow a consistent trend during the composting process; (b) provide reference, critical or threshold values; (c) require relatively rapid and cheap analytical procedures and (d) be easily interpretable. Some of the parameters frequently referred to in the literature regarding the evaluation of compost stability are discussed in this study.

C to N ratio may not be a good indicator of compos stability because it can level off before the compost stabilize (Namkoong et al., 1999). For example, when waste rich in nitrogen are used as source material for composting like sewage sledges or manures, the C to N ratio can b within the values of a stable compost even though it may still be

unstable. Zmora-Nahum et al. (2005) reported C to N ratio lower than the cutoff value
 of 15 very early during the composting of cattle manure, while important stabilization
 processes were still taking place.

4 DOC generally contains organic compounds having different susceptibilities to 5 microbial degradation and different phytotoxic properties. For this reason DOC 6 composition may have an important role in determining the stabilization process. In the present study, DOC concentrations during the maturation phase were lower than the 7 threshold value of 4000 mg kg⁻¹ suggested by Zmora- Nahum et al. (2005) for a stable 8 9 compost showing that the composting material was stabilized after 80 d from the point 10 of view of DOC content (Table 1). In addition, we found a significant correlation 11 between DOC and respiration ($R^2 = 0.60$, P = 0.0001). Chica et al. (2003) also showed 12 DOC to be highly correlated to respiration.

13 Compost stability can be determined in terms of nitrification, which mainly 14 takes place during the maturation stage when temperatures are close to the ambient. At 15 the end of the composting process the content of NO₃⁻ should be higher than that of 16 NH4⁺, indicating that the process has been performed under adequate aeration 17 conditions (Bernal et al., 1998). Our composting material collected at different times during the maturation phase did not exceed the limit value of 400 mg kg⁻¹ suggested by 18 19 Zucconi and de Bertoldi (1987) for the concentration of NH4⁺ in stable composts; but, 20 the levels of NO_3^- were lower than expected during the maturation phase (Table 1). The 21 NH_4^+ to NO_3^- ratio has also been used to estimate the compost stability (Bernal et al., 22 1998), giving a limit value of 0.16 for stable composts. In our case, this value was 23 exceeded during the maturation phase due to the low content of NO₃⁻ detected during 24 this stage (Table 1). As mineral nitrogen forms changed irregularly with the composting 25 time, they cannot be reliable indicators.

After a maturation period of 80 d, similarly to DOC, the stability assessed by the 1 2 rate of microbial respiration increased, because lower rates of respiration were reported 3 in the composting material collected at different times during the maturation stage (Fig. 4 1c). Wang et al. (2004) also reported low rates of respiration, indicative of highly 5 stabilized composts, towards the end of the composting of dairy and pig manures. Adani 6 et al. (2004) proposed a dynamic respiration index as an accurate indicator to measure 7 the stability of composts resulting from different starting materials. They reported threshold values of 1000 and 500 mg O2 kg⁻¹ organic matter h⁻¹ to indicate medium and 8 9 high stability, respectively. Other studies have established that the measurements of 10 microbial respiration can be problematic as they are very sensitive to changes of 11 moisture, temperature, and oxygen and nitrogen availability (Herrmann and Shann, 12 1993).

13 Wu et al. (2000) reported that the low CO₂ evolution is not always an 14 indicator of a non-phytotoxic compost. Therefore, the evaluation of compost stability 15 based on CO₂ evolution, and the maturity based on seed germination, are two different 16 parameters of compost quality. In our study, despite of the fact that low rates of 17 respiration, indicative of highly stabilized materials, were reported after 80 d of 18 maturation, more than 180 d were needed to overcome the threshold limit of 60% stated 19 by Zucconi and de Bertoldi (1987) for a compost to be considered phytotoxinfree (Fig. 20 4). The source material and the composting condition as well as the watering of the 21 maturation piles with leachates from the cattle farm could have required more time to 22 break down the phytotoxic substances.

