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

Received 27 February 2007; received in revised form 22 June 2007; accepted 26 June 2007
Available online 8 August 2007

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 NH$_4^+$, 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 NH$_4^+$ 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.

© 2007 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: DOC; Mineral N; Microbial biomass; Basal respiration; Enzymatic activities; Phytotoxicity

1. Introduction

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

The composting process may significantly reduce the environmental problems associated with the management of manures by transforming them into a safer and more stabilized material for application to soil (Carr et al., 1995). To obtain high quality compost it is necessary to understand the changes that the material undergoes with the composting process. The stability and maturity of the compost are essential for its successful application, particularly for composts used in high value horticultural crops (Wang et al., 2004).

The terms stability and maturity are usually used interchangeably to describe the degree of decomposition and transformation of the organic matter in compost (Zmora-Nahum et al., 2005), despite the fact they describe different properties of the composting substrate. Stability is strongly related to the rate of microbial activity in compost, and is evaluated by different respirometric measurements (Lasaridi and Stentiford, 1998) and/or by studying the transformations in the chemical characteristics 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.

The application of unstable compost to soil may produce a competition for oxygen between microbial biomass and plant roots/seeds. This fact can deprive plant roots/seeds of oxygen, and lead to the production of H₂S and NO₃⁻ (Mathur et al., 1993). Another problem is nitrogen starvation of plants as microorganisms scavenge soil N to make up for the deficit resulting from the application of unstable compost with a high C to N ratio. The phytotoxicity of unstable composts represents another major problem; this is due to the emission of ammonia and the presence of other phytotoxic substances like phenolic compounds and ethylene oxide that is synthesized during the decomposition of unstable compost in soil. Low-molecular weight organic acids (i.e. acetic, propionic and butyric acids) produced by the anaerobic digestion of the organic 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). Chemical parameters such as pH, electrical conductivity (EC), cation exchange capacity, dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and the ratios of C to N and NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻ have been applied as indicators of stability. Since stabilization implies the formation of humic-like substances, humification indexes are generally accepted as a criterion of stability, but their absolute values vary greatly among composts of different source materials. Moreover, their determination requires proper separation of the non-humic fraction from the fulvic acid fraction because other compounds with similar structure to humic substances but different biological meaning (i.e. lignin residues, quinones, polyphenols, fats, etc.) can be extracted (Sánchez-Monedero et al., 1999). Stability indicators based on the study of microbial biomass and its activity have also been proposed. Mondini et al. (2006) reported that microbial biomass can be used as a stability parameter in ligno-cellulosic waste composts because it clearly reflects the transformation of organic matter during the composting process. Respiration (CO₂ evolution rate and/or O₂ uptake rate) is a general measure of microbial activity, and it has been widely used to evaluate the stability of compost (Gómez et al., 2006). The ATP content and enzyme activities are also useful as indicators of compost stability (Tiquia et al., 2002; Boulter-Bitzer et al., 2006).

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

2. Materials and methods

2.1. 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.

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

During the curing phase, the composting mixture from each trench was piled 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.

2.2. Chemical analyses

EC and pH were analyzed in water extracts (1:10, w/v). Total C and N contents were analyzed on a Carlo Erba 1500C/N analyzer on dried samples. DOC was determined in 0.5 M K$_2$SO$_4$ extracts (1:50, w/v) by heat digestion (150 °C, 30 min) with sulphuric acid and potassium dichromate and read in a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader 550 at 590 nm. Inorganic nitrogen (NH$_4^+$ and NO$_3^-$) was determined in 0.5 M K$_2$SO$_4$ extracts (1:5, w/v) using the modified indophenol blue technique (Sims et al., 1995) with a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader 550. The content of P was analyzed in ammonium bicarbonate-diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (AB-DTPA) extracts (1:6, w/v) by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (Soltanpour and Schwab, 1977).

2.3. Microbiological and biochemical 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 non-fumigated sample, multiplied by the K$_2$SO$_4$ extraction efficiency factor for microbial C ($K_e = 2.64$).

Ergosterol is a membrane-bound molecule commonly used as a fungal biomarker (Bååth and Anderson, 2003). The ergosterol content of the samples was extracted by the microwave assisted extraction method and determined by HPLC analysis (Young, 1995).

Microbial activity was assessed by measuring the rate of CO$_2$ evolution from the samples (5 g fresh weight) after 6 h of incubation. The evolved CO$_2$ was trapped in 0.02 M NaOH and then measured by titration with HCl to a phenolphthalein endpoint, after adding excess BaCl$_2$ (Anderson, 1982).

