KAMARAJ JOURNAL OF ACADEMIC RESEARCH

An International, Online, Open Access, Peer Reviewed, Multi-disciplinary Journal

Subject:

MICROBIOLOGY

Title of Original Research Paper:

Biochemical Analysis of Spent Mushroom Compost and Vermicompost

Author:

Dr. S. SUBBU LAKSHMI

Assistant Professor, Kamaraj College, Thoothukudi – 628 003, Affiliated to Manonmaniam Sundaranar University, Abishekapatti, Tirunelveli – 627 012, Tamil Nadu, India.

ABSTRACT

The physiochemical parameters assessed after the 90th day using Spent Mushroom Bed Material (SMBM) and vermicompost. The pH value in the Spent Mushroom Bed Material (SMBM) and vermicompost materials was lower than in the raw materials. The reduction of pH could be attributed to the higher mineralization of nitrogen and phosphorus into nitrites/nitrates and orthophosphate. The electrical conductivity (EC) has significantly decreased in all the compost materials (5.71 to 0.13 ms/cm). This difference may be due to consequent high organic matter loss and release of different mineral salts. Total Organic Carbon (TOC) concentration in both compost materials declined than raw materials after completion of the process. The reduction of TOC showed that the earthworms rapidly multiplied decomposing the organics. The Total Nitrogen (TN) content significantly increased in the 90th day of SMC and vermicompost materials than raw material. Increased in the TN concentration of SMC and vermicompost materials are dependent on the combination of initial feed mixture. The increase of TN showed the good quality of the bio-compost obtained. Total Available Phosphorous (TAP) content was

greater than the raw material for all treatments, which may be due to the phosphorus mineralization by the earthworm. The increase in available TAP concentration in organic waste treatments with recommended fertilizer could be due to a high microbial activity induced by the addition of organic residues, and soluble inorganic TAP.

Keywords: Mushroom, Vermicompost, SMBM

INTRODUCTION

The bioconversion of agriculture and industrial wastes into food has attracted world's attention in recent years. The bioconversion of wastes into useful products has a tremendous potential in that it can help meet the increasing world demand for food and energy. Likewise, many wastes like coir pith and paddy straw, green wastes from local vegetable market (Logakanthi *et al.* 2006) were decomposed by using mushrooms. Spent mushroom substrate is an excellent one to spend over the top of newly seeded lawns. The material provides cover against birds eating the seeds and will hold the water in the soil while the seeds germinate. The fresh mushroom compost applied to soil has many benefits: it improves soil structure, provides plant nutrients, increases plant nutrient availability, soil microbial populations, soil cation exchange capacity, plant root structures, increases soil aeration, improves soil water status and reduces soil compaction (Courtney and Mullen 2008).

It improves the quality of compost by increasing high nutrient content. It is an attractive proposition for utilizing spent mushroom compost as soil inorganic fertilizer supplementation. The obtained composts were tested for the presence of various nutrients like C, Total N, S, H, Zn, Mg, Fe, Ni, Cu, Na, K and C/N ratio. Previous studies showed that the spent mushroom bed is an excellent source of phosphorous, potassium and other trace elements (Mullen and McMahon 2001). The spent straw contains large quantity of N, P, K and can be used as manure (Maher 1991).

The end product of vermicomposting is pathogen free, odorless and rich in plant nutrients as compared to conventional compost. Vermicompost is often considered a supplement to fertilizers and it releases the major and minor nutrients slowly with significant reduction in C/N

ratio, synchronizing with the requirement of plants (Kaushik and Garg 2003). Agricultural utilization of vermicomposting will help in recycling the plant nutrients to soil and also avoid soil degradation (Rajeev Pratap Singha *et al.* 2011). The concentration of macronutrients like N, P and K increased after vermicomposting (Lakshmi and Vijayalakshmi 2000). Assessment of vermicompost on seedling growth revealed that the seedling growth percentage was more in vermicompost than in compost (Pulikhesi Biradar and Sharabanna Amoji 2005). The worm castings contain higher percentage (nearly twofold) of both macro and micronutrients than the garden compost. From earlier studies also it is evident that vermicompost provides all nutrients in readily available form and also enhances uptake of nutrients by plants (Sreenivas *et al.* 2000). Recent experiments by several authors (Gajalakshmi and Abbasi 2004) confirm the earlier reports that vermicompost has more beneficial impact on plants than compost.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Nutritional Analysis:

