

Influence of composting methods on compost maturity and quality

Abstract

An investigation entitled 'Influence of composting methods on compost maturity and quality' was conducted at Plant Propagation and Nursery Management Unit, Vellanikara to study the effect of composting methods on compost maturity and quality and to evaluate the suitability of compost obtained from various composting methods as organic manure on the growth and yield performance of Okra crop. The experiment on influence of composting methods on maturity and stability parameters of compost consisted of eight methods of composting (T₁-Aerobic composting using cow dung, T₂- Aerobic composting using *Bacillus subtilis* (KAU culture), T₃- Composting using effective microorganisms, T₄- Composting with *Trichoderma* and worms, T₅ - Vermicomposting, T₆- Varanashi composting, T₇- Heap and T₈- Pit method of composting). The experiment to evaluate the suitability of compost as organic manure in the performance of Okra crop consisted of nine treatments including compost obtained from all the composting methods and farm yard manure. The organic manure requirement of the crop was substituted by compost and the quantity was decided in comparison to nitrogen content of farm yard manure (FYM) requirement of Okra (12t/ha). Results of the study indicated that compost obtained from all the composting methods helped to attain physical, chemical and biological parameters of compost maturity at varying degree. The highest yield was recorded in Varanashi composting followed by aerobic composting using cow dung. Based on the recovery percentage, the highest compost recovery was noticed in aerobic composting using cow dung. The nutrient content of compost obtained from all the composting methods was in the permissible limit. Even though the quantity of compost produced was less using microbial culture, compost produced has attained all the maturity parameters. Hence in the absence of cow dung, composting using *Bacillus subtilis* (KAU culture) and *Trichoderma* and worms can be used as substitute for cow dung. Germination studies using compost extract and compost as potting mixture revealed that the compost produced were not phototoxic in nature and also the heavy metal content were in the permissible limit. Based on the compost yield and better parameters of maturity, aerobic composting, varanashi composting and vermicomposting was found superior. Crop performance was significantly higher with varanashi compost, vermicompost and compost using EM. There was a positive and significant increase in available soil nutrient content after the addition of all the compost.

Key words: Composting methods, compost maturity, quality, phytotoxicity, crop yield

Introduction

Composting has been recognized not only as a promising attempt for processing and disposal for biodegradable solid waste but an absolute imperative for nutrient recycling and soil improvement in an agricultural economy. Recently new methods have been developed for speedy composting and also utilize certain microbes as a substitute for cow dung for initiating the microbial decomposition. Effective microorganisms, *Trichoderma* and microbial culture are utilized for substituting cow dung owing to its decreased availability. Vermicomposting is a well-established method for composting but need more efforts from the part of composter. Though different methods of composting have been developed, none of the methods have been tested frequently for its maturity and stability at frequent intervals. Iqbal *et al.* (2012) reported that composting methods differ in duration of decomposition and potency of stability and maturity and the compost prepared by different methods yield chemically different products. One of the important factors affecting the successful use of compost for agricultural purpose is compost maturity. The application of immature compost to the soil causes severe damage

47 to plant growth (Wu *et al.*, 2000). Maturity is assessed by measuring various physico-chemical
48 parameters, seedling emergence, root elongation and phytotoxicity (Mathur *et al.*, 1993). Seal *et al.*
49 (2012) opined that presence of a very large and diverse population of self-generated microorganisms
50 in the end product of compost indicated its potential in terms of fast and effective soil application.
51 Compost obtained from many of the rapid methods is found to be coarser and need to be evaluated
52 for maturity and quality prior to its agricultural use. Hence it is highly essential to study the influence of
53 various composting methods on its end product quality, particularly in terms of its stability and
54 maturity status and to evaluate whether the compost obtained from these methods can be directly
55 used as manure.

56 **Materials and methods**

57 An investigation entitled "Influence of composting methods on compost maturity and quality" was
58 carried out to study the effect of different composting methods on compost maturity and quality and to
59 evaluate the suitability of compost obtained from various composting methods as organic manure at
60 Plant Propagation and Nursery Management Unit Kerala Agricultural University, Vellanikkara,
61 Thrissur. Treatments consisted of 8 methods of composing viz., Aerobic composting with cow dung;
62 Aerobic composting with *Bacillus subtilis*; Composting using effective microorganisms; Composting
63 with *Trichoderma* & worms; Vermicomposting; Varanashi composting; Heap method and Pit method
64 Banana pseudostem both fresh and 2-5 week old and green leaves of glyricidia (2kg leaves along
65 with 100kg pseudostem) was used as common substrates for all the methods of composting. Cow
66 dung containing NPK in the range of 0.8:0.5:0.6 (%) and microbial content of 16.1×10^5 cfu/g were
67 used as inoculum in aerobic composting with cow dung, vermicomposting, varanashi composting as
68 well as heap and pit methods of composting. Microbial culture of *Bacillus subtilis* developed in the
69 Department of Agricultural Microbiology, College of Horticulture was used as inoculum in aerobic
70 composting using *Bacillus subtilis*. The inoculum used has an initial microbial count of 13×10^6
71 cfu/ml. An EM preparation containing microbial count of 83×10^4 cfu/g was used in composting using
72 effective microorganisms. A composite culture of *Eudrillus euginae* and *Isonia foetida* was used in
73 vermicomposting and composting using *Trichoderma* and worms. *Trichoderma* containing microbial
74 count of 2×10^4 cfu/g was used in composting with *Trichoderma* and worms. Varanashi composter
75 containing microbial count of 12.5×10^5 cfu/g was used as inoculum in varanashi composting.
76 Composting was carried out in tanks constructed in the compost sheds available at Coconut
77 Development Farm of PPNMU. The tanks were partitioned internally using bricks. The size of the tank
78 for each treatment was 156cm*75cm width and 50 cm height. 100Kg waste including fresh and 2-5
79 old banana pseudostem and glyricidia leaves were added uniformly. The height of the heap was
80 15cm. Since temperature was not developed, gunny sacks were placed over the all the treatments
81 except Varanashi composting.

82 ***Aerobic composting with cow dung***

83 Aerobic composting was carried out in tanks provided with sufficient holes for aeration. 10 Kg of cow
84 dung was added as inoculants in alternate layer with the substrate. Turning was given at 2 weeks
85 intervals.

86 ***Aerobic composting with *Bacillus subtilis****

87 Aerobic composting with *Bacillus subtilis* was carried out in tanks provided with sufficient holes for
88 aeration and the inoculants used for composting was microbial culture of *Bacillus subtilis*. 200ml of
89 the culture was diluted to 1 litre and 300ml was sprinkled as alternate layer above the crop residues.
90 Turning was given at 2 weeks intervals.