Alkaline phosphomonoesterase activity was estimated by determining the p-nitrophenol (PNP) released, after incubating the samples (1 g fresh weight) with p-nitrophenyl phosphate (0.025 M) for 1 h at 37 °C, in a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader 550 at 400 nm (Eivazi and Tabatabai, 1972). β-glucosidase activity was assessed by determining the PNP released, after incubating the samples (1 g fresh weight) with β-D-glucopyranoside (0.025 M) for 1 h at 37 °C, in a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader 550 at 400 nm (Eivazi and Tabatabai, 1988). Protease activity was measured by determining the amino acids released, after incubating the samples (1 g fresh weight) with sodium caseinate (2%) for 2 h at 50 °C, using Folin–Ciocalteu reagent, in a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader 550 at 700 nm (Ladd and Butler, 1972). Cellulase activity was estimated by determining the reducing sugars released after incubating the samples (5 g fresh weight) with carboxymethyl cellulose sodium salt (0.7%) for 24 h at 50 °C, in a Bio-Rad Microplate Reader at 690 nm (Schinner and Von Mersi, 1990).

2.4. Phytotoxicity assay

The phytotoxicity of the samples was determined in distilled water extracts (1.5, w/v) 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 phases. The supernatant was collected and filtered through a 0.45 μm membrane filter. The extracts were diluted to 30% and used as germination media. One milliliter of the germination solution was pipetted into a sterilized Petri dish lined with Whatman #1 filter paper. Ten seeds of garden cress (Lepidium sativum L.), which is one of the most sensitive test species for evaluating the phytotoxicity (Gehringer et al., 2003), were evenly distributed on the filter paper and incubated 24 h at 20–25 °C in the dark. Then, the germination was stopped by adding 1 ml of ethanol. The seed germination percentage and root elongation of L. sativum were also measured in distilled water and used as control. Finally, the germination index (GI), expressed as percentage of control, was calculated based on relative seed germination percentage and relative root elongation.

2.5. Statistical analyses

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

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Chemical changes

The main chemical properties of the initial cattle manure and the composting mixture after 15, 80, 180 and 270 d are shown in Table 1. An increase in the pH values was recorded during the active phase, suggesting the alkalinization of the manure as a consequence of the release of ammonia from the degradation and mineralization of
Variation in the chemical properties of cattle manure with composting time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Composting time (days)</th>
<th>Thermophilic</th>
<th>Maturation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC (mS cm⁻¹)</td>
<td>1.30 ± 0.08c</td>
<td>2.10 ± 0.11b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total C (%)</td>
<td>39.90 ± 0.28a</td>
<td>38.50 ± 0.26a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total N (%)</td>
<td>2.40 ± 0.09b</td>
<td>2.20 ± 0.03b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C to N ratio</td>
<td>17 ± 0.74a</td>
<td>17.50 ± 0.33a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC (mg kg⁻¹ dw)</td>
<td>7000 ± 700a</td>
<td>7300 ± 280a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH₄⁺ (mg kg⁻¹ w)</td>
<td>600 ± 90b</td>
<td>1200 ± 10a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO₃⁻ (mg kg⁻¹ dw)</td>
<td>20 ± 10b</td>
<td>700 ± 60a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻ ratio</td>
<td>30 ± 14a</td>
<td>1.71 ± 0.58b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Available P (mg kg⁻¹)</td>
<td>170 ± 10b</td>
<td>350 ± 20a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are means ± standard error (n = 5). Values within the same row followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to Tukey’s test (P = 0.05).

Organic compounds. During the maturation stage, pH reached higher levels than in the initial cattle manure and the sample collected at the end of the active phase. This increase is not typical in the maturation phase, where it is expected that the pH drops to neutral values and then stabilizes. The watering of the maturation piles with the leachates from the cattle farm, and the turnings of these piles could be responsible of these results. The pH values reached during the maturation are rather high and this fact could have important implications on the fertility and productivity of soils subjected to compost amendment, as well as on the development of pH-sensitive plants (Boulter-Bitzer et al., 2000). Moreover, acceptable pH ranges should generally decrease throughout the composting process (Fig. 1a) was in agreement with carbon compounds as outlined by DOC dynamics (Table 1). The rate of decrease in DOC concentration depends on the source material and the composting technique utilized. The amount of DOC during the composting process is related to the equilibrium between various reactions which increase or decrease its concentration. The degradation of soil polymeric material in the composting substrate may lead to the formation of soluble organic matter, which would increase the DOC concentration. On the other hand, the reduction in DOC depends on the continuous mineralization of soluble organic compounds, and the repolymerization and condensation pathways that lead to the formation of complex organic substrates with low solubility in water which tend to 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 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 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. After 80 d of maturation, this ratio increased with respect to the sample collected at the end of the active phase. However, lower values of this ratio were reported in the samples collected after 180 and 270 d of maturation mainly due to the low content of NH₄⁺.

3.2. 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 Bäth, 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).

The microbial activity measured as basal respiration reached a maximum value of 5000 mg CO₂ kg⁻¹ organic matter during the active phase, which could be attributed to the presence of easily degradable materials that stimulate the microbial community of the initial cattle manure. Moreover, the release of labile compounds resulting from the oxidative biodegradation of the matrix during the composting process could also explain the higher value obtained on day 15 with respect to the initial feedstock (Said-Pullicino et al., 2007). However, lower rates of respiration indicative of minor microbial activity 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 depolymerise cellulose; β-glucosidases which hydrolyse glucosides; amido-hydrolases, proteases and ureases involved in N mineralization; and phosphomonoesterases and arylsulphatases that remove phosphate and sulphate groups from organic compounds.

