

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24

**Odours and volatile organic compounds emitted from municipal solid waste at different stage
of decomposition and relationship with biological stability**

B. Scaglia¹, V. Orzi¹, A. Artola², X. Font², E. Davoli³, A. Sanchez², F. Adani^{1,*}

¹ Dipartimento di Produzione Vegetale, Università degli Studi di Milano, Via Celoria 2, 20133
Milano, Italy.

² Composting Research Group. Department of Chemical Engineering - Escola d'Enginyeria –
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Campus Bellaterra, Cerdanyola del Vallès, 08193 Barcelona,
Spain.

³ Istituto Mario Negri, Via La Masa 19, 20156 Milano, Italy.

Pre-print

Pre-print of: Scaglia, Barbara, et al. "Odours and volatile organic compounds emitted from municipal solid waste at different stage of decomposition and relationship with biological stability" in *Bioresource technology* (Ed. Elsevier), vol. 102, issue 7 (April 2011), p. 4638-4645.

The final version is available at DOI [10.1016/j.biortech.2011.01.016](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2011.01.016)

^{1,*} Corresponding author: fabrizio.adani@unimi.it.

25 **ABSTRACT**

26 Odours and volatile organic compounds (VOC) emission during biological process used to treat
27 MSW were studied under standardized conditions in order to detect potential risk for workers and
28 population. Results obtained indicated that odours and VOCs emitted depends on the biological
29 stability of waste measured by the Dynamic Respiration Index (DRI) and a very good correlation
30 were found between these parameters (OU_E vs. DRI, $r = 0.957$, $p < 0.001$, $n = 6$; VOC vs. DRI $r =$
31 0.969 , $p < 0.001$, $n = 6$).

32 GC-MS study of the VOCs was able to investigate on the nature of the molecule emitted. Two
33 groups of molecules could be detected. The first group of molecules were degraded during the
34 process and so their presence depended on the DRI, such as correlation found confirmed, i.e.
35 alcohols vs. DRI, $r = 0.84$, $p < 0.05$, $n = 6$; aliphatic hydrocarbon vs. DRI, $r = 0.87$, $p < 0.05$, $n = 6$;
36 ketones vs. DRI, $r = 0.84$ $p < 0.05$, $n = 6$; nitrogen compounds vs. DRI, $r = 0.87$ $p < 0.05$, $n = 6$;
37 < 0.05 ; terpenes vs. DRI, $r = 0.95$ $p < 0.01$, $n = 6$). The second group, i.e. aromatic and halogenated
38 compounds and furan persisted in the waste sample, becoming the more representative compound
39 of the treated final waste. Nevertheless, molecules concentration was always lower than TLV-
40 TWA. Odours perceived was due, above all, to N compounds produced during the biological
41 process. However, it was not possible to indicate for the treated waste the specific molecules
42 responsible for the odours detected.

43

44 **Keywords:** Dynamic Respiration Index; GC-MS; Mechanical Biological Treatment; Odours; VOC.

45 **1. Introduction**

46 The landfill represents the most common way of municipal solid waste (MSW)
47 disposal. On the other hand, the anaerobic degradation of the biodegradable fraction of the
48 landfilled MSW causes several environmental problems such as the production of methane,
49 VOC odors and leachate, the presence of vectors – insects, rodents, and birds – public health
50 hazard, explosions and plants toxicity. All these negative impacts and the long time required
51 to stabilize the materials are the major issues that make landfills unsustainable. On the
52 contrary, a landfill is defined sustainable if there is a safe disposal of waste, and its
53 subsequent degradation to the inert state in the shortest possible time-span.

54 The strength of environmental impacts of MSW depends fundamentally on both the
55 quantity and the characteristics of the organic fraction of MSW (OFMSW). The reduction of
56 OFMSW in landfills can be obtained by three different approaches: i) separated collection of
57 OFMSW to produce compost; ii) waste burning to produce energy and iii) mechanical-
58 biological treatment (composting-like process) to produce a stabilized material.

59 The Mechanical Biological Treatment (MBT) refers to a series of mechanical and
60 biological management of MSW performed with the purpose to reduce its the impact when
61 being landfilled. MBT is extensively used in Europe, mainly in Italy, Germany and Austria,
62 although many other countries, such as England and Spain and East Europe, have now started
63 adopting MBT as their main strategy to reduce the organic fraction of MSW before
64 landfilling.

65 From a processing point of view, MBT consists on the mechanical screening of MSW
66 in order to separate the fraction characterized by low water content (generally lower than 250-
67 300 g kg⁻¹ wet weight – w.w.) and a high energetic content (EC) (EC generally > 12000 kJ kg⁻¹
68 w.w.) (e.g. plastic and paper), from the fraction characterized by a high water content
69 because of the high organic fraction (OF) contained (generally > 500 g kg⁻¹ w.w.) and low

70 energetic value (EC generally $< 9.000 \text{ kJ kg}^{-1} \text{ w.w.}$) (e.g. kitchen and garden refuse waste).
71 The fraction with high EC is then used to produce solid recovered fuel (SRF) and burned to
72 produce electricity. On the other hand, the fraction rich in the organic matter is biologically
73 treated in order to reduce the OF contained before being disposed in a landfill. Biological
74 process represents the core of the MBT treatment.