91 ***Composting using effective microorganisms***

92 Composting using effective microorganisms were carried out in tanks provided with sufficient holes for
93 air circulation. ENVIRON was used as inoculum and 50 ml was diluted to 1000 ml and 300ml of
94 which was added as alternate layers to the substrate. Turning was given at 2 weeks intervals.

95 **Composting using *Trichoderma* and worms**

96 The inoculant used in the experiment was *Trichoderma* and composite culture of *Eudrillus euginae*
97 and *Isonia foetidae* earthworms. *Trichoderma* was added at the rate of 100gm per treatment and
98 applied as alternate layers. The worms were introduced @ of 100 worms per treatment each during
99 the first week and one month after composting. Turning was also given at 2 weeks intervals.

100 **Vermicomposting**

101 The inoculums used were cow dung and culture of *Eudrillus euginae* and *Isonia foetidae* earthworms.
102 Cow dung @ 10 Kg was added as alternate layers over the substrate. The worms were introduced @
103 of 100 worms per treatment each during the first week and one month after composting

104 **Varanashi composting**

105 UV stabilized plastic sheet was used for composting. The sheet was spread on the levelled area
106 under thatched shed. The composter was added at the rate of 100gm over the substrate and 15 Kg of
107 cow dung was added over it. Rock phosphate was sprinkled over the layer at the rate of 500g. In this
108 manner the heap was built up to a height of 15 cm spreading the material and additives layer by layer.
109 The heap is covered fully with UV stabilized plastic sheet. As the heap was prepared under thatched
110 shed, additional covering to protect the heap from direct sunlight was not required.

111 **Heap method**

112 Substrate (100Kg) was heaped at a length of 156cm and breadth of 75 cm and 15 cm height over the
113 levelled land to get the same volume as in the above treatments. 10 Kg of cow dung was added as
114 inoculums in alternate layers. No turning was given.

115 **Pit method**

116 The pits were taken at a dimension of 156 cm*75 cm under open condition. Pits were covered with a
117 tarpaulin sheet to protect it from direct sunlight and rainfall. The substrate used for composting
118 (100Kg) was added in the pit to a height of 15 cm and cow dung was added as inoculum in alternate
119 layer.

120 **Phytotoxicity studies**

121 **Seed germination test using compost extract**

122 A modified phytotoxicity test employing seed germination was used (Zucconi *et. al.*, 1981). Tomato
123 seeds (*Lycopersicon esculentum* L.) were used for seed germination test in compost extract. No. 2.
124 Whatman filter paper was placed inside 90mm UV sterilized, disposable Petri dish. The filter paper
125 was wetted with 9 ml of 1:10 compost/water extract and 30 tomato seeds were placed on the paper.
126 Distilled water was used as control in the experiments and were run in triplicate. The petri dishes were
127 sealed with para film to minimize water loss while allowing air penetration and then were kept in the
128 dark for 4 days at room temperature. At the end of 4th day, the percentage of seed germination in
129 compost extract was compared with that of control.

130 **Seed germination test using Potting mixture**

131 The potting mixture was prepared using compost and soil in the ratio of 1:1 and were taken in the UV
132 sterilized petri dishes and 30 tomato seeds were placed in it. Soil was used as control. It was placed
133 under dark and germination was noted on the fourth day and compared with that of the control.

134 ***Suitability of compost as organic manure***

135 Compost obtained from the above composting method were tested as organic manure by growing
136 Okra in pots using compost obtained from the above method and the quantity of compost will be
137 decided in comparison to N equivalent of farm yard manure recommendation of okra and it was
138 compared with ordinary potting mixture (Sand soil and cow dung in the ratio 1:1:1) as control.

139 Main items of observations taken to assess the Compost quality include Chemical composition of the
140 substrates used for composting (Total content of carbon, N, P, K and pH); composition of EM;
141 Indicators of maturity (at different stages of composting) viz., Physical parameters such as daily
142 temperature, moisture content, particle size, odour, colour, and volume reduction, compost yield;
143 Chemical parameters such as pH, CEC, total volatile solids (TVS), total organic carbon and CN ratio;
144 Biological parameters such as presence of micro and macro organisms (Microbial and earthworm
145 count at compost maturity), dehydrogenase enzyme activity; N, P, K, and micronutrients and
146 Phytotoxicity studies using seed germination in compost extract and in potting mixture made from
147 compost and presence of heavy metals using standard procedures. Biometric observation and yield
148 of okra were recorded at various growth stages

149 **Results and Discussion**

150 **Influence of composting methods on maturity and stability parameters of compost**

151 A number of criteria and parameters are proposed for testing compost maturity and stability, but no
152 single method has been universally applied due to the difference in substrate composition and
153 composting methodologies. Evaluation of compost stability and maturity will help in standardization of
154 the quality of compost obtained from different methods of composting. The maturity and stability of
155 compost depends upon the chemical constituents present in the initial substrate as well as the
156 intermediates formed during different stages of composting. The rate or degree of organic matter
157 decomposition is known as compost stability and the degree of decomposition of phytotoxic organic
158 matter produced during the active composting stage is known as compost maturity.

159 ***Influence of composting methods on Physical parameters***

160 Physical characteristics such as temperature, colour, odour, moisture content, particle size, volume
161 reduction, bulk density etc. (Table1) gives a general idea of decomposition stage, but little information
162 on the degree of maturation.

163 The initial temperature of the substrate use for composting was 28.5°C. Temperature change from
164 27°C to 33°C was observed in all the methods of composting during the initial few weeks of
165 composting. Temperature increased to 31°C up to one month after composting. The highest
166 temperature of 31.41°C was observed in pit method of composting followed by heap method of
167 composting (30.18°C). Varanashi composting and vermicomposting showed a temperature of 29.6°C
168 and 29.06°C respectively. In all other methods of composting the temperature developed after one
169 month of composting was 28°C. The temperature decreased slowly after 2 months of composting.
170 The highest temperature was observed in pit method of composting (28.66°C). In all the other
171 methods, the temperature was 27°C. The temperature after three month of composting was more in
172 pit method of composting followed by heap, varanashi and vermicomposting methods.

173 Composting is an exothermic process and temperature development is as a result of microbial activity
174 followed by decline in temperature due to the less availability of organic carbon. Variation in
175 temperature with respect to the ambient temperature was recorded in all the method of composting.