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

3.3. Summary of chemical, microbiological and biochemical changes using a principal components analysis

PC1 explained 60% of the variance and PC2 22% for a total explained variance of 82%. 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 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 PC2 included the
phosphomonoesterase and cellulase activities and ergosterol, which were positively correlated with this function. The sample collected at the end of the active phase separated from the initial cattle manure along PC2 (Fig. 3). This change was highlighted by a decrease in the concentration of ergosterol and phosphomonoesterase and cellulase activities during the active phase. However, the composting material collected at different times during the maturation phase separated from the initial cattle manure and the sample collected at the end of the active phase mainly along PC1. In this case, the change was characterized by an increase in the pH, EC and total N and a decrease in the total C, C to N ratio, DOC, NH$_4^+$, NO$_3^-$, extractable P, Cmic, basal respiration and protease activity during the maturation period.

3.4. 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.

3.5. Evaluation of stability and maturity parameters

The greatest concern regarding the evaluation of maturity is that this parameter does not only depend on the type of material and composting process utilized but also on the target use of the final product. As the composting of animal manures increases, due to its practical characteristic as a method of recycling, it becomes more and more important to determine the appropriate use of each method for the evaluation of the stability and maturity of the compost. The application of chemical parameters to assess the stability of compost is a common practice in the research on
Compost stability can be determined in terms of nitrification, which mainly takes place during the maturation stage when temperatures are close to the ambient. At the end of the composting process the content of NO$_3^-$ should be higher than that of NH$_4^+$, indicating that the process has been performed under adequate aeration 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 Zucconi and de Bertoldi (1987) for the concentration of NH$_4^+$ in stable composts; but, the levels of NO$_3^-$ were lower than expected during the maturation phase (Table 1). The NH$_4^+$ to NO$_3^-$ ratio has also been used to estimate the compost stability (Bernal et al., 1998), giving a limit value of 0.16 for stable composts. In our case, this value was exceeded during the maturation phase due to the low content of NO$_3^-$ detected during this stage (Table 1). As mineral nitrogen forms changed irregularly with the composting time, they cannot be reliable indicators.

After a maturation period of 80 d, similarly to DOC, the stability assessed by the rate of microbial respiration increased, because lower rates of respiration were reported in the composting material collected at different times during the maturation stage (Fig. 1c). Wang et al. (2004) also reported low rates of respiration, indicative of highly stabilized composts, towards the end of the composting of dairy and pig manures. Adani et al. (2004) proposed a dynamic respiration index as an accurate indicator to measure the stability of composts resulting from different starting materials. They reported threshold values of 1000 and 500 mg O$_2$ kg$^{-1}$ organic matter h$^{-1}$ to indicate medium and high stability, respectively. Other studies have established that the measurements of microbial respiration can be problematic as they are very sensitive to changes of moisture, temperature, and oxygen and nitrogen availability (Herrmann and Shann, 1993).

Wu et al. (2000) reported that the low CO$_2$ evolution is not always an indicator of a non-phytotoxic compost. Therefore, the evaluation of compost stability based on CO$_2$ evolution, and the maturity based on seed germination, are two different parameters of compost quality. In our study, despite of the fact that low rates of respiration, indicative of highly stabilized materials, were reported after 80 d of maturation, more than 180 d were needed to overcome the threshold limit of 60% stated by Zucconi and de Bertoldi (1987) for a compost to be considered phytotoxin-free (Fig. 4). The source material and the composting condition as well as the watering of the maturation piles with leachates from the cattle farm could have required more time to 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 in the biological and biochemical processes through which the initial organic substrates are transformed into the end product (Tiquia, 2002). As a
consequence, specific enzymatic activities could provide a way of characterizing the composting process with relation to the rate of transformation of organic residues and the stability of the end product. Mondini et al. (2004) reported that the change in the location of enzymes throughout the composting process, i.e. from extracellular to complexed with humic-like substances, might be useful at the moment of evaluating compost stability, taking into account that not all enzymes will be as equally reliable as a stability index. Despite of the fact that the measurement of enzymatic activities is easy, quick and inexpensive, it is difficult to establish general threshold values to apply enzymatic activities as indicators of compost stability due to the widely different organic substrates involved in the composting processes. Thus, for compost characterization, it is necessary to follow the dynamics of enzymatic activities over time.

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

4. Conclusions

The active phase was accompanied by a significant increase in EC, mineral N, extractable P and basal respiration. However, lower levels of ergosterol and phosphomonoesterase, protease and cellulase activities were found during this phase. The maturation period was characterized by an increase in pH, EC and phosphomonoesterase activity and a decrease in C to N ratio, DOC, mineral N, extractable P, basal respiration and protease activity. The turning of maturation piles and the sporadic addition of leachates from the cattle farm to these piles influenced 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 obtain a stable compost as outlined by several parameters, but not to obtain a mature compost (i.e. with a low degree of phytotoxicity).

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.

References