75 Biological process consist in an solid-state aerobic process (composting-like process)
76 during which forced aeration in the biomass allows the microbial oxidation of the OF
77 contained in the MSW reducing its potential impact (waste reactivity) when MSW is
78 landfilled (Scaglia et al., 2008; Scaglia et al., 2010). Biological processes, since uses forced
79 aeration, are sources of gas emissions because of the presence in the exhaust air of inorganic
80 and organic molecules coming from the microbial metabolism or due to the presence of
81 volatile molecules present in the MSW (Pagans et al., 2006). From a chemical point of view,
82 gas emissions are represented by CO_2 and methane, but, also, by nitrogen, sulphur,
83 hydrocarbons, alcohols, ketones, esters and aromatic compounds (Homas and Fischer, 1992).
84 Some of these compounds represent odours causing annoyance for the population (Pagans et
85 al., 2006), whereas other compounds can be toxic for humans (Jung and Park, 2005).

86 Because of the rapid increase of the number of operative MBT plants in Europe, the
87 quali-quantitative characterization of emission from MBT plants becomes necessary to
88 correctly plan new MBT plants and to preserve the health of the plant workers and of the
89 inhabitant close to the plant (Biasioli et al., 2004).

90 By now, no regulation is imposed by the European Union with respect to the presence
91 of odours in air coming from MBT plants (Drew et al., 2007). Nevertheless, national or local
92 rules are present (e.g. Italian regional rules and German rules) (Adani et al., 2001; German
93 Federal Minister for Environment, Nature Conservation and Nuclear Safety; 2001). These
94 rules, generally, focus the attention on the measurement and regulation of the odours emitted

95 by a composting or MBT plant by measuring the odour perceived by a human panel (i.e.,
96 dynamic olfactometry) (CEN, 2003). Nevertheless this approach only allows to measure the
97 degree of annoyance of the plant for population close to the plant but says nothing about the
98 hazardous of the organic molecules emitted. Thus, the impact of a MBT plant concerning air
99 quality needs to be completed by detecting not only odour impact but also the kind of
100 molecules emitted (Sironi et al., 2007).

101 The measurement of both odours and volatile organic compounds is usually carried
102 out in the full-scale plants in order to detect the exposure of workers and the diffusion of
103 gaseous emissions around the plant (Sánchez-Monedero et al., 2003). These measurements
104 are very useful to measure and describe the impacts that occur for a particular existing plant.
105 Nevertheless these measurements and relative results cannot be applied to other MBT
106 plants as, in situ data, are influenced by process parameters, atmospheric conditions and waste
107 characteristics (Sánchez-Monedero et al., 2003). In addition, the management of the solid-
108 state aerobic process may be not optimal, increasing the volatile emissions. In particular, the
109 maintenance of optimal aeration conditions (optimal O₂ concentration in the biomass) of the
110 biomass (D'Imporzano et al., 2008; Suler and Finstein, 1977; Hamelers, 2004) limits the
111 formation of the anaerobic conditions in the biomass avoiding the production of intermediates
112 of the anaerobic metabolism (e.g. sulphur and nitrogen compounds). Odour impact is most
113 evident during the first phase of aerobic process when oxygen limitation for the aerobic
114 biological process becomes more evident. Oxygen limitation could be due to both the high
115 rate of O₂ consumption because of the large amount of degradable organic matter present in
116 the biomass and to insufficient air diffusion.

117 Differently of the molecules that have a microbial origin, hazardous compounds emitted
118 during the process do not relate directly to the microbial activity, but depend, firstly, by both
119 their presence and concentration in the MSW (Staley et al., 2006). On the other hand, biomass

120 temperature could play an important role in the volatilization of these compounds that
121 depends on their vapour pressure (Pierucci et al., 2005). Thus, both biological process and
122 waste characteristics play an important role in the VOC emission during the MBT process.

123 Recently D'Imporzano et al. (2008) correlated VOC emission during composting
124 process with the biological process by using the biological stability, i.e. dynamic respiration
125 index (DRI), as a descriptor of the stage of the biological process. DRI has been used
126 extensively to provide a complete picture of the potential waste impact due to biological
127 waste reactivity (Scaglia et al., 2008; Scaglia et al., 2010) including odors impact
128 (D'Imporzano et al., 2008).

129 In this way DRI, because of the particular conditions adopted for its measurement, i.e.
130 large amount of sample tested by simulating full scale aerobic treatment, could be a good
131 candidate to become an index to measure the potentiality of the impact of the waste in terms
132 of odors and, in general, of volatile organic compounds. The study of the odors emission
133 under controlled condition is not new (Staley et al., 2006).

134 The aim of this work is to correlate the degradation degree, i.e. biological stability, of
135 waste collected directly from a full scale MBT plant at different stages of biological process,
136 with the odours and VOC emitted from waste at different stage of biological treatment,
137 studied under standardized and controlled conditions. Obviously, these conditions do not
138 reflect necessarily what effectively full-scale plant emitted. Nevertheless, we think that this
139 study can suggest the use of DRI as an indicator of the potentiality of odour and/or hazardous
140 organic molecules production of waste during a biological process.

141

142 **2. Materials and Methods**

143 *2.1 Sample collection*

144 Waste samples were directly collected from the full-scale plants located in the North
145 Italy. MBT consisted in the MSW screening (hole diameter of 60 mm). Oversized fraction
146 was used to produce SRF burned in an incinerator. On the other hand, the undersized fraction
147 was successively treated by a composting-like process consisting in an high rate phase of 28
148 d, followed by a successive curing phase, for a total of 90 days of treatment.