Considering the key roles of microorganisms in the composting process, the use of microbiological properties as stability indicators is not surprising. Enzymatic activities play an important role during the composting process, as they are implicated

1 in the biological and biochemical processes through which the initial organic substrates 2 are transformed into the end product (Tiquia, 2002). As a consequence, specific 3 enzymatic activities could provide a way of characterizing the composting process with 4 relation to the rate of transformation of organic residues and the stability of the end 5 product. Mondini et al. (2004) reported that the change in the location of enzymes 6 throughout the composting process, i.e. from extracellular to complexed with humic-7 like substances, might be useful at the moment of evaluating compost stability, taking 8 into account that not all enzymes will be as equally reliable as a stability index. Despite 9 of the fact that the measurement of enzymatic activities is easy, quick and inexpensive, 10 it is difficult to establish general threshold values to apply enzymatic activities as 11 indicators of compost stability due to the widely different organic substrates involved in 12 the composting processes. Thus, for compost characterization, it is necessary to follow 13 the dynamics of enzymatic activities over time.

14 Having discussed the previous parameters, determining the change in DOC 15 content with composting time seems to be the most suitable measurement to evaluate 16 the stability of the composting material. It fulfilled the largest number of requirements, 17 it followed a consistent trend and reached a critical value; moreover, it was neither time-18 consuming nor expensive and was easy to interpret. However, this does not mean that 19 this measurement is equally accurate to evaluate the stability of all source materials and 20 full composting facilities. The creation of databases, showing which protocols are most 21 effective taking into account the source material, the composting conditions and if the 22 experiment was done in a laboratory or at full scale will help us to choose correctly the 23 different parameters for the evaluation of compost quality.

- 24
- 25

1 Conclusions

2 The active phase was accompanied by a significant increase in EC, mineral N, 3 extractable P and basal respiration. However, lower levels of ergosterol and 4 phosphomonoesterase, protease and cellulase activities were found during this phase. 5 The maturation period was characterized by an increase in pH, EC and 6 phosphomonoesterase activity and a decrease in C to N ratio, DOC, mineral N, 7 extractable P, basal respiration and protease activity. The turning of maturation piles 8 and the sporadic addition of leachates from the cattle farm to these piles influenced 9 several parameters such as the pH and NO₃⁻ content resulting in values that are not typical from the maturation stage. Moreover, a maturation phase of 80 d was enough to 10 11 obtain a stable compost as outlined by several parameters, but not to obtain a mature 12 compost (i.e. with a low degree of phytotoxicity).

13

14 Acknowledgements

María Gómez Brandón is financially supported by a FPU fellowship from Ministerio de Educación. The authors thank the personnel of "Energía Viva, S.A." for having let us follow the composting process in their facility. The authors thank Paul Fraiz for having revised the English in this article. The authors also thank the editor and the two anonymous reviewers for helping us to improve the quality of this work.

20

21 References

Adani, F., Gonfalonieri, R., Tambone, F., 2004. Dynamic respiration index as a
descriptor of the biological stability of organic wastes. J. Environ. Qual. 33,
1866–1876.

1	Anderson, J.P.E., 1982. Soil respiration. In: Page, A.L., Miller, R.H., Keeney, D.R.
2	(Eds.), Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 2. Chemical and Biological Properties.
3	American Society of Agronomy and Soil Science Society of America, Madison,
4	WI, pp. 841–845.
5	Ayuso, M., Pascual, J.A., Garcı'a, C., Herna'ndez, T., 1996. Evaluation of urban wastes
6	for agricultural use. Soil Sci. Plant Nutr. 42, 105–111.
7	Bååth, E., Anderson, T.H., 2003. Comparison of soil fungal/bacterial ratios in a pH
8	gradient using physiological and PLFA- techniques. Soil Biol. Biochem. 35,
9	955–963.
10	Bernal, M.P., Paredes, C., Sa'nchez-Monedero, M.A., Cegarra, J., 1998. Maturity and
11	stability parameters of composts prepared with a wide range of organic wastes.
12	Bioresour. Technol. 63, 91–99.
13	Boulter-Bitzer, J.I., Boland, G.J., Trevors, J.T., 2000. Compost: a study of the
14	development process and end-product potential for suppression of turfgrass
15	disease. World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 16, 115-134.
16	Boulter-Bitzer, J.I., Trevors, J.T., Boland, G.J., 2006. A polyphasic approach for
17	assessing maturity and stability in compost intended for suppression of plant
18	pathogens. Appl. Soil Ecol. 34, 65-81.
19	Brewer, L.J., Sullivan, D.M., 2003. Maturity and stability evaluation of composted yard
20	trimmings. Compost Sci. Util. 11, 96–112.
21	Carr, L., Grover, R., Smith, B., Richard, T., Halbach, T., 1995. Commercial and on-
22	farm production and marketing of animal waste compost products. In: Steele, K.
23	(Ed.), Animal Waste and the Land-Water Interface. Lewis Publishers, Boca
24	Raton, pp. 485–492.