Spent Mushroom Compost (SMC) of *Ganoderma lucidum* and *Pleurotus flabellatus* grown on Sugarcane bagasse, woodchips and coir pith along with vermicompost were collected and shade dried. The SMC was obtained after the harvest of *G. lucidum* and *P. flabellatus*. Vermicompost was obtained after completion of experiment, i.e. on the 90th day. The analyses were carried out in Greenstar Fertilizers Limited, SPIC Nagar, Tuticorin – 628 005, Tamilnadu. The dry compost materials were used for analyzed of physiochemical parameters. The pH and electrical conductivity (EC) (Sundberg *et al.* 2004) were determined using a double-distilled water suspension of each waste in the ratio 1:10 (w/v) that has been agitated mechanically for 30 minutes and filtered through Whatman No.1 filter paper. Organic Carbon was measured by the Titrimetric method (Walkley and Black 1934). Total Nitrogen content was determined by Kjeldahl's method (Vogel 1961). The samples were analyzed in triplicates.

RESULTS

The physiochemical parameters were assessed in the Spent Mushroom Compost (Ganoderma lucidum and Pleurotus flabellatus) and Vermicompost

Table 1

$Spent\ mushroom\ compost\ (Ganoderma\ lucidum\ and\ Pleurotus\ flabellatus)$

and vermicompost prepared with different concentrations of fish waste

for analysis of physiochemical characters

Treatments	Ratio of substrates	Composition of bed materials used
SRM	Raw materials	Sugarcane bagasse
WRM		Woodchips
CRM		Coir pith
GSC ₁	Control	Remains of <i>G. lucidum</i> after harvest + 500g sugarcane bagasse
GSC_2	1:1	Remains of G. lucidum after harvest + 500g sugarcane bagasse + 500g fish wastes
GSC ₃	1:2	Remains of G. lucidum after harvest + 500g sugarcane bagasse + 1 kg fish wastes
GWC ₁	Control	Remains of G. lucidum after harvest +500g woodchips
GWC_2	1:1	Remains of Ganoderma lucidum after harvest +500g woodchips + 500g Fish waster
GWC ₃	1:2	Remains of G. lucidum after harvest +500g woodchips +1 kg Fish wastes
GCC_1	Control	Remains of G. lucidum after harvest +500g Coir pith
GCC ₂	1:1	Remains of G. lucidum after harvest +500g Coir pith +500g Fish wastes
GCC ₃	1:2	Remains of G. lucidum after harvest +500g Coir pith + 1 kg Fish wastes
PSC ₁	Control	Remains of <i>P. flabellatus</i> after harvest + 500g sugarcane bagasse
PSC_2	1:1	Remains of <i>P. flabellatus</i> after harvest + 500g sugarcane bagasse+ 500g fish wastes
PSC ₃	1:2	Remains of <i>P. flabellatus</i> after harvest + 500g sugarcane bagasse+ 1 kg fish wastes
PWC_1	Control	Remains of <i>P. flabellatus</i> after harvest + 500g woodchips
PWC_2	1:1	Remains of <i>P. flabellatus</i> after harvest + 500g woodchips +500g fish wastes
PWC ₃	1:2	Remains of <i>P. flabellatus</i> after harvest + 500g woodchips + 1kg fish wastes
PCC ₁	Control	Remains of <i>P. flabellatus</i> after harvest + 500g coir pith
PCC_2	1:1	Remains of <i>P. flabellatus</i> after harvest + 500g coir pith+ 500g fish wastes
PCC ₃	1:2	Remains of <i>P. flabellatus</i> after harvest + 500g coir pith+ 1 kg fish wastes
SV_1	Control	500g sugarcane bagasse + 500g cowdung
SV_2	1:1	500g sugarcane bagasse + 500g cowdung + 500g fish wastes
SV_3	1:2	500g sugarcane bagasse + 500g cowdung + 1kg fish wastes
$\overline{WV_1}$	Control	500g woodchips + 500g cowdung
WV_2	1:1	500g woodchips + 500g cowdung + 500g fish wastes
WV_3	1:2	500g woodchips + 500g cowdung + 1 kg fish wastes
CV_1	Control	500g coir pith + 500g cowdung
CV_2	1:1	500g coir pith + 500g cowdung + 500g fish wastes
$\overline{\text{CV}_3}$	1:2	500g coir pith + 500g cow dung + 1 kg fish wastes