176 Compared to ambient temperature, the temperature of compost material was high in all the methods
177 of composting. This may be due to the decomposition of organic matter. However in none of the
178 method of composting, temperature development was not more than 32°C. The non-development of
179 temperature beyond 32°C in the composting methods may be due to the small heap and frequent rain
180 observed during the month of June and July. Taiwo and Oso, (2003) reported that large heaps lead to
181 generation of high temperature and small heaps generate low temperature. After 60 days of
182 composting, the temperature development in all the composting methods almost equalled to that of
183 ambient temperature. Minimum temperature levels has been achieved towards the end of composting
184 period in all the methods of composting, which is essential for an effective composting process to take
185 place. Since this time, evidence has accumulated supporting the above findings. (Finstein *et al.*,
186 1986) .Except in varanashi method of composting, decrease in temperature was noted after each
187 turning, indicating a decrease in easily decomposable organic matter.

188 The initial moisture content was 86.78%. The moisture content was reduced to the range of
189 40-60% which was thereafter maintained continuously throughout the composting period by sprinkling
190 water. Adequate moisture content (40-50%) was maintained throughout the composting period in all
191 the methods as it is required for metabolic and physiological activities of the microorganisms as it
192 provides a medium for the transportation of nutrients. The moisture content was high in varanashi
193 method and was not able to sieve the compost on the same day. The high moisture in varanashi
194 composting may be due to the complete covering of the heap by UV sheet and hence the evaporation
195 loss may be less. Hence cover was removed and kept as such for another 2 weeks for sieving.

196 Colour change of compost is used as a parameter for compost maturity. Colour change was
197 observed in all the methods of composting. A dark brown colour was observed in all the methods of
198 composting, indicating that decomposition had taken place in all the methods. Sughara and Inoko
199 (1981) reported that colour of composting material changes to dark or grayish black with advancing
200 maturity. No odour was noticed in compost obtained from any of the methods except an earthy smell
201 for the pit method of composting. Conversely, compost with an obnoxious odour indicates instability.
202 (Henry and Harrison, 1996). Even though colour and odour are the simplest physical parameters to
203 evaluate the maturity and stability of compost obtained from different methods, some additional
204 physical, chemical and biological methods were also determined for confirmation.

205 The volume reduction during composting may be attributed to decomposition of organic
206 matter by the microorganisms during different stages of composting. The composting methods were
207 in earthworms were introduced recorded the highest reduction in volume after 60 days of composting
208 with volume reduction percentage of 88.76% (Composting using *Trichoderma* and worms and
209 vermicomposting). The lowest volume reduction (66.29%) was recorded in varanashi composting.
210 The excess moisture content and lack of aeration in varanashi composting might have caused
211 unfavourable condition for the microorganisms to multiply. Iyengar *et al.* , (2006) also reported that
212 volume reduction depends upon the input of waste and the type of composting methods adopted. He
213 also recorded more than 90% volume reduction in aerobic reactor as compared to 12.58% in
214 anaerobic reactor. Except varanashi and heap method of composting, volume reduction was more
215 than 80% in all the other methods of composting.

216 In vermicomposting, more than 82% of the particles were of size less than 2mm size. Particle size
217 reduction was highest in treatments where earthworms were introduced (vermicomposting and
218 composting using *Trichoderma* and worms). Although biochemical degradation of the organic matter
219 is carried out by microorganism, earthworms fragment the substrate drastically altering the microbial
220 activity and increasing the surface area (Dominguez *et al.*, 1997). Compost obtained from varanashi
221 composting with larger particle size and comparatively higher moisture content had the lowest bulk
222 density among the different method of composting. Schaub-Szabo and Leonard (1999) also reported
223 that the amount of moisture and particle size strongly affects bulk density. The pore space between
224 the compost particles should be such that the optimum retention of water and air are retained. If the

225 particles are too close to each other, then the compost tend to compact, resulting in low air capacity,
 226 low infiltration rate and water holding capacity.

227 The highest compost yield was obtained from varanashi method (15.47 Kg) followed by
 228 aerobic composting (15.12 kg) and vermicomposting (13.42 kg). The lowest compost yield was
 229 noticed in composting using EM. Yield from 100 kg substrate along with inoculum was high in
 230 varanashi method of composting. The yield was less from composting methods without addition of
 231 cow dung (*viz.*, composting using Effective microorganisms, *Bacillus subtilis*). This indicates that the
 232 final yield of compost obtained increased with addition of cow dung. Hence, in varanashi composting
 233 yield increase was noted mainly due to addition of three times more cow dung compared to other
 234 methods. Undecomposed material was also highest in varanashi composting compared to other
 235 methods. Even without the addition of cow dung, composting using *Trichoderma* and worms produced
 236 comparable yield to that of aerobic composting using cow dung and vermicomposting. When we
 237 consider the compost yield from the substrate alone, the compost yield was higher in aerobic
 238 composting with cow dung, vermicomposting and composting using *Trichoderma* and worms.
 239 Undecomposed portion were also less in these methods.

240 All the composting methods attained physical parameters of maturity at varying degree. The
 241 physical parameters like colour and odour of compost obtained from different methods did not show
 242 any variation. The mature compost obtained from all the method of composting was odourless and
 243 dark brown in colour. Physical parameters such as volume reduction, particle size, bulk density, yield
 244 and undecomposed material left after composting varied with composting methods. Varanashi
 245 composting yield high when total material added for composting was taken into consideration. But
 246 volume reduction and particle size reduction were also less in varanashi composting method.
 247 Considering the compost yield from 100 kg substrate used for composting and undecomposed
 248 material left after composting, aerobic composting using cow dung and composting using
 249 *Trichoderma* and worms was found equally efficient. The volume reduction and particle size reduction
 250 were high in these treatments. Hence wherever there is no availability of cow dung for composting,
 251 composting with *Trichoderma* and worms is suggested as an alternative method. Based on physical
 252 parameters of maturity, aerobic composting using cow dung, vermicomposting and composting with
 253 *Trichoderma* and worms are suggested as good methods of composting compared to other methods.

254 **Table 1 Influence of composting methods on physical properties of compost**

Treatments	Volume reduction (Mature compost) %	Compost yield (kg)	Bulk density (g/cc)	Particle size less than 2mm
Aerobic composting with cow dung(T1)	83.15a	15.12ab	0.61ab	77.50
Aerobic composting with <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> (T2)	83.15a	8.30cd	0.61ab	79.60
Composting using effective microorganisms (T3)	88.76a	6.76d	0.68ab	61.30
Composting using <i>Trichoderma</i> and worms (T4)	88.76a	11.32abcd	0.66ab	79.90
Vermicomposting (T5)	83.15a	13.42ab	0.65ab	81.90
Varanashi composting (T6)	66.29b	15.47a	0.58b	70.70
Heap method (T7)	83.15a	10.72abcd	0.70a	68.60

Pit method (T8)	71.91b	12.58abc	0.70a	79.60
-----------------	--------	----------	-------	-------

255 *The data followed by same superscript do not vary significantly

256 ***Influence of composting methods on Chemical parameters***

257 Chemical parameters like pH, Cation Exchange Capacity (CEC), Total Volatile Solids (TVS), organic
 258 carbon, C:N ratio, (Table 2) NPK content and micronutrient analysis give more information on
 259 compost stability and maturity.