1	Chefetz, B., Hatcher, P.G., Hadr, Y., Chen, Y., 1996. Chemical and biological
2	characterization of organic matter during composting of municipal solid waste.
3	J. Environ. Qual. 25, 776–785.
4	Chica, A., Mohedo, J.J., Martı'n, M.A., Martı'n, A., 2003. Determination of the stability
5	of MSW compost using a respirometric technique. Compost Sci. Util. 11, 169-
6	175.
7	Cooperband, L.R., Stone, A.G., Fryda, M.R., Ravet, J.L., 2003. Relating compost
8	measures of stability and maturity to plant growth. Compost Sci. Util. 11, 113-
9	124.
10	Diaz Burgos, M.A., Polo, A., 1991. Variaciones en la fracción orgánica durante el
11	compostaje de lodos de depuradora. Suelo y Planta 1, 453-466.
12	Eivazi, F., Tabatabai, M.A., 1972. Phosphatases in soil. Soil Biol. Biochem. 9, 167–172.
13	Eivazi, F., Tabatabai, M.A., 1988. Glucosidases and galactosidases in soil. Soil Biol.
14	Biochem. 20, 601–606.
15	Fuchs, J.G., 2002. Practical use of quality compost for plant health and viability
16	improvement. In: Insam, H., Riddech, N., Klammer, S. (Eds.), Microbiology of
17	Composting. Springer Verlag, Heidelberg, pp. 435-444.
18	García, C., Hernández, T., Costa, C., Ayuso, M., 1992. Evaluation of the maturity of
19	municipal waste compost using simple chemical parameters. Commun. Soil Sci.
20	Plant Anal. 23, 1501–1502.
21	Gehringer, M.M., Kewada, V., Coates, N., Downing, T.G., 2003. The use of Lepidium
22	sativum in a plant bioassay system for the detection of microcystin-LR. Toxicon
23	41, 871–876.
24	Gómez, R., Vázquez-Lima, F., Sánchez-Ferrer, A., 2006. The use of respiration indices
25	in the composting process: a review. Waste Manage. Res. 24, 37-47.

1	Hayano, K., 1986. Cellulase complex in tomato field soil: introduction, localization and
2	some properties. Soil Biol. Biochem. 18, 215–219.
3	Herrmann, R.F., Shann, J.R., 1993. Enzyme activities as indicators of municipal solid
4	waste compost maturity. Compost Sci. Util. 4, 54-63.
5	Hutchison, M.L., Walters, L.D., Avery, S.M., Munro, F., Moore, A., 2005. Analyses of
6	livestock production, waste storage, and pathogen levels and prevalences in farm
7	manures. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 71, 1231–1236.
8	Insam, H., Amor, K., Renner, M., Crepaz, C., 1996. Changes in functional abilities of
9	the microbial community during composting of manure. Microbial Ecol. 31, 77-
10	87.
11	Klamer, M., Bååth, E., 1998. Microbial community dynamics during composting of
12	straw material studied using phospholipid fatty acid analysis. FEMS Microbiol.
13	Ecol. 27, 9–20.
14	Ladd, J.N., Butler, J.H.A., 1972. Short-term assays of soil proteolytic enzymes activities
15	using proteins and dipeptide derivatives as substrates. Soil Biol. Biochem. 4, 19-
16	30.
17	Lasaridi, K.E., Stentiford, E.I., 1998. A simple respirometric technique for assessing
18	compost stability. Water Res. 32, 3717–3723.
19	Mathur, S.P., Owen, G., Dinel, H., Schnitzer, M., 1993. Determination of compost
20	biomaturity. Biol. Agric. Hortic. 10, 65-85.
21	Miller, F.C., 1993. Composting as a process based on the control of ecologically
22	selective factors. In: Blaine, F., Metting, J. (Eds.), Soil Microbial Ecology -
23	Applications in Agricultural and Environmental Management. Marcel Dekker,
24	New York, pp. 515–543.