Hydrogen ion concentration (pH)

The pH values in various raw materials of SRM, WRM and CRM were 8.2, 8.5 and 8.1 respectively. In *G. lucidum* based materials, the maximum reduction in pH occurred in GCC₁ (6.1). The minimum reduction occurred in GCC₃ (6.6). In *P. flabellatus* based materials, the maximum reduction in pH occurred in PCC₁ (6.2) followed by PSC₁ (6.2) and PWC₁ (6.3). The minimum reduction in pH occurred in PWC₃ (6.7) followed by PSC₃ (6.5) and PCC₃ (6.5). In vermicompost based materials, the maximum reduction in pH occurred in SV₁ (6.1). The minimum reduction occurred in CV₂ and CV₃ (6.5) (Fig.1).

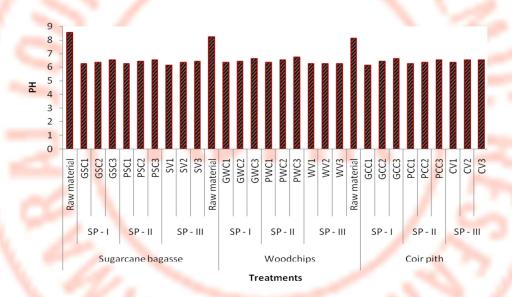


Fig. 1. Comparison of pH in different treatment mixtures of Spent Mushroom Compost (Ganoderma lucidum and Pleurotus flabellatus) and Vermicompost



Electrical Conductivity (EC)

The EC in various raw materials of SRM, WRM and CRM were 2.1, 1.9 and 6.2 respectively. In G.lucidum based materials, the maximum EC was recorded in GCC_1 (5.71) followed by GSC_1 (1.62) and GWC_1 (0.63). Minimum EC was recorded in GWC_3 (0.21) followed by GSC_3 (1.18) and GCC_3 (3.6). In P. flabellatus based materials, the maximum EC was recorded in PWC_3 (0.44). In vermicompost based materials, the maximum EC was recorded in CV_1 (4.36) and minimum EC was recorded in WV_2 (0.52) (Fig.2).

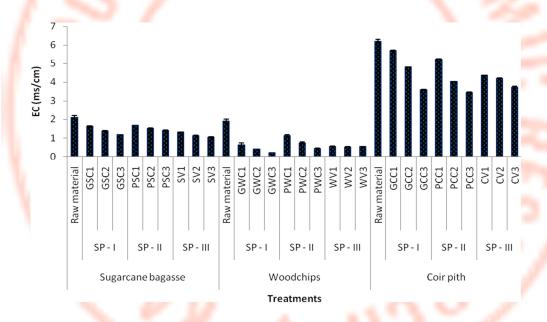


Fig. 2. Comparision of EC in different treatment mixtures of Spent Mushroom Compost (Ganoderma lucidum and Pleurotus flabellatus) and Vermicompost



Total Organic Carbon (TOC)