149 Waste, during biological process was sampled at the start of the process ($t = 0$ d) (Sa
150 and Sb), at the end of the active phase ($t = 28$ d) (Ia and Ib) and at the end of the curing phase
151 (90 d) (Ea and Eb). Sampling was performed by using standard procedures (CEN, 2006).
152 Each sample, of about 40–50 kg of wet weight (w.w.), was then brought to the laboratory and
153 stored at 4°C and processed within 3–5 days from the date of its reception. A homogeneous
154 sub-sample of 1–3 kg (depending on the particle size) was taken from each biomass for the
155 successive chemical characterizations, previously to sample preparation.

157 *2.2. Experimental laboratory apparatus adopted*

158 Trials of biological treatment were performed by using a 30-L adiabatic reactor
159 (Costech International, Cernusco S.N., Italy; DiProVe, Milan, Italy) (Adani et al., 2001).

161 *2.3. MSW characterization*

162 *2.3.1. Chemical properties*

163 Dry matter (DM), volatile solids (VS) and total organic carbon (TOC) were
164 determined according to standard procedures (APHA, 1998). Total N-Kjeldahl (TKN) was
165 analysed on fresh samples according to the analytical method established for wastewater
166 sludge (IRSA CNR, 1994). pH was determined according to standard procedures (The US
167 Department of Agriculture & The US Composting Council, 2001). Dissolved organic matter
168 (DOM) was determined as reported previously in D'Imporzano et al. (2008). In particular 50

169 g of material was extracted in water (1:20 solid:liquid ratio, w:w) using a Dubnoff bath (60
170 rpm for 30 min at 40°C). The suspension obtained was filtered firstly using fast cellulose filter
171 (Whatman paper filter N.4) and then on 0.45 µm Millipore membrane (Advantec MFS,
172 Pleasanton, CA). For each DOM, organic carbon (DOC) was determined (ISO, 2002). All the
173 analyses were performed in triplicate.

174

175 2.4. Biological reactivity parameters

176 2.4.1. Dynamic respiration index (DRI)

177 The samples were optimized for the moisture content (750 g kg⁻¹ w.w. of the water-
178 holding capacity) (Adani et al., 2001), and tests were performed by setting O₂ concentration at
179 140 ml L⁻¹ in the outlet airflow (Adani et al., 2001). This value was maintained by a feedback
180 control that automatically adapted airflow rate as a function of the O₂ concentration in the
181 outlet airflow.

182 The hourly *DRI* (DRI_h) was determined by measuring the difference in the O₂ concentration
183 (ml L⁻¹) between the respirometer inlet and outlet airflow, and was calculated as reported by
184 Adani et al. (2006) (Eq. 1):

185

$$186 \quad DRI_h \text{ (mg O}_2 \text{ kg DM}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}) = Q \cdot \Delta O_2 \cdot V_g^{-1} \cdot 31.98 \cdot DM^{-1} \quad (1)$$

187

188 where DRI_h is the hourly *DRI*, Q (l h⁻¹) is the airflow rate, ΔO_2 (ml L⁻¹) is the difference in
189 the O₂ concentration in the inlet and outlet air flow of the reactor, V_g (L mol⁻¹) is the volume
190 of 1 mole of gas at the inlet air temperature, 31.98 (g mol⁻¹) is the molecular weight of O₂ and
191 DM (kg) is the initial total dry-matter content.

192 The *DRI* was calculated as the average of the 24 DRI_h values taken over the 24-hour
193 period, characterized by the most intense biological activity (mobile mean), avoiding lag

194 phase (Adani et al., 2004) (Eq. 2). Each sample was tested twice. On average, about 58 h was
195 required to determine the final *DRI* (Adani et al., 2004).

196

$$197 \quad DRI \text{ (mg } O_2 \text{ kg } DM^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}) = \sum_{\theta=0}^{24} (DRI_{\theta}) / 24 \quad (2)$$

198 *DRI* test were performed in duplicate, for a total of 6 trials.

199

200 2.5. Gaseous emission from MSW

201 2.5.1. Procedure for gas emission sampling

202 Emission sampling was performed during respirometric test. In particular, sampling
203 occurred during maximum microbial activity, identified by the maximum *DRI* measured
204 during the test, i.e. *DRI*_{MAX}. Gaseous emission produced from biomasses were caught up into
205 a NalophanTM bags connected adopting the following flows: 18 l kg DM⁻¹ h⁻¹, 11 l kg DM⁻¹ h⁻¹
206 and 3 kg DM⁻¹ h⁻¹ for samples at t = 0, t = 28 days and t = 90 days, respectively. Different bag
207 volumes for each sample (3 l and 20 l, respectively for GC-MS and olfactometric analyses)
208 were filled for the successive analyses.

209

210 2.5.2. Gaseous emission and CG-MAS detection

211 Volatile organic compounds (VOC) from air samples were analyzed by SPME/GC-
212 MS (Davoli et al., 2003). A manual SPME device and divinylbenzene (DVB)/
213 Carboxen/polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) 50-30 μm fiber - Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA)
214 was used. The compounds were adsorbed from the air samples by exposing the fiber,
215 preconditioned for 3 h at 250°C, as suggested by the supplier, in Nalophan bags for 30 min
216 at room temperature. A solution of deuterated p-xylene in methanol was used as internal
217 standard (IS) for quantitative analysis. VOC analysis was performed using an Agilent 5975C

218 Series GC/MSD. Volatiles were separated using a capillary column for VOC (Meta.VOC,
219 Teknokroma, Sant Cugat del Vallès (Barcelona, Spain) of 30 m x 0.32 mm and a film
220 thickness of 3.0 µm. Carrier gas was helium at a flow-rate of 1 ml min⁻¹. VOC were desorbed
221 exposing the fiber in the GC injection port for 3 min at 250 °C. A 0.75 mm i.d. glass liner
222 was used and the injection port was in splitless mode. The temperature program was
223 isothermal for 3 min at 35 °C, raised to 200°C at a rate of 8 °C/ min. The transfer line to the
224 mass spectrometer was maintained at 250 °C. The mass spectra were obtained by electronic
225 impact at 70 eV, a multiplier voltage of 1294 V and collecting data at a m/z range of 33–300.
226 Compounds were tentatively identified by comparing their mass spectra with those contained
227 in the NIST (USA) 98 library. A semi-quantitative analysis, for all the identified compounds,
228 was performed by direct comparison with the internal standard. Results were expressed as µg
229 m⁻³.