1	Mondini, C., Fornasier, F., Sinicco, T., 2004. Enzymatic activity as a parameter for the
2	characterization of the composting process. Soil Biol. Biochem. 36, 1587–1594.
3	Mondini, C., Sánchez-Monedero, M.A., Sinicco, T., Leita, L., 2006. Evaluation of
4	extracted organic carbon and microbial biomass as stability parameters in ligno-
5	cellulosic waste composts. J. Environ. Qual. 35, 2313-2320.
6	Namkoong, W., Hwang, E.Y., Cheong, J.G., Choi, J.Y., 1999. A comparative
7	evaluation of maturity parameters of food waste composting. Compost Sci. Util.
8	7, 55–62.
9	Pichler, M., Kögel-Knabner, I., 2000. Chemolytic analysis of organic matter during
10	aerobic and anaerobic treatment of municipal solid waste. Waste Manage. 29,
11	1337–1344.
12	Said-Pullicino, D., Gigliotti, G., 2007. Oxidative biodegradation of dissolved organic
13	matter during composting. Chemosphere 68, 1030–1040.
14	Said-Pullicino, D., Erriquens, F.G., Gigliotti, G., 2007. Changes in the chemical
15	characteristics of water-extractable organic matter during composting and their
16	influence on compost stability and maturity. Bioresour. Technol. 98, 1822–1831.
17	Salazar, F.J., Chadwick, D., Pain, B.F., Hatch, D., Owen, E., 2005. Nitrogen budgets for
18	three cropping systems fertilised with cattle manure. Bioresour. Technol. 96,
19	235–245.
20	Sánchez-Monedero, M.A., Roig, A., Cegarra, J., Bernal, M.P., 1999. Relationships
21	between water-soluble carbohydrate and phenol fractions and the humification
22	indices of different organic wastes during composting. Bioresour. Technol. 78,
23	301–308.
24	Schinner, F., Von Mersi, W., 1990. Xylanase-, CM-cellulase- and invertase activity in
25	soil: an improved method. Soil Biol. Biochem. 22, 511-515.

1	Sharpley, A.M., Smith, S.J., 1995. Nitrogen and phosphorus in soils receiving manure.
2	Soil Sci. 159, 253–258.
3	Sims, G.K., Ellsworth, T.R., Mulvaney, R.L., 1995. Microscale determination of
4	inorganic nitrogen in water and soil extracts. Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal. 26,
5	303–316.
6	Soltanpour, P.N., Schwab, P.A., 1977. A new soil test for simultaneous extraction of
7	macro- and micronutrients in alkaline soils. Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal. 8,
8	195–207.
9	Soumaré, M., Demeyer, A., Tack, F.M.G., Verloo, M.G., 2002. Chemical
10	characteristics of Malian and Belgian solid waste composts. Bioresour. Technol.
11	81, 97–101.
12	Tiquia, S.M., 2002. Evolution of extracellular enzyme activities during manure
13	composting. J. Appl. Microbiol. 92, 764–775.
14	Tiquia, S.M., Wan, J.H.C., Tam, N.F.Y., 2002. Dynamics of yard trimmings
15	composting as determined by dehydrogenase activity, ATP content, arginine
16	ammonification, and nitrification potential. Process Biochem. 37, 1057-1065.
17	Vance, E.D., Brookes, P.C., Jenkinson, D.S., 1987. An extraction method for measuring
18	soil microbial biomass C. Soil Biol. Biochem. 19, 703-707.
19	Vervoort, R.V., Radcliffe, D.E., Cabrera, M.L., Latimore Jr., M., 1998. Nutrient losses
20	in surface and subsurface flow from pasture applied poultry litter and composted
21	poultry litter. Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosys. 50, 287–290.
22	Wang, P., Changa, C.M., Watson, M.E., Dick, W.A., Chen, Y., Hoitink, H.A.J., 2004.
23	Maturity indices for composted dairy and pig manures. Soil Biol. Biochem. 36,
24	767–776.