The concentrations of TOC in raw materials were 45.2% in SRM, 42.5% in WRM and 43.1% in CRM respectively. In *G.lucidum* based materials, the highest reduction of TOC was in GSC₃ (26.25%), GWC₃ (22.93 %) and GCC₃ (29.11 %). The lowest reduction of TOC was noticed in GSC₁ (33.31%), GWC₁ (28.90%) and GCC₁ (35.96%). In *P. flabellatus* based materials, the highest reduction of TOC was in PSC₃ (23.34%), PWC₃ (26.02%) and PCC₃ (26.20%) while the lowest reduction was in PCC₁ (30.51%), PSC₁ (30.13%) and PWC₁ (28.4%) respectively. The concentration of TOC was very low in vermicompost when compared to spent mushroom compost materials. In vermicompost materials, the highest reduction of TOC was in CV_3 (13.55%) followed by SV_2 (13.68%) and WV_3 (15.3%) while the lowest reduction of TOC was in WV_1 (24.17%) followed by SV_1 (16.63%) and CV_1 (15.86%) respectively (Fig.3).

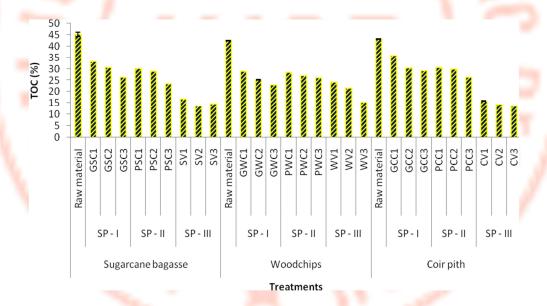


Fig.3. Comparision of TOC (%) in different treatment mixtures of Spent mushroom compost (Ganoderma lucidum and Pleurotus flabellatus) and Vermicompost

Total Nitrogen (TN)

The total nitrogen content estimated in the raw materials was 0.7% in SRM, 0.65% in WRM and 1.05% in CRM respectively. In *G.lucidum* based materials, the maximum total nitrogen content was in GSC₃ (1.86%) followed by GWC₃ (1.40%) and GCC₃ (1.35%). The minimum total nitrogen content was in GSC₁ (1.29%), GWC₁ (0.96%) and GCC₁ (1.24%) respectively. In *P. flabellatus* based materials, the highest total nitrogen content was observed in PWC₃ (1.85%) and the lowest content was observed in PSC₁ (1.53%). In vermicompost, the maximum total nitrogen content was observed in CV₃ (2.33%) while the minimum in WV₁ (1.22%) (Fig.4).

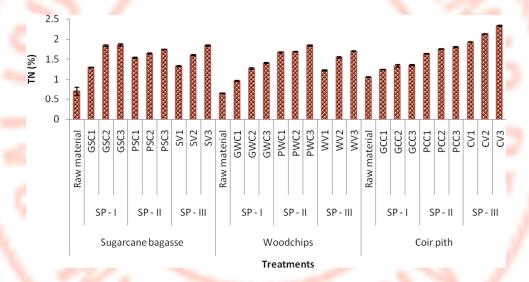


Fig. 4. Comparision of TN(%) in different treatment mixtures of Spent mushroom compost (Ganoderma lucidum and Pleurotus flabellatus) and Vermicompost





Total Available Phosphorous (TAP)

The TAP content in the raw materials was 0.007% in SRM, 0.009% in WRM and 0.008% in CRM respectively. In *G.lucidum* based materials, the TAP content was maximum in GSC₃ (0.03%) followed by GWC₃ (0.02%) and GCC₁, GCC₂ and GCC₃ (0.01% each). The TAP content was minimum in (GSC₁- 0.01%) followed by (GWC₁- 0.01%) and (GCC₁, GCC₂ and GCC₃ - 0.01%). In *P. flabellatus* based materials, the TAP content was maximum in PCC₃ (0.17%) followed by PWC₃ (0.13%) and PSC₃ (0.10%). The TAP content was minimum in PWC₁ (0.01%) followed by PSC₁ and PSC₂ (0.04%) and PCC₁ (0.07%). In vermicompost, the TAP content was maximum in VC₃ (0.51%) followed by VS₃ (0.26%) and VW₃ (0.13%). The TAP content was minimum in VW₁ (0.03%) followed by VC₃ (0.04%) and VS₁ (0.16%) (Fig.5).