231 2.6. Odour detection

232 2.6.1. Dynamic olfactometry

233 Olfactometric analyses were carried out in conformity with the standardized EN
234 method n. 13725 (CEN, 2003). An Olfaktomat-n 6 olfactometer (PRA-Odournet B.V.,
235 Amsterdam, NL), based on the forced choice method, was used as a dilution device.

236 The measuring range of the olfactometer starts from a maximum dilution factor of
237 33,000 with a dilution step factor of 2. Results of olfactometry were expressed as odour
238 concentration value (OU_E Nm⁻³). On the other hand, the odour emission rate (OE) was
239 calculated by using the following equation:

$$240 \text{ OE} = \text{CQ/S}$$

241 in which OE is the odour emission rate ($OU_E \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$), C is the odour concentration ($OU_E \text{ Nm}^{-3}$), Q is the incoming air rate to the flux chamber ($0.35 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$) and S the surface covered by
242 the chamber (0.196 m^2).
243

244

245 2.7. Statistical analyses

246 All statistical analyses, otherwise reported in the specific point, were performed using
247 the SPSS statistical software (version 17) (SPSS, Chigaco, IL).

248

249 3. Results and Discussion

250 3.1. Chemical characterization and biological reactivity of the samples

251 Organic matter degradation during the biostabilization process leaded to a significant
252 reduction of the content of VS and TOC measured in sample taken at different processing
253 time (Table 1) and to an increase of the biological stability (Table 2) of the mass as also
254 indicated by the DRI trends. The DRI measured for starting ($t=0$ days) and final samples ($t =$
255 90 days) were of $1,635 \pm 53$ and $147 \pm 59 \text{ mg O}_2 \text{ kg DM}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (Table 2), respectively, in
256 agreement with the literature data obtained for similar waste and process (Scaglia et al.,
257 2010). These data suggested that process studied represented well the typical waste and MBT
258 performances.

259

260 3.2. Volatile emission characterizations

261 Results of dynamic olfactometric analyses (Table 2) showed a high level of odour
262 perceived by the panellist used to perform the test when no-treated wastes were analysed. The
263 OU_E became small after biological treatment ($t = 28$ and $t = 90$ days) (Table 2). Therefore, to
264 low DRI values corresponded low OU_E values and vice versa, and a very good correlation
265 was found between these two parameters: OU_E vs. DRI, $r = 0.88$; $p < 0.01$; $n = 6$.

266 Odours produced depend on the presence in the exhaust air of organic volatile
267 compounds (Smet et al., 1999). GC-MS analysis allowed detecting the highest concentration
268 (as $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) of volatile organic compound at the start of the process (Sample Sa and Sb) (VOC
269 = $14,431 \pm 306 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) (Table 2). Then, a progressive reduction of the VOCs concentration
270 occurred for the intermediated samples (after 28 days of process) (Sample I_a and I_b) ($\text{OU}_E =$
271 $4,539 \pm 573 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and for the final samples (after 90 days of process) (Sample E_a and E_b)
272 ($\text{OU}_E = 205 \pm 30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) (Table 2). A total reduction of 98.6% of the VOC concentration was
273 calculated from the start to the end of the process. VOCs concentration also correlated well
274 with both OU_E and DRI (VOC vs. OU_E , $r = 0.957$; $p < 0.001$; $n = 6$; VOC vs. DRI $r = 0.969$; p
275 < 0.001 ; $n = 6$; respectively) confirming that VOCs were responsible of the odours perceived
276 by panellist and that their presence was related to the biological reactivity of the waste, i.e.
277 their biological stability.

278 VOCs are the products of the anaerobic respiration or fermentation processes that
279 occur in the biofilm-particle, when oxygen became a limiting factor of the aerobic oxidation
280 of the microbial-available substrate, i.e. the dissolved organic matter (DOM) (Hamelers,
281 2004; D'Imporzano et al., 2008). Oxygen concentration in the particle-biofilm depends on the
282 oxygen concentration in the air, the oxygen uptake rate to degrade substrate and temperature.
283 Even if a correct airflow rate is maintained during the biological process, such as in this case,
284 O_2 in the particle-biofilm can become the limiting factor the oxidation of DOM (D'Imporzano
285 et al., 2008). This could occur when there is a high DOM concentration that determines a very
286 high OUR that limits the presence of oxygen in the particle-biofilm because of O_2 fast
287 depletion (Hamelers, 2004). High biomass temperature could contribute, also, in the O_2
288 depletion in the particle-biofilm, because it reduces the oxygen solubility in water
289 (D'Imporzano et al., 2008). These conditions occur, typically, during the first stages of the

290 biological process when no degraded substrate (untreated MSW) is present and a high
291 temperature characterizes the biological process.