1	Wu, L., Ma, L.Q., Martinez, G.A., 2000. Comparison of methods for evaluating
2	stability and maturity of biosolids compost. J. Environ. Qual. 29, 424-429.
3	Young, J.C., 1995. Microwave-assisted extraction of the fungal metabolite ergosterol
4	and total fatty acids. J. Agric. Food Chem. 43, 2904–2910.
5	Zmora-Nahum, S., Markovitch, O., Tarchitzky, J., Chen, Y., 2005. Dissolved organic
6	carbon (DOC) as a parameter of compost maturity. Soil Biol. Biochem. 37,
7	2109–2116.
8	Zucconi, F., de Bertoldi, M., 1987. Compost specification for the production and
9	characterization of compost from municipal solid waste. In: de Bertoldi, M.,
10	Ferranti, M.P., Hermite, P.L., Zucconi, F. (Eds.), Compost: Production, Quality
11	and Use. Elsevier Applied Science Publishers, Barking, pp. 30-50.
12	

Table 1. Variation in the chemical properties of cattle manure with composting time.

	Thermophilic		Maturation		
	0	15	80	180	270
EC (mS cm ^{-1})	$1.30 \pm 0.08c$	$2.10 \pm 0.11b$	$2.80 \pm 0.23a$	2.90 ± 0.16a	$3.00 \pm 0.12a$
pH	8.26-8.30b	8.07-8.86b	9.20-9.40a	9.50–9.75a	9.48–9.72a
Total C (%)	$39.90 \pm 0.28a$	$38.50 \pm 0.26a$	$32.15 \pm 0.53b$	$33 \pm 0.53b$	$25 \pm 1.22c$
Total N (%)	$2.40 \pm 0.09b$	$2.20 \pm 0.03b$	$2.90 \pm 0.05a$	$3.10 \pm 0.04a$	$2.40 \pm 0.13b$
C to N ratio	$17 \pm 0.74a$	$17.50 \pm 0.33a$	$11.40 \pm 0.34b$	$10.75 \pm 0.09b$	10.60 ± 0.12
DOC (mg kg ^{-1} dw)	$7000 \pm 700a$	$7300 \pm 280a$	$3400 \pm 610b$	$3100 \pm 250b$	$2200 \pm 10b$
NH_4^+ (mg kg ⁻¹ w)	$600 \pm 90b$	$1200 \pm 10a$	$300 \pm 40c$	$120 \pm 10c$	$250 \pm 30c$
NO_3^- (mg kg ⁻¹ dw)	$20 \pm 10b$	700 ± 60a	$20 \pm 10b$	$50 \pm 10b$	$70 \pm 10b$
NH_4^+ to NO_3^- ratio	$30 \pm 14a$	$1.71 \pm 0.58b$	$15 \pm 7.10a$	$2.4 \pm 0.96b$	$3.57 \pm 0.89b$
Available P (mg kg ⁻¹)	$170 \pm 10b$	$350 \pm 20a$	$120 \pm 30 bc$	$110 \pm 10bc$	$70 \pm 10c$

- 56 78 9

1 Figure legends

2

Figure 1. Changes in (a) Cmic, (b) ergosterol content and (c) basal respiration of the
initial cattle manure (t =0) and the composting material collected at the end of the active
pahse and at different times during the maturation stage (i.e. 80, 180 and 270 d). Values
are means ± standard error (n =5). Different letters indicate significant differences at
p<0.05 (Tukey HSD).

8

9

Figure 2. Changes in (a) alkaline phosphomonoesterase, (b) proteas, (c) cellulase and (d) β -glucosidase of the initial cattle manure (t =0) and the composting material collected at the end of the active pahse and at different times during the maturation stage (i.e. 80, 180 and 270 d). Values are means \pm standard error (n =5). Different letters indicate significant differences at p<0.05 (Tukey HSD).

15

16

Figure 3. Principal component analysis of the chemical, microbiological and
biochemica parameters of the initial cattle manure (t=0) and the composting material
collected at the end of the active pahse and at different times during the maturation
stage (i.e. 80, 180 and 270 d).

21

Figure 4. Changes in the germination index of the initial cattle manure (t =0) and the composting material collected at the end of the active pahse and at different times during the maturation stage (i.e. 80, 180 and 270 d). Values are means \pm standard error (n =5). Different letters indicate significant differences at p<0.05 (Tukey HSD).



Figure 1

- 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12



 $\begin{array}{c}1\\2\\3\\4\\5\\6\\7\\8\\9\\10\\11\\12\\13\\14\\15\\16\\17\\18\\19\\20\\21\\22\\23\\24\\25\\26\\27\end{array}$





Figure 3



Figure 4