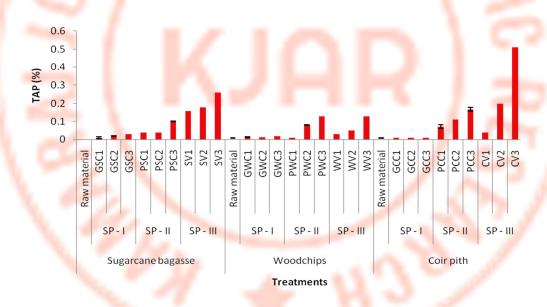


Fig. 5. Comparision of TAP (%) in different treatment mixtures of Spent mushroom compost (Ganoderma lucidum and Pleurotus flabellatus) and Vermicompost

DISCUSSION

In the experiment, the pH value in the SMC and vermicompost materials was lower than in the raw materials. This indicates that the reduction of pH values at the end of the process was due to the bioconversion of organic material into various intermediate types of organic acids. Ndegwa *et al.* (2000) reported that the reduction of pH during vermicomposting is due to the higher mineralization of nitrogen and phosphorus into nitrites/nitrates and orthophosphate that causes the lowering of pH value. Furthermore, it occurs due to the production of CO₂ and organic acids by microbial metabolism during decomposition of different substrates in the feed mixtures. The reduction of pH in vermicompost has also been reported by Suthar and Singh (2008). Munroe (2004) reported that earthworms absorb water and breathe through their skin. They are sensitive to pH variations of the substrate. pH value is one of the most important factors affecting the survival of worms. Different pH values affect the activity of worms. There is a certain range of pH value for earthworms to survive. The decrease in pH after cumulative sludge may probably be attributed to nitrification of N-NH⁺4 or release of H⁺ ions during mineralization from the sludge (Antolin *et al.* 2005). Kushwaha *et al.* (2000) also reported a decrease in soil pH with application of wheat or rice straw.

EC significantly declined (28.69% or 28% to 46%) in the final vermicompost during the management of bio-sludge of the beverage industry (Singh *et al.* 2010). In the present study, after 90th day the electrical conductivity has decreased in all the compost materials. The EC of SMC and vermicomposted materials ranged from 5.71 to 0.13 ms/cm. This difference may be due to high organic matter loss consequently and release of different mineral salts (Chauhan and Singh 2013).

In this study, TOC concentration in both compost materials declined than raw materials after completion of the process. The final reduction in TOC values in all types of compost materials was possibly due to the rapid respiration rate that leads to the loss of TOC in terms of CO₂ and the organic carbon utilized by the worms and resulting in TOC reduction (Tahir and Hamid 2012). The reduction of organic carbon may be due to the growth of mushrooms, which resulted in the decomposition of waste (Mehalingam *et al.* 2008). The reduction of TOC showed

that the earthworms rapidly multiplied decomposing the organics. Similar type of results were observed by several authors in various studies (Hemalatha, 2012; Lara Zirbes *et al.* 2011; Rupani *et al.* 2013) in which various types of wastes were decomposed by earthworms. The organic carbon content declined drastically from the substrate upto 90 days (Suthar 2007). The TOC reduction of 24% to 60% during vermicomposting was also observed in different combinations of vermibed in an earlier research (Yadav and Garg 2010).

The Total Nitrogen (TN) content has increased after the 90th day in SMC and vermicompost materials. This result indicates that TN concentration of SMC and vermicompost materials are dependent on the combination of initial feed mixture (Chauhan and Singh 2013). Suthar (2007) reported that TN has increased in all vermibeds after 150 days. The increase in TN values in the final SMC and vermicompost materials may be due to the initial physicochemical properties in the substrates, microbial mineralization of nitrogen and enzyme activity in the gut of the worms (Rupani *et al.* 2013; Tahir and Hamid 2012). The increase of TN during composting process might be caused by the weight loss of the compost piles during composting process (Dias *et al.* 2010).