292 A high DOM content was detected for the starting sample analysed (Table 1). In addition,
293 high temperature was registered during DRI test performed on these samples (Table 2). Both
294 these conditions suggested low O₂ presence in the biofilm-particle and so, the preferential
295 presence of anaerobic/semi-anaerobic conditions that were responsible for the high VOCs
296 production. On the contrast, DOM concentration considerably decreased for samples taken
297 after 28 d and 90 d of the biological process (Table 1), in a same way that biomass
298 temperature registered during DRI test (Table 2). These conditions lead to a strong reduction
299 of VOCs produced because of both less available substrate, and to the higher O₂ concentration
300 in the biofilm-particle with respect to the starting conditions. The strong negative correlations
301 found for VOCs and OU_E, vs. DOC content (VOCs vs. DOM: $r = 0.988$, $p < 0.0001$, $n = 6$
302 and, OU_E vs. DOM: $r = 0.926$, $p < 0.008$, $n = 6$) seems to confirm this hypothesis.

303 Both OU_E and VOC are quantitative data and say nothing about the quality, i.e. the
304 origin and the nature of the organic or inorganic molecules emitted during the biological
305 processes. This fact appears more important for the MSW that is characterized, also, by the
306 production during the storing or during the biological transformation, of hazardous molecules
307 of non-biogenic origin that could be of high risk for health of workers in MBT plant (Elliott et
308 al., 1996). In consequence, air samples were analysed by GC-MS and data obtained
309 referenced. In total 147 VOCs were detected in the air emitted during the test performed on
310 MSW sampled at different MBT process stage (Table 3). The number of molecules was larger
311 for the starting samples than for the others, and a progressive reduction of the VOC
312 complexity (molecule number) occurred within the biological process (Table 3). Because of
313 this complexity, in this study, only the principal organic compounds that represented at the
314 least the 10% of the class in which organic compounds are comprised, were considered

315 (Staley et al., 2006) (Table 3). The organic compounds detected agree with those reported in
316 literature as typical of MSW emission under aerobic conditions (Pierucci et al., 2005; Staley
317 et al., 2006), and they accounted for 69 ± 0 % (sample S), 90 ± 13 % (Samples I) and 77 ± 11
318 % (Samples E) of all molecules detected in this study, (Pierucci et al., 2005; Staley et al.,
319 2006). VOC detected were resumed in ten different chemical class of compounds: aliphatic
320 hydrocarbon, alcohols, esters, ketones, terpenes, furans, nitrogen, sulphur, aromatic
321 hydrocarbon and halogenated organic compounds (Figure 1). This classification allowed a
322 first description of the VOCs emitted by samples taken at different degradability stages.

323 VOCs presented in the air of the starting samples (Sa and Sb samples) consisted (on a
324 relative basis, i.e. %) above all (average of 2 measures) of aliphatic hydrocarbons (41 ± 12 %),
325 terpenes (31 ± 7 %), ketones (11 ± 4 %) and aromatic hydrocarbons (8 ± 6 %) compounds (Figure
326 1). Changes in VOC pattern occurred, specifically, during the active phase of the
327 biostabilization process. Samples after 28 d of biological process (Ia and Ib samples) were
328 characterized by the high presence of terpenes (67 ± 7 %) and less of aromatic compounds
329 (9 ± 4 %). The samples taken at the end of the biological process (Samples Ea and Eb), i.e. after
330 90 days of process, were constituted, mainly, of aromatics compounds (68 ± 24 %), while the
331 other compounds constituted a marginal fractions of the VOCs. Obviously these patterns
332 represent the relative abundance of VOCs in the sample studied and must be related to the
333 absolute VOC concentration values (Table 3). From the Table 3, two different trends
334 concerning VOC production during the biological process can be observed. In particular, a
335 first group of organic compounds reduced their concentration during the biological process.
336 They were representative of compounds that were extensively degraded during the biological
337 process: i.e. alcohols, aliphatic hydrocarbon, ketones, nitrogen and sulphur compounds.
338 Biological degradation was confirmed, indirectly, by the high correlations found between the
339 biological stability index (DRI) and the classes of compounds above cited (alcohols vs. DRI, r

340 = 0.84, $p < 0.05$, $n = 6$; aliphatic hydrocarbon vs. DRI, $r = 0.87$, $p < 0.05$, $n = 6$; ketones vs.
341 DRI, $r = 0.84$ $p < 0.05$, $n = 6$; nitrogen compounds vs. DRI, $r = 0.87$ $p < 0.05$, $n = 6$; < 0.05 ;
342 although no correlation was found for sulphur compounds). Terpenes also correlated well
343 with DRI (DRI, $r = 0.95$ $p < 0.01$, $n = 6$), but probably in this case both biological degradation
344 and stripping phenomena occurred (Pierucci et al., 2005).

345 A second group of compounds did not show strong reduction of their concentration
346 with the biological process, i.e. aromatic hydrocarbons, furans, and halogenated organic
347 compounds. These molecules represent xenobiotic compounds (aromatic and halogenated
348 compounds) or products (e.g. furans) of the thermal decomposition of other molecules.
349 Nevertheless, the no-degradation was apparent; in fact, taking into consideration that
350 concentration depends on the airflow rate used during DRI detection, it can be deduced that
351 degradation/stripping of these molecules occurred, at least, at a rate similar to that of airflow
352 rate of sample taken at different biological stage.