260 Compost obtained from different composting methods had attained a peak to alkaline pH
 261 (7.97-8.0). Alkaline pH of 7.97 and 8.00 was observed in composting using Trichoderma and worms
 262 and vermicomposting respectively. The alkaline nature of compost obtained composting using
 263 Trichoderma might be due to the action of talc used as a carrier in the preparation of Trichoderma.
 264 The pH of aerobic composting using cow dung recorded almost neutral (pH→7.07) during the final
 265 stage of composting, Iqbal *et al.*, (2012) has reported that during the final stages of composting, pH
 266 becomes neutral when organic acids get converted to CO₂ by microbial activity. However none of the
 267 methods of composting is found to have significant influence on pH of the compost.

268 Cation Exchange Capacity (CEC) is a chemical parameter used to determine the quality of
 269 compost as an organic manure. CEC measures the quantity of negative charges in the matrix to hold
 270 the negative charges. It not only reflects the decomposition rate, but also measures the capacity of
 271 compost to hold nutrients. Though none of the methods could attain CEC greater than 60 C mol kg⁻¹,
 272 among different methods of composting, highest CEC was noticed in aerobic composting using cow
 273 dung. This might be due to the rapid formation of humic fraction produced by degradation of organic
 274 matter. Moreover higher CEC in aerobic composting is an indicator of more rapid decomposition of
 275 organic matter than in other methods. Iqbal *et al.*, (2012) has stated that higher CEC in aerobic
 276 sample during active composting stage is an indicator of more rapid decomposition of organic matter.
 277 Except pit and heap method, all the methods of composting showed CEC in the range of 20-24
 278 meq/100 gm of compost. Lax *et al.*, (1986) reported that CEC in organic material increases as
 279 function of humification due to the formation of carboxylic and phenolic functional groups. CEC value
 280 greater than 60 C mol kg⁻¹ (on an ash-free material basis) was suggested as the minimum value
 281 needed to ensure an acceptable degree of maturity (Harada and Inoko., 1981). CEC greater than or
 282 approximately 60 is considered to be sufficiently matured for the application of cropland. (Baca *et al.*,
 283 1992). However the compost obtained from different methods did not show CEC greater than or
 284 approximately equal to 60, the compost obtained from different composting methods has helped in
 285 attaining other parameters of maturity.

286 C:N ratio has been used as an index of compost maturity in composting process. Carbon
 287 reduction was greater when compared to nitrogen content in all the methods of composting. This
 288 might be due to the use of carbon as source of energy and nitrogen for building cell structure in
 289 decomposition process. Percentage reduction in C:N ratio one month after composting was 22.39%,
 290 23.11% and 24.47% for pit, aerobic composting using cow dung and aerobic composting using
 291 effective microorganisms respectively. Higher reduction of C:N ratio in aerobic composting was due to
 292 the nature of aeration and the same became stable earlier than in all other process. The C:N ratio
 293 showed a decreasing trend in all the stages of composting. There was a rapid reduction in C:N ratio
 294 of composting using effective microorganisms. This may be due to the high count of microorganisms
 295 in the initial inoculants which might have led to the consumption of large quantity of carbonaceous
 296 material. The reduction in carbon content when compared to the initial content was greater in all the
 297 methods of composting which might be due to the use of carbon as a source of energy by
 298 microorganisms. Use of effective microorganisms as inoculants has helped in increasing microbial
 299 activity. Except Varanashi composting (16.05%), all the other method of composting had lower C:N
 300 ratio. The lack of sufficient aeration might have hindered the decomposition process in varanashi

301 composting which resulted in higher C:N ratio. As there is excess carbon, the nitrogen utilized was
 302 also less. Iqbal *et al.* (2012) have reported lesser utilization of nitrogen in anaerobic composting. C:N
 303 ratio <20, preferably <10 was established by Bernal *et al.*, (1998) as a maturity index for composts of
 304 all origins.

305 The intense microbial activity during composting process lead to the production and release
 306 of volatile organic compounds. Total volatile solids are found decreasing as the composting proceeds
 307 in all methods. Kumar *et al.* (2011) reported high emission rate of volatile organic compounds at early
 308 stage of composting than in the later stage. Aeration substantially influences emission of volatile
 309 solids. Total volatile solids was higher in varanashi composting and less in heap method. Muller *et al.*
 310 (2004) reported that excessive aeration speed up the process of emission of total volatile solids from
 311 compost pile. The total volatile solids and organic carbon content was higher in varanashi
 312 composting. Kilikowska and Klimiuk (2011) have reported that volatile organic compounds is
 313 significantly correlated with organic matter degradation

314 Table 2 Influence of composting methods on chemical properties of mature compost

Treatments	CEC (meq /100gm of compost)	pH	Total volatile solids	Organic carbon %	CN ratio
Aerobic composting with cow dung(T1)	24.17 ^a	7.07 ^a	38.00 ^{ab}	21.59 ^a	9.62 ^{bc}
Aerobic composting with <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> (T2)	22.57 ^a	7.67 ^a	32.00 ^{bc}	18.18 ^b	10.17 ^{bc}
Composting using effective microorganisms (T3)	20.26 ^{abc}	7.67 ^a	26.00 ^{cd}	14.77 ^{cde}	6.37 ^c
Composting using <i>Trichoderma</i> and worms (T4)	21.97 ^{ab}	7.97 ^a	31.33 ^{bc}	17.80 ^{bc}	9.93 ^{bc}
Vermicomposting (T5)	20.62 ^{abc}	8.00 ^{bc}	32.00 ^{bc}	18.18 ^b	11.03 ^b
Varanashi composting (T6)	22.80 ^a	7.43 ^a	40.66 ^a	23.11 ^a	16.41 ^a
Heap method (T7)	17.41 ^{bc}	7.90 ^a	25.33 ^{cd}	14.39 ^{de}	7.44 ^{bc}
Pit method (T8)	16.50 ^c	7.83 ^a	20.66 ^d	11.74 ^e	7.56 ^{bc}