A similar trend has been observed by Kaushik and Garg (2004) who had reported a TN increase of 2.0 to 3.2 times in textile mill sludge vermicompost. It was suggested that earthworms could increase nitrogen levels in vermicompost by the addition of their excretory products, mucus, etc. In general, different nitrogen pattern and mineralization activities depend on the total amount of nitrogen in the initial waste and on the earthworm activity in the waste decomposition (Suthar 2007b). Kale *et al.* (1982) reported that the nitrogen content accumulated in the earthworm cast after the digestion of wastes by the earthworm.

The increase of total nitrogen showed the good quality of the bio-compost obtained (Hemalatha 2012; Lara Zirbes *et al.* 2011; Alok Bharadwaj 2010). The present study and the earlier reports indicated that the earthworms use the carbon content in the spent material as a source of energy. Simultaneously, the nitrogen present in them was recycled. During this process, the casting of earthworms in turn enriched the macronutrients such as N, P and K

resulting in the conversion of the spent materials into a good organic fertilizer. All these activities stabilized the level of carbon and nitrogen in the compost.

TAP content of different agro-industrial wastes increased in final compost materials. The phosphorus content was greater than the raw material for all treatments (Tripathi and Bhardwaj 2004) which may be due to the phosphorus mineralization by the earthworm. This result was supported by Lee (1992)—who suggested that unavailable phosphorus was converted in the earthworm intestine to an available form and also by solublization by the microorganism in their casts. Garg *et al.* (2006b) reported an increase in concentration of phosphorous during vermicomposting. The enhanced phosphorous level in vermicompost is probably through mineralization and mobilization of phosphorus by bacterial and faecal phosphatase activity of earthworms (Jeyanthi *et al.* 2010).

The incorporation of crop residues may increase the availability of TAP either directly by the process of decomposition and release of TAP from the biomass or indirectly by increase in the amount of soluble organic matter which are mainly organic acids that increase the rate of desorption of phosphate and improve the available TAP content in the soil (Nziguheba *et al.* 1998). The increase in available TAP concentration in organic waste treatments with recommended fertilizer could be due to a high microbial activity induced by the addition of organic residues and soluble inorganic TAP, which speeds up TAP cycling (Melero *et al.* 2007).

CONCLUSION

The biochemical analysis of spent mushroom materials and vermicompost in the present study indicated that the nutrient qualities of the materials were enhanced to a greater extent in sugarcane bagasse compost compared to coir pith and woodchips compost. The total quantity of certain minerals and nutrients present in the raw material was either reduced or tuned according to the requirement of the plants by the mushroom and earthworms. Compared with different treatment mixture of 1:1, 1:2 and control in all spent mushroom compost and vermicompost, the best performance was in 1:2 treatments. So, the 1:2 ratio of treated agro-industrial waste was considered the best since it showed best performance and also the macro and micro nutrient level present in the vermicompost and mushroom compost materials showed a promising level

required for the plants. Better quantity of macro was present in vermicompost when compared to spent mushroom compost. The sugarcane bagasse was the best substrates compared to others like woodchips and coir pith. So, the essential nutrient was good in sugarcane bagasse vermicompost for plant growth. When agro-industrial waste was treated with earthworms rather than mushroom species, the result was better. Hence, it is concluded that the 1:2 ratio of sugarcane bagasse and fish waste would be an ideal combination for the waste disposal to a greater extent.