353 More representative organic compounds for each class were reported in Table 3.
354 Limonene was the most representative terpen in the starting samples, i.e. it represented the
355 $68\% \pm 14$ of the total terpens emitted. Limonene composes typically vegetable materials (food
356 fractions of the MSW, Pierucci et al., 2005), but it could also represents an intermediate of the
357 aerobic metabolism of microorganisms (Eitzer, 1995). At the end of the aerobic process, the
358 concentration of the limonene was very low because of its biodegradation. Stripping
359 phenomena, enhanced during the first stage of biological process by the high biomass
360 temperature could also contributed to the limonene reduction in the air (Pierucci et al., 2005).

361 The presence of alcohols (Table 3) especially in the fresh material was, probably, the
362 consequence of microbial alcohol formation from waste substrate during the period of storage
363 under nearly anaerobic conditions at low pH (Staley et. al., 2006), and during first
364 biostabilization stage in which O_2 could be a limiting factor for the aerobic degradation.

365 Thus, successive more oxidizing conditions during biological process led to the complete
366 degradation of alcohols and so to the absence of these compounds in the air. Ketones were
367 represented especially by butanone and acetone that were present during first stage of the
368 process (Table 3). It has been reported that bacteria are able to oxidize alcohols to ketone
369 (Widdel, 1986) probably during storing or under O₂ limitation; on the other hand these
370 compounds can be also released from plastic packaging (Staley et. al., 2006). Again,
371 subsequent oxidizing conditions determined the degradation of these compounds that
372 practically disappeared in the GC-MS spectra of air sampled after biological treatment (Table
373 3).

374 Aliphatic compounds were mainly represented in the waste samples by decane, 2,6 di-
375 methyl decane, undecane and dodecane compounds. These alkenes have been reported to
376 come from cooked and heated oil, but also from food packaging (Risch and Hotchkiss, 1991,
377 Reineccius, 1991; Appendini and Hotchkiss, 2002). These molecules were readily degraded
378 and stripped (otherwise they cannot be detected as VOC in the air stream) during biological
379 process and disappear completely in the exhaust air. The nitrogen and sulphur compounds
380 were mainly present at the start of the process. Trimethylamine, which is a product of the
381 decomposition of plants and animals, was representative of N-compounds. Sulfur compounds
382 were represented mainly by allyl mercaptan, a typical product of the organic matter
383 degradation. The presence of these molecules was indicative of anaerobic/microaerophilic
384 metabolism. Furans, which have been reported to be toxic and maybe carcinogenic, were
385 represented by the furan 2-pentyl, a natural based compound typically found in fruit and
386 other food (Rogers and Williams, 1938) but also coming from thermal degradation of other
387 molecules (e.g. pentose) (Ruther and Baltes, 1994).

388 Aromatic hydrocarbons were represented by xylenes, styrene and benzenes. Their
389 presences are generally related to the initial presence in the MSW of synthetic materials (i.e.

390 plastic polymers) and household hazardous MSW (i.e. some plastics, solvents, etc.) (Pierucci
391 et al., 2005; Staley et al., 2006).

392 Tetrachloroethylene (PCE) and 2-propanol, 1-chloro, were representative of
393 halogenated organic compounds. PCE is a solvent used for dry cleaning and it represents one
394 of the most widely contaminants of ground water (Vieria et al., 2005) and it has been
395 classified as toxic chemical. 2-propanol, 1-chloro is used to manufacture propylene oxide and
396 propylene glycol and then used to produce plastic polymer (e.g. polyurethane). 2-propanol,
397 1-chloro was reported to be a probable human carcinogen (Ashby, 1996). These compounds
398 were more observed in the final sample, probably because of relative concentration due to
399 airflow reduction and their recalcitrance.

400 The molecules above discussed were also investigated as responsible for human
401 annoyance (odours) and worker harmful (molecules toxicity). In Table 3, for each molecule
402 the odours threshold, i.e. the minimal concentration of molecules that cause the perception of
403 the odours (OTV), is reported. Comparing these values with molecules concentration it can be
404 seen that only terpenes, sulphur and nitrogen compounds showed concentration above OTV.
405 Therefore, it could be supposed that, effectively, these molecules contributed to the odour
406 perceived by the panellists during olfactometric tests. This fact was supported by the very
407 good correlations found for these compounds and the OU_E (nitrogen compounds vs. OU_E , $r =$
408 0.97 , $p < 0.01$, sulphur compounds vs. OU_E $r = 0.85$, $n = 6$; < 0.05). Terpenes, also, correlated
409 with OU , but it was not statistically significant ($r = 0.71$, $p < 0.10$, $n = 6$). Probably both
410 absolute concentration and OTV should be considered to understand what molecules
411 contribute to OU_E . From data reported in Table 3 we calculated, for the samples studied, the
412 ratio: class compound concentration / average OTV. This ratio represents the contribution of
413 molecules to the odours considering both quantitative aspects (concentration) and qualitative

414 (OTV) aspects. Results (not showed) indicated that N compounds contributed to the odours of
415 factor of magnitude 150 with respect to both terpens and S compounds.

416 This appears true for starting and intermediate samples, as in the final ones it was not possible
417 to find appreciable concentration of N and S compounds and terpens above OTV, although
418 OU_E were high ($2,569 \pm 709$ OU). However, the presence of many other molecules may
419 enhance (synergistic effect) or suppress (antagonist effect) the odour (Ruth, 1986). In
420 addition, Gralapp et. al. (2001) and Bruno et. al. (2007) suggested that human odorous
421 response (OU measurement) may be based, also, on compounds that are not detected by GC-
422 MS analysis.