315 *The data followed by same superscript do not vary significantly

316 Composting methods showed significant variation in nitrogen content. Nitrogen content was highest in
 317 compost obtained using effective microorganisms followed by aerobic composting using cow dung.
 318 This was a consequence of strong degradation of organic carbon compounds at early stage of
 319 composting, which reduced the weight of dry mass. Supporting findings were given by (Bustamante et
 320 al., 2008). Nitrogen content was significantly less in varanashi composting. The anaerobic nature of
 321 varanashi composting have resulted in lower reduction of C:N ratio which in turn resulted in lesser
 322 utilization of nitrogen by microorganism for building body structure. Phosphorus content was highest
 323 in varanashi composting. This might be due to the addition of rock phosphate present in the
 324 inoculums. Among the methods of composting vermicompost had the highest potassium content. This
 325 might be attributed to the direct action of worm gut enzymes. Vermicomposting involves bio-oxidation
 326 and stabilization of organic material by joint action of microorganism and earthworms (Gandhi and
 327 Sundari, 2012). Rao *et al.* (1996) has reported that the increase in K in vermicompost in relation to
 328 that of the simple compost and substrate was probably because of physical decomposition of organic
 329 matter of waste due to biological grinding during passage through the gut, coupled with enzymatic
 330 activity in worm's gut, which may have caused its increase

331 But P & K content of compost was found less than the initial content in all the methods of
 332 composting. Copper was highest in treatments where earthworms were introduced. This might be due
 333 to the biological activity of the microorganisms leading to increased nutrient availability. Freely
 334 available ions and minerals have been produced during ingestion and excretion of organic matter by
 335 earthworms. Zinc content was highest in composting using cow dung and varanashi composting.

336
 337 Table 3. Nutrient composition and micronutrient content of mature compost

Treatments	Nitrogen (%)	Phosphorus (%)	Potassium (%)	Cu (ppm)	Zn (ppm)
Aerobic composting with cow dung (T ₁)	2.13 ^a	0.21 ^{bc}	0.36 ^c	24.37 ^c	20.68 ^a
Aerobic composting with <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> (T ₂)	1.80 ^{cd}	0.17 ^{cd}	0.56 ^{abc}	25.30 ^c	14.24 ^{bc}
Composting using effective microorganisms (T ₃)	2.33 ^a	0.08 ^f	0.41 ^{bc}	23.35 ^c	7.33 ^d
Composting using <i>Trichoderma</i> and worms (T ₄)	1.81 ^{cd}	0.15 ^{de}	0.66 ^{ab}	31.46 ^{ab}	10.60 ^{bcd}
Vermicomposting (T ₅)	1.65 ^{de}	0.24 ^b	0.700 ^a	34.05 ^a	14.91 ^b
Varanashi composting (T ₆)	1.44 ^e	0.33 ^a	0.68 ^{ab}	28.60 ^{bc}	22.86 ^a
Heap method (T ₇)	1.93 ^{bc}	0.18 ^{cd}	0.59 ^{abc}	24.84 ^c	14.57 ^b
Pit method (T ₈)	1.55 ^{de}	0.11 ^{ef}	0.45 ^{abc}	16.34 ^d	9.33 ^{cd}

338 *The data followed by same superscript do not vary significantly

339
 340
 341 ***Influence of composting methods on Biological parameters***

342 Presence of large and diverse population of self-generated microorganism in the end product of
 343 compost indicates its potential in terms of fast and effective soil application. (Table 4) Microorganism
 344 and macro organism present in the compost vary with method of composting. Earthworm count was
 345 found higher in composting method using earthworm.

346
 347 The earthworm count was found to be higher in all the composting methods where earthworms were
 348 introduced. Earthworms were also noted in other methods of composting, though it was not
 349 introduced. The experimental site selected was frequently used for vermicomposting and this might
 350 be the reason for entry of earthworms in those methods of composting where the same was not
 351 introduced. But at the advanced stages, earthworms, millipedes, centipedes and silverfish were
 352 noticed in all the methods of composting, with relatively more number in heap method of composting.
 353 This might have resulted in the considerable reduction of carbon content in heap method of
 354 composting due to the consumption of the carbonaceous material by these organisms.

355
 356 Microbial colonies like bacteria, fungi and actinomycetes were also present in large numbers in
 357 mature compost. This shows the suitability of compost as an organic manure. The fungal activity was
 358 higher in composting using *Trichoderma* and worms. De Bertoldi *et al.* (1983) reported that fungi
 359 increase normally when remaining substrate in the compost are predominantly cellulose and lignin,
 360 which normally occurs during the later stages of composting. The highest activity of actinomycetes
 361 was found in vermicomposting and varanashi method of composting. Actinomycetes also tend to grow
 362 in the later stages of composting and have been shown to attack polymers such as hemicelluloses,
 363 lignin and cellulose. They tend to grow in the later stages of composting (De Bertoldi *et al.*, 1983). The
 364 bacterial count was highest in varanashi composting. Golueke (1992) reported that fungi are involved
 365 in the decomposition of cellulose and lignocellulosic compounds of the compost, and they provide
 366 more readily available carbon to the bacteria.

367

368 The dehydrogenase activity was found to be maximum in aerobic composting using cow dung
 369 followed by varanashi method of composting and vermicomposting and were on par with each other.
 370 The enzyme activity was significantly less in pit method of composting. Forster *et al.*, (1993) reported
 371 that dehydrogenase activity can be chosen as an index of microbiological activity because it refers to
 372 a group of mostly endocellular enzymes which catalyse the oxidation of soil organic matter. Highest
 373 dehydrogenase activity was noted in aerobic composting using cow dung followed by varanashi
 374 method of composting. The dehydrogenase activity was significantly less in pit and heap method of
 375 composting. The lack of air circulation to deep inside the layers of these methods might have caused
 376 an unfavourable condition for active microorganisms to multiply resulting in reduced activity of
 377 dehydrogenase. Sufficient air circulation and more number of active bacteria in the cow dung used
 378 as inoculants resulted in high dehydrogenase activity in composting using cow dung. Though
 379 varanashi method is anaerobic, the high enzyme activity may be due to the more number of active
 380 bacteria harboured in the immature cattle manure which was used as inoculants in the above method.
 381 In varanashi composting, the quantity of cow dung added was three times as that of other methods.