REFERENCE

- 1. Ramalingam A, Gangatharan M, KasturiBai R 2004: Solid state bio-treatment of coirpith and paddy straw. *Asian Journal of Microbiology, Biotechnology and Environmental Science.*, **6**, 141-142.
- 2. Logakanthi S, Rajesh Banu J, Vijayalakshmi G 2006: Fungal composting a novel method for green waste composting. *AJBME*., **22**, 35-42.
- 3. Courtney RG, Mullen GJ 2008: Soil quality and barley growth as influenced by the land application of two compost types. Bioresource Technology., **99**, 2913-2918.
- 4. Mullen GJ, McMahon CA 2001: The effects of land spreading and soil incorporation of spent mushroom compost on County monaghan grassland soils. *Irish journal of agricultural and food research.*, **40** (2), 189-19.
- 5. Maher MJ 1991: Spent mushroom compost (SMC) as a nutrient source in peat based pottery substrates. *Mushroom Sci.*, **13**(2), 645-650.
- 6. Kaushik P, Garg VK 2003: Vermicomposting of mixed solid textile mill sludge and cow dung with epigeic earthworm *Eisenia fetida*. *Bioresource Technology.*, **90**, 311–316.
- 7. Rajeev Pratap Singha, Pooja Singha, Ademir SF Araujoc, Hakimi Ibrahima M, Othman
- 8. Sulaiman 2011: Management of urban solid waste: Vermicomposting a sustainable option. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling.*, **55**(7), 719-729.
- 9. Lakshmi BL, Vijayalakshmi GS 2000: Vermicomposting of sugar factory filter pressmud using African earthworm species *E. eugeniae*. *Pollution Research.*, **19**(3), 481-483.

- 10. Pulikhesi M, Biradar, Sharabanna D, Amoji 2005: Assessment of Compost and Vermicompost as Biofertilizer through growth of food- crop seedings. *Ecol. Env and Cons.*, **11**(2), 195-200.
- 11. Sreenivas C, Muralidhar S, Rao MS 2000: Vermicompost, a viable component of IPNSS in nitrogen nutrition of ridge gourd. *Annals of Agricultural Research.*, **21**(1), 108–113.
- 12. Gajalakshmi S, Abbasi SA 2004: Neem leaves as a source of fertilizer-fum-pesticide vermicompost. *Bioresour Technol.*, **92**, 291-296.
- 13. Sundberg CS, Smars S, Jonsson H 2004: Low pH as an inhibiting factor in the transition from mesophilic to thermophilic phase in composting. *Biores Technol.*, **95**, 145–150.
- 14. Walkley A, Black IA 1934: An examination of Degtjareff method for determining soil organic matter and a proposed modification of the chromic acid titration method. *Soil Sci.* **37**, 29-37.
- 15. Vogel AI 1961: A Textbook of Quantitative Inorganic Analysis Including Elementary Instrumental Analysis. Longmans
- 16. Ndegw PM, Thompson SA, Das KC 2000: Effects of stocking density and feeding rate on vermicomposting of biosolids. *Bioresour Technol.*, **71**, 5–12.
- 17. Suthar S, Singh S 2008: Vermicomposting of domestic waste by using two epigeic earthworms (*Perionyx excavatus and Perionyx sansibaricus*). *International Journal of Environmental Science and Technology.*, **5(1)**, 99-106.
- 18. Munroe G 2004: Manual of on-farm vermicomposting and vermiculture. [Online]
- 19. Available:http://www.organicagcentre.ca/DOCs/Vermiculture_FarmersManual_gm.pdf (September 15, 2007).
- 20. Antolin M, Pascual I, García C, Polo A, Sánchez-Diaz M 2005: Growth, yield and solute content of barley in soils treated with sewage sludge under semiarid Mediterranean conditions. *Field Crops Res.*, **94**, 224–237.
- 21. Kushwaha CP, Tripathi SK, Singh KP 2000: Variations in soil microbial biomass and N availability due to residue and tillage management in a dryland rice agroecosystem. *Soil Tillage Res* **56**, 153–166.