423 Xenobiotic compounds such as aromatic hydrocarbons and halogenated organic
424 compounds showed very low concentration with respect OTV, i.e. no odour was perceived.
425 Nevertheless, these molecules could represent a risk for worker and population, as they are
426 toxic and maybe carcinogenic. In Table 3 we reported the Threshold Limit Value – Time
427 Weighted Average (TLV-TWA), i.e. the level to which it is believed a worker can be exposed
428 day after day for a working lifetime without adverse health effects (average exposure on the
429 basis of a 8h/day, 40h/week work schedule). From the results obtained, it could be seen that
430 hazardous molecules concentrations were very low with respect to the TLV-TWA.

431

432 **4. Conclusion**

433 Potential odours and VOCs emission during biological process used to treat MSW can
434 be studied under standardized conditions in order to detect potential risk for worker and
435 population.

436 Odours and VOCs emitted depend on the decomposition degree of the waste, i.e. biological
437 stability.

438 GC-MS study of the VOCs was able to investigate about the nature of the molecule
439 emitted. Two groups of molecules could be detected. The first group of molecules was
440 degraded and they were not representative of air emitted from biologically treated samples.
441 On the other hand, xenobiotic molecules and furans (second group of molecules) persisted in
442 the waste sample becoming the more representative of treated waste. Nevertheless, xenobiotic
443 molecules were in a concentration much lower than TLV-TWA.

444 Odours perceived were mainly due to N compounds produced during the biological
445 process. However, it was not possible to indicate for the treated waste, specific molecules
446 responsible for the odours.

447

448 **Acknowledgements**

449 Financial support was provided by the Spanish Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia
450 (Project CTM2009-14073-C02-01).

451

452

453 **References**

- 454 Adani, F., Lozzi, P., Genevini, P.L., 2001. Determination of biological stability by oxygen
455 uptake on municipal solid waste and derived products. *Compost Sci.Util.* 9, 63-78.
- 456 Adani, F., Confalonieri, R., Tambone, F., 2004. Dynamic respiration index as a descriptor of
457 the biological stability of organic wastes. *J. Environ. Qual.* 33, 1866-1876.
- 458 Adani, F., Ubbiali, C., Genevini, P., 2006. The determination of biological stability of
459 composts using the Dynamic Respiration Index: The results of experience after two
460 years. *Waste Manage.* 26, 41-48.
- 461 Amore, J.E., Hautala, E., 1983. Odor as an aid to chemical safety: odor thresholds compared
462 with threshold limit values and volatilities fro 214 industrial chemicals in air and water
463 dilution. *J. Appl. Toxicol.* 3, 272–290.
- 464 APHA, American Public Health Association, 1998. *Standards Methods for the examination of*
465 *Water and Wastewater.* 20th edition, Washington, D.C.
- 466 Appendini, P., Hotchkiss, J.H., 2002. Review of antimicrobial food packaging. *Innovative*
467 *Food Sci. & Emerging Technol.* 3, 113-126.
- 468 Ashby, J., 1996. Prediction of rodent carcinogenicity for 30 chemicals. *Environ. Health*
469 *Perspect.* 104, 1101-1104.
- 470 Biasioli, F., Gasperi, F., Odorizzi, G., Aprea, E., Mott, D., Marini, F., Autiero, G., Rotondo,
471 G., Märk, T.D., 2004. PTR-MS monitoring of odour emissions from composting plants.
472 *Int. J. Mass Spectrom.* 239, 103-109.
- 473 Bruno, P., Caselli, M., de Gennaro, G., Solito, M., Tutino, M., 2007. Monitoring of odor
474 compounds produced by solid waste treatment plants with diffusive samplers. *Waste*
475 *Manage.* 27, 539-544.
- 476 CEN. EN 13725:2003, *Air Quality-Determination of odour concentration by dynamic*
477 *Olfactometry.*

478 CEN/TR 15310-2:2006. Characterization of waste. Sampling of waste materials. Guidance on
479 sampling techniques.

480 Davoli, E., Gangai, M.L., Morselli, L. Tonelli, D., 2003. Characterisation of odorants
481 emissions from landfills by SPME and GC/MS. *Chemosphere*. 51, 357-368.

482 D'Imporzano, G., Crivelli, F., Adani, F., 2008. Biological compost stability influences odor
483 molecules production measured by electronic nose during food-waste high-rate
484 composting. *Sci. Total Environ*. 402, 278-286.

485 Drew, G.H., Smith, R., Gerard, V. Burge, C., Lowe, M., Kinnersley, R., Sneath R.,
486 Longhurst, P.J. 2007. Appropriateness of selecting different averaging times for
487 modelling chronic and acute exposure to environmental odours. *Atmospheric Environ*.
488 41, 2870-2880

489 Eitzer, B.D., 1995. Emissions of Volatile Organic Chemicals from Municipal Solid Waste
490 Composting Facilities. *Environ. Sci. Technol*. 29, 896-902.

491 Elliott, P., Shaddick. G., Kleinschmidt, I., Jolley, D., Walls, P., Beresford, J., Grundy, C.
492 1996. Cancer incidence near municipal solid waste incinerators in Great Britain. *British*
493 *Journal of Cancer*, 73, 702-710.

494 German Federal Minister for Environment, Nature Conservation and Nuclear Safety:
495 Ordinance on Environmentally Compatible Storage of Waste from Human Settlements
496 and on Biological Waste-Treatment Facilities. Berlin, February 20th, 2001.

497 Galapp, A.K., Powers W.J., Bundy, D.S., 2001. Comparison of olfactometry, gas
498 chromatography and electronic nose technology for measurement of indoor air from
499 swine facilities. *Trans. ASAE*. 44, 1283-1290.

500 Hamelers, H.V.M., 2004. Modeling composting kinetics: A review of approaches. *Rev.*
501 *Environ. Sci. Biotechnol*. 3, 331-342.

502 Homas, W.J., Fischer, K., 1992. A composting plant as an odour source, compost as an odour
503 killer. *Acta Hort.* 302, 37-44.

504 International Organization for Standardization, 2002. ISO/PRF 7827. Water quality --
505 Evaluation of the "ready", "ultimate" aerobic biodegradability of organic compounds in
506 an aqueous medium -- Method by analysis of dissolved organic carbon (DOC).

507 IRSA CNR, IRSA - Water Research Institute, 1994. *Notiziario dei Metodi Analitici* (in
508 Italian) (ISSN 0392-1425).

509 Jung, I., Park, O., 2005. Enhancement of cometabolic biodegradation of trichloroethylene
510 (TCE) gas in biofiltration. *J. Biosci. Bioeng.* 100, 657-661.

511 Lornage, R., Kleeberg, K.K., Stegmann, R., Lagier, T., Carre, J. 2005. Investigation On
512 Volatile Organic Compounds (VOC) And Odorous Emissions During Solid Waste
513 treatment: Implementation Of Different Analytical Methods. Tenth International Waste
514 Management and Landfill Symposium S. Margherita di Pula, Cagliari, Italy.

515 Pagans, E., Font, X., Sánchez, A., 2006. Emission of volatile organic compounds from
516 composting of different solid wastes. Abatement by biofiltration. *J. Hazard. Mat.* 131, 1-
517 3, 179-186.

518 Pierucci, P., Porazzi, E., Martinez, M.P., Adani, F., Carati, C., Rubino, F.M., Colombi, A.,
519 Calcaterra, E., Benfenati, E., 2005. Volatile organic compounds produced during the
520 aerobic biological processing of municipal solid waste in a pilot plant. *Chemosphere.*
521 59, 423-430.

522 Reineccius, G., 1991. Off-flavors in foods. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* 29, 381-402.

523 Risch, S.J., Hotchkiss, J.H., 1991. Food and Packaging Interactions II, American Chemical
524 Society.

525 Rogers, L.H., Williams, D. 1938. The Infrared Absorption Spectra of Some Sugars and
526 Furans. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 60, 2619-2621.

527 Ruth, J.N., 1986. Odour thresholds and irritation levels of several substances: A review. *Am.*
528 *Ind. Hyg. Assoc. J.* 47, 142-151.

529 Ruther, J., Baltés, W., 1994. Sulfur-Containing Furans in Commercial Meat Flavorings *J.*
530 *Agric. Food Chem.* 42, 2254-2259.

531 Sánchez-Monedero, M.A., Stentiford, E.I., Mondini, C., 2003. Biofiltration at composting
532 facilities: effectiveness for bioaerosol control. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 37, 4299-4303.

533 Scaglia, B., Adani, F., 2008. An index for quantifying the aerobic reactivity of municipal
534 solid wastes and derived waste products. *Sci. Total Environ.* 394, 183-191.

535 Scaglia, B., Confalonieri, R., D'Imporzano, G., Adani, F., 2010. Estimating biogas production
536 of biologically treated municipal solid waste. *Bioresource Technol.* 101, 945-952.

537 Sironi, S., Capelli, L., Céntola, P., Del Rosso, R., Grande, M., 2007. Continuous monitoring
538 of odours from a composting plant using electronic noses. *Waste Manage.* 27, 389-397.

539 Smet, E., Van Langenhove, H., De Bo I., 1999. The emission of volatile compounds during
540 the aerobic and the combined anaerobic/aerobic composting of biowaste. *Atmospheric*
541 *Environ.* 33:1295-1303.

542 Staley, B.F., Xu, F. Cowie, S.J., Barlaz, M.A., Hater, G.R., 2006. Release of trace organic
543 compounds during the decomposition of municipal solid waste components, *Environ.*
544 *Sci. Technol.* 40, 5984-5991

545 Suler, D.J., Finstein, M.S., 1977. Effect of temperature, aeration, and moisture on CO₂
546 formation in bench-scale, continuously thermophilic composting of solid waste. *Appl.*
547 *Environ. Microbiol.* 33, 345-350.

548 The US Department of Agriculture and The US Composting Council, 2001. Test methods for
549 the examination of composting and compost, Edaphos International, Houston.

550 Vieira, V., Aschengrau, A., Ozonoff, D., 2005. Impact of tetrachloroethylene-contaminated
551 drinking water on the risk of breast cancer: Using a dose model to assess exposure in a
552 case-control study. *Environ. Health.* 4, 3-10.

553 Widdel, F., 1986. Growth of methanogenic bacteria in pure 2-propanol and other alcohols as
554 hydrogen donors. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 51, 1056-1062.

555

556

Pre-print

557 **Tables**

558

559 **Table 1** - Chemical characterization of the analyzed samples

Sample	pH	DM (g kg ⁻¹ w.w.)	VS (g kg ⁻¹ DM)	TKN (g kg ⁻¹ DM)	TOC (g kg ⁻¹ DM)	DOM (g C kg ⁻¹ DM)
Start a	5.71	637 ± 37	490.6 ± 91	7.7 ± 0.2	274.7 ± 9.