382 Immature cattle manure harboured high number of active bacteria and as the digestion
 383 proceed, the bacterial number decreased. (El-Shinnawi *et al.*, 1988). In addition to it, air circulation
 384 facilitated the growth and colonization of organisms. Tiquia and Tam (2002) have reported that
 385 oxygen transformation is necessary for the growth of aerobic organism. In varanashi composting the
 386 dehydrogenase activity ($484.59 \text{ ug g}^{-1} \text{ compost day}^{-1}$) reached its optimum on the 114th day. Here the
 387 substrate remained undisturbed as it was an anaerobic method of composting. Moreover towards the
 388 end of composting, no further decomposition is taking place as carbon and nitrogen became
 389 stabilized, no more heat will be released, as a result of microbial activities and dehydrogenase activity
 390 stabilized to optimum levels. Dehydrogenase activity is the simplest, quickest, and cheapest method
 391 that can be used to monitor the stability and maturity of compost. Dehydrogenase activity,
 392 demonstrates that it is possible to monitor the composting process more easily and rapidly by
 393 avoiding longer and more expensive analytical procedures.

394 Table 4. Microbial count and dehydrogenase activity in the mature compost

Treatments	Bacteria (10^6) (cfu/g)	Fungi 10^4 (cfu/g)	Actinomycetes 10^5 (cfu/g)	Dehydrogenase activity (ug g^{-1} compost day ⁻¹)
Aerobic composting with cow dung (T ₁)	7.6 ^{abc}	7.47 ^{abc}	6.47 ^c	626.76 ^a
Aerobic composting with <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> (T ₂)	5.23 ^c	9.00 ^{ab}	2.73 ^d	302.13 ^d
Composting using effective microorganisms (T ₃)	5.43 ^c	7.47 ^{abc}	7.00 ^c	322.83 ^c
Composting using <i>Trichoderma</i> and worms (T ₄)	10.03 ^{ab}	9.37 ^a	11.10 ^b	344.72 ^{cd}
Vermicomposting (T ₅)	5.63 ^{bc}	4.00 ^{de}	24.13 ^a	407.80 ^{bc}
Varanashi composting (T ₆)	11.67 ^a	6.57 ^{bcd}	24.60 ^a	484.59 ^b
Heap method (T ₇)	4.17 ^c	1.83 ^e	10.17 ^b	292.73 ^d
Pit method (T ₈)	7.47 ^{abc}	1.77 ^e	10.13 ^b	130.60 ^e

395 *The data followed by same superscript do not vary significantly

396 **Phytotoxicity studies**

397 Phytotoxicity caused by the presence or absence of organic chemicals in stable compost impair
 398 germination and plant growth. More than 90% germination of tomato seeds was noticed in compost
 399 extract and potting mixture obtained from all the methods of composting. The response of germination
 400 in tomato seeds using compost extract and potting mixture differed at day 1, but increased to about
 401 100% by day 5. Germination studies using compost extract indicated that compost obtained from

402 none of the method is phytotoxic. When seed germination using compost as potting mixture was
 403 carried out, high germination percentage was observed in all the methods of composting. In
 404 varanashi composting, germination of 96.67% was noted on 4th day. The high germination percentage
 405 indicates that compost obtained from all the methods of composting can be safely applied to soil due
 406 to absence of phytotoxicity. It is found that the phytotoxicity is not present in any of the compost, but
 407 the quality was not the same as the germination percentage was different on the first day in both the
 408 test.

409 **Heavy metals**

410 The data on heavy metal content is presented in Table 5. Lead content was significantly higher in
 411 aerobic composting with *Bacillus subtilis* followed by aerobic composting with cow dung. Chromium
 412 content was on par and significantly higher in composting with *Trichoderma* and worms and in
 413 vermicomposting. Nickel content was observed higher in varanashi composting which is on par with
 414 composting using effective microorganisms and *Trichoderma* and worms. All the heavy metals were
 415 found to be significantly less in pit method. Table 4.15 (a) Heavy metal content and CEC of mature
 416 compost. The heavy metal content values (Chromium and Nickel) were within the ranges of those
 417 compiled in other works (FCO, 1985). However the lead content in aerobic composting using cow
 418 dung and aerobic composting using *Bacillus subtilis* was greater than the limit prescribed by FCO.
 419 (Greater than 100ppm). The presence of metals in manure may be due to animal (e.g., cattle, pig, and
 420 poultry) excretion of trace elements contained in their diet or other health supplements.

421 Table 5. Heavy metal content of mature compost

Treatments	Pb (ppm)	Cr (ppm)	Ni (ppm)	As (ppm)	Cd (ppm)	Hg (ppm)
Aerobic composting with cow dung (T ₁)	239.40 ^b	9.38 ^{bc}	1.27 ^c	-0.03	-0.10	-0.015
Aerobic composting with <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> (T ₂)	358.90 ^a	9.11 ^{bc}	1.19 ^c	-0.04	-0.17	-0.02
Composting using effective microorganisms (T ₃)	65.90 ^d	9.27 ^{bc}	2.21 ^{ab}	-0.03	-0.18	-0.013
Composting using <i>Trichoderma</i> and worms (T ₄)	98.23 ^c	13.19 ^a	2.31 ^{ab}	-0.02	-0.17	-0.03
Vermicomposting (T ₅)	73.70 ^{cd}	12.75 ^a	1.30 ^c	-0.03	-0.13	-0.02
Varanashi composting (T ₆)	94.80 ^{cd}	9.34 ^{bc}	2.62 ^a	-0.03	-0.151	-0.02
Heap method (T ₇)	88.30 ^{cd}	10.86 ^{ab}	1.55 ^{bc}	-0.036	-0.08	-0.02
Pit method (T ₈)	17.97 ^e	5.92 ^d	0.79 ^c	-0.04	-0.15	0.02

422 *The data followed by same superscript do not vary significantly

423 **Influence of composting method on the suitability of compost as organic manure for Okra** 424 **crop**

425 ***Influence of composting methods on Yield and Yield attributes***

426 Application of compost obtained from different composting methods has significant influence in the
 427 yield of Okra crop. Varanashi composting, vermicomposting and composting using effective
 428 microorganisms produced higher yield in Okra compared to other components. The lowest yield was
 429 obtained by adding compost from pit method. As the quantity of compost applied to each treatment
 430 was based on the nitrogen content of the final compost obtained from different method of composting
 431 in comparison with nitrogen (N) content of farm yard manure (FYM), due to the low nitrogen content in
 432 varanashi composting, the quantity of varanashi compost added to crop in comparison to N content of

433 FYM was higher. This in turn benefited the crop in obtaining other nutrients present in the compost,
434 which in turn resulted in more number of branches and leaves. Except N, all the other nutrients in
435 varanashi compost was comparatively higher. Hence by applying higher quantity of varanashi
436 compost, the crop gets higher quantity of OM and other nutrients. This may be the reason for higher
437 yield in varanashi compost applied crop. The dry matter content was also higher in varanashi method
438 of composting. It might be due to the availability of more mineral nutrients in the rhizosphere and flux
439 of nutrients to into the root due to the addition of more quantity of compost.