ISSN: xxxx-xxxx

- 22. Singh J, Kaur A, Vig AP, Rup PJ 2010: Role of Eisenia fetida in rapid recycling of nutrients from bio sludge of beverage industry. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf.*, **73**, 430–435.
- 23. Chauhan HK, Singh K 2013: Effect of tertiary combinations of animal dung with agrowastes on the growth and development of earthworm *Eisenia fetida* during organic waste management. *International Journal Of Recycling of Organic Waste in Agriculture.*, 2:11
- 24. Tahir TA, Hamid FS 2012: Vermicomposting of two types of coconut wastes employing *Eudrilus eugeniae*: a comparative study. *Int J Recycling Org Waste Agric.*, 1:7.
- 25. Mehalingam P, Rajendran A Jayabalan M 2008: Bioconversion of organic wastes into organic manure by adopting different Technologies. *Orbit*
- 26. Hemalatha B 2012: Recycling of industrial sludge along with municipal solid waste vermicomposting method. *IJAET*., **3**(2), 71–74.
- 27. Lara Zirbes, Quentin Renard, Joseph Dufey, Pham Khanh Tu, Hoang Nghia Duyet, Philippe Lebailly, Frederic Francis, eric Haubruge 2011: Valorisation of a water hyacinth in vermicomposting using an epigeic earthworm *Perionyx excavates* in Central Vietnam. *Biotechnol. Agron. Soc. Environ.*, **15**(1), 85-93.
- 28. Rupani PF, Ibrahim MH, Ismai Rupani SA 2013: International Journal Of Recycling of Organic Waste in Agriculture, 2:10http://www.ijrowa.com/content/2/1/10
- 29. Suthar S 2007: Vermicomposting potential of *Perionyx sansibaricus* (Perrier) in different waste materials. *Bioresource Technology*., **98**, 1231–1237.
- 30. Yadav A, Garg VK 2010: Bioconversion of Food Industry Sludge into value-added product (vermicompost) using epigeic earthworm *Eisenia fetida*. *World Revi Sci Technol Sust Dev.*, **7(3)**, 225–238.
- 31. Dias BO, Silva CA, Higashikawa FS, Roig A, Sanchez-Monedero MA 2010: Use of biochar as bulking agent for the composting of poultry manure: effect on organic matter degradation and humification. *Bioresour Technol.*, **101**, 1239 –1246.
- 32. Kaushik P, Garg VK 2004: Dynamics of biological and chemical parameters during vermicomposting of solid textile mill sludge mixed with cow dung and agricultural residues. *Bioresour Technol.*, **94**, 203–209.

ISSN: xxxx-xxxx

- Jul Sep 2018
- 33. Suthar S, 2007: Nutrient changes and biodynamics of epigeic earthworm *Perionyx* excavates (Perrier) during recycling of some agriculture wastes. *Bioresource* Technology., **98**(8), 1608-1614.
- 34. Kale RD, Bano K, Krishnamoorthy RV 1982: Potential of *Perionyx excavatus* for utilizing organic wastes. *Pedobiologia.*, **23**, 419 425.
- 35. Alok Bharadwaj 2010: Management of Kitchen Waste Material through Vermicomposting. *Asian J. Exp. Biol. Sci.*, **1**(1), 175-177.
- 36. Tripathi G, Bhardwaj P 2004: Comparative studies on biomass production, life cycles and composting efficiency of *Eisenia foetida* Savigny) and *Lampito mauritii* (Kinberg). *Biores Technol.*, **92**, 275–278.
- 37. Lee KE 1992: Some trends opportunities in earthworm researcher: Darwin's children. The future of our discipline. *Soil Biol Biochem.*, **24**, 1765–1771.
- 38. Garg VK, Yadav YK, Sheoran A, Chand S and Kaushik P 2006: Livestock excreta management through vermicomposting using an epigeic earthworm *Eisenia fetida Environmentalist.*, **26**, 269-276.
- 39. Jeyanthi A, Balakumar S and Mahalakshmi T 2010: Increasing bioavailability of nutrients in fly ash through vermicomposting. *Journal of Bioscience and Technology.*, **1(2)**, 100-113.
- 40. Nziguheba G, Palm CA, Buresh RJ and Smithson PC 1998: Soil phosphorus fractions and adsorption by organic and inorganic sources. *Plant Soil.*, **198**, 159–161.
- 41. Melero S, Madejon E, Ruiz JC and Herencia JF 2007: Chemical and biochemical properties of a clay soil under dryland agriculture system as affected by organic fertilization. *Eur J Agron.*, **26**, 327 –334.