440 Even though the quantity of compost obtained from pit method of composting, was applied in higher
441 quantity, the other nutrient elements in compost obtained from the above method was less. The yield
442 increase in varanashi compost, vermicompost and Effective Microorganism (EM) compost may be the
443 result of higher production of leaves and branches in these compared to other treatments. This
444 increase in growth parameter is due to the increased NPK uptake by plants in these treatments. N
445 uptake was higher in crops treated with EM compost and varanashi composting. P uptake was higher
446 varanashi composting. This might be due to the higher content of P content in varanashi composting,
447 in which rock phosphate (RP) was an ingredient during the compost preparation

448 The favourable effect of compost on the growth characteristics of plant may be due to the ability of the
449 compost to enhance the physical, chemical and biological properties of soil. Similar findings were
450 reported by Hanafy *et al.* (2002) on rocket plants. Different compost were added based on nitrogen
451 equivalent basis. The improvement in yield and yield attributes made after addition of organic manure
452 not only depends on nitrogen content alone, but also on the quantity of compost added. The higher
453 the quantity added, higher will be the improvement in the soil chemical and physical properties, which
454 in turn resulted in higher yield. Comparatively higher quantity of compost was added in plant grown
455 using vermicomposting. The earthworm count was higher in vermicomposting, composting using
456 Trichoderma and varanashi method of composting. The compost attracts earthworms and provides
457 them with a healthy diet. The presence of earthworms, centipedes, sow bugs, and other soil critters
458 means that there is still some organic material being slowly broken down releasing nutrients as food
459 pass through their digestive tracts. This might have resulted in more balance soil ecology for the
460 growth of plants which resulted in higher yield. Moreover, this has also reflected in the yield and
461 morphological characters of the plant growth in the above treatments. . The increase in yield in other
462 treatments may be contributed to the increased fruit weight in addition to the nutrient supply from the
463 addition of compost obtained from different method of composting.

464 Compost amendments to soil either stimulated or inhibited growth and nutrient uptake in Okra.
465 Potassium uptake was comparatively higher in vermicomposting. This might be due to the availability
466 of potassium in easily available form in the compost. Atiyeh *et al.* (2002) has reported that during
467 vermicomposting, the nutrients locked up in the organic waste are changed to simple and more
468 readily available and absorbable forms such as nitrate or ammonium nitrogen, exchangeable
469 phosphorus and soluble potassium, calcium, magnesium in worm's gut. However phosphorus uptake
470 was higher in aerobic composting using cow dung. This might be due to the presence of higher CEC
471 in the same. Epstein *et al.* (1976) reported that compost may affect the release of nutrients to plants
472 directly through the nutrients present in them or indirectly by their effect on the cation-exchange
473 capacity. Thus, a cation-exchange capacity effect may have been reflected in the nutrient uptake by
474 plants in aerobic composting using cow dung.

475 Results of the study suggested that compost obtained from none of the composting methods has
476 detrimental effect on plant growth. Varanashi compost, vermicompost and composting using effective
477 microorganisms significantly improved plant growth and yield.

478 ***Influence of composting methods on nutrient uptake of okra***

479 As regard to the effect of treatments on chemical composition of plants, significant difference was
480 found in N and K uptake, in plants treated with different compost, while only small significant
481 difference was observed in P uptake in plants treated with compost. The increase in the nutrient
482 content might be due to the positive effect of compost and microorganisms in increasing the surface
483 area of root per unit of soil volume, water-use efficiency and photosynthetic efficiency, which directly
484 affects the carbohydrate utilization and physiological processes. El-Ghadban et al. (2002), reported
485 that application of compost and biofertilizer led to an increase in carbohydrate percentage and some
486 macro nutrients in marjoram. N uptake was higher in plant received compost obtained from effective
487 microorganism and the lowest uptake was recorded in compost prepared using heap method. The
488 phosphorus uptake was highest in compost prepared using varanashi method. The compost prepared
489 from heap method showed lowest K uptake.

490

491 ***Influence of composting methods on nutrient status of the soil***

492 Even though the quantity of organic matter applied is different, no significant difference was noticed in
493 soil organic carbon after the harvest of the crop among different treatments. But there was an
494 increase in organic carbon than the initial organic carbon of the growth media. There was a significant
495 increase in available soil nutrient content after the addition of compost as compared to the initial
496 nutrient content in all the treatments.

497

498 **Conclusion**

499 The results of the study indicated that composting methods has significant influence on physical,
500 chemical and biological parameters of maturity. Even though the yield produced vary with composting
501 methods, all the methods helped to attain maturity and stability parameters. Quality of compost as
502 organic manure also varied with the method of production Compost obtained from none of the
503 composting methods had phytotoxicity and the heavy metal content were in the permissible limit
504 thereby no detrimental effect on plant growth. Based on the compost yield and better parameters of
505 maturity, aerobic composting, varanashi composting and vermicomposting was found superior. Crop
506 performance was significantly higher with varanashi compost, vermicompost and compost using EM.
507 The growth and yield performance of crop depended not only on the nutrient content of the compost
508 but the quantity of compost added as organic manure. There was a positive and significant increase
509 in available soil nutrient content after the addition of compost as compared to the initial soil nutrient
510 status in all the treatments.

511

512 **Acknowledgements**

513 Authors acknowledged Kerala Agricultural University for providing the fund and facility for the project
514 work

515 **Competing Interests**

516 There is no conflict of interest in this work

517 **Authors' Contributions**

518 First author did this project work for the partial fulfilment of her PG Degree and the second author
519 guided her for the PG work

520 **Reference**

- 521 Atiyeh, R. M., Lee, S., Edwards, C. A., Arancon, N. Q. and Metzger, J. D. (2002).The influence of
522 humic acids derived from earthworm-processed organic wastes on plant growth. *Bioresource*
523 *Technol*, 84(1): 7–14.
- 524 Baca, M. T., De Nobili, M. and Petrusi, F. (1992).Mineralization and humification pathways in two
525 composting processes applied to cotton wastes. *J. of fermentation and bioengineering*, 74: 179-185.
- 526 Bernal, M. P., Navarro, A. F., Sanchez-Monedero, M. A. Roig, A. and Cegarra, J.(1998). Influence of
527 sewage sludge compost stability and maturity on carbon and nitrogen mineralization in soil. *Soil Biol.*
528 *and Biochem.*, 30(3): 305-313
- 529 Bustamante, M. A., Paredes, C., Marhuenda-Egea, F. C., Perez-Espinosa, A., Bernal, M. P. and
530 Moral, R. (2008).Co-composting of distillery wastes with animal manures: Carbon and nitrogen
531 transformations in the evaluation of compost stability. *Chemosphere*, 72: 551-557.
- 532 De Bertoldi., Vallini, M. and Pera, G. A. (1983). The biology of composting: a review. *Waste Manage*
533 *Res*, 1: 157-176.
- 534 Dominguez, J., Edwards, C. A. and Subler, S. (1997).A comparison of composting and
535 vermicomposting. *Bio Cycle* 4: 57-59.
- 536 El-Ghadban, E. A. E., Ghallab, A. M. and Abdelwahab, A. F. (2002). Effect of organic fertilizer
537 (Biogreen) and biofertilization on growth, yield and chemical composition of Marjoram plants growth
538 under newly reclaimed soil conditions, 2nd Congress of Recent Technologies in Agriculture, 2: 334-
539 361.
- 540 El-Shinnawi, M., El-Shimi, S. and Badawi, M. A. (1988).Enzyme activities in manured soils. *Biol.*
541 *Wastes*, 2: 283–295.
- 542 Epstein, E., Taylor, J. M. and Chaney, R. L. (1976). Effects of sewage sludge and sludge compost
543 applied to soil on some soil physical and chemical properties. *J. Environ. Qual.*, 5: 422–426.
- 544 Finstein, M. S., Miller, F. C. and Strom, P. F. (1986).Waste treatment composting as acontrolled
545 system. *Biotechnol.*,8: 396-443.
- 546 Forster, J. C., Zech, W. and Wurdinger, E. (1993).Comparison of chemical and biological methods for
547 the characterization of the maturity of composts from contrasting sources. *Biol. Fertil. Soils*, 16(2): 93-
548 99.
- 549 Gandhi, A. and Sundari, U. S.:(2012). Effect of vernicompost prepared from aquatic weeds on growth
550 and yield of egg plant (*Solanum melongena* L.). *J. Biofertil Biopestici.*, 3(5): 344-347.
- 551 Golueke, C. (1992). Bacteriology of composting. *BioCycle*, 33: 55-57.
- 552 Hanafy, A. H., Kahlil, M. K. and Farrag, A. M. (2002).Nitrate accumulation, growth, yield and chemical
553 composition of Rocket (*Eruca vesicaria* Sub sp. sativa) plant as affected by NPK ertilization, kinetin
554 and salicylic acid. *Annal. Agric.Sci*, 47: 1-26.
- 555 Harada, Y. and Inoko, A. (1981). Relationship between Cation Exchange Capacity and degree of
556 maturity of city refuse composts. *Soil Sci. Pl. Nut.*, 26(3): 353-362.
- 557 Henry, C. L. and Harrison, R. B. (1996).Carbon fractions in compost and compost maturity tests. In:
558 Magdoff, F. R., Tabatabai, M. A., Hanlon, J. E. A. (ed.), *Soil Organic Matter: analysis and*
559 *interpretation. SSSA Spec. Pub. 46.* SSA, Madison, pp 51-67.

- 560 Iqbal, M. K., Khan, R. A., Nadeem, A. and Hussnain, A. (2012).Comparitive Study of Different
561 Techniques of Composting and their Stability Evaluation in Municipal Solid Waste. *J. Chem. Soc.*
562 *Pak.*, 34(2): 273-282.
- 563 Iyengar, S. R. and Bhawe, P. P. (2006).In-vessel composting of household wastes. *Waste Manage.*,
564 26(10): 1070-1080.
- 565 Kilikowska, D. and Klimiuk, E. (2011).Organic matter transformations and kinetics during sewage
566 sludge composting in a two stage system. *Bioresour. Technol.*, 102: 10951-10958.
- 567 Kumar, A., Alaimo, C. P., Horowitz, R., Mitloehner, F. M., Kleeman, M. J., Green, P.G. (2011).Volatile
568 organic compound emissions from green waste composting: Characterization and ozone formation.
569 *Atmos. Environ.*, 45(10): 1841-1848.
- 570 Lax, A., Roig, A. and Costa, F. (1986). A method for determining the cation-exchange capacity of
571 organic materials. *Pl. Soil.*, 94: 349-355.
- 572 Mathur, S. P., Owen, G., Dinel, H. and Schintzer, M. (1993).Determination of compost biomaturity.
573 *Biol. Agric. Hortic.*, 10: 65-85.
- 574 Muller, T., Thissen, R., Braun S., Dott, W. and Fischer, G. VOC and composting facilities. *Environ.*
575 *Sci. Pollut.* 2004. 11: 91-97.
- 576 Rao, S., Rao, A. S. and Takkar, P. N. (1996). Changes in different forms of K under earthworm
577 activity, In: Proceedings of the National Seminar on Organic Farming and Sustainable Agriculture,
578 Ghaziabad, India, October, pp. 9–11.
- 579 Schaub-Szabo, S. M. and Leonard, J. J. (1999). Characterizing the Bulk Density of Compost.
580 *Compost Sci. and Util.*, 7(4): 15-24.
- 581 Seal, A. (2012). Evaluation of new composting method in terms of its biodegradation pathway and
582 assessment of compost quality, maturity and stability. *Archives of Agronomy and Soil Sci.*, 58(9): 995-
583 1012.
- 584 Sughara, K. and Inoko, A. (1981). Composition analysis of humus and characterization of humic
585 obtained from city refuse compost. *Soil Sci. Pl. Nutr.*, 27: 213-224
- 586 Taiwo, L. B. and Oso, B. A. (2003). Influence of composting techniques on microbial succession,
587 temperature and pH in a composting municipal solid waste. *Afr. J. of Biotech.*, 3(4): 239-243.
- 588 Tiquia, S. M. and Tam, N.F. Y. (2002). Characterization and composting of poultry litter in forced
589 aeration piles. *Process Biochem.*, 37: 869-880.
- 590 Wu, L., Ma, L. Q. and Martinez, A. (2000). Comparison of Methods for Evaluating Stability and
591 Maturity of Biosolids Compost. *J. of Environ. Quality*, 29(2): 424-429.
- 592 Zucconi, F., Pera, A., Forte, M. and De Bertolidi, M. (1981). Evaluating toxicity of immature compost.
593 *Bio Cycle*, 22: 54-57.
- 594
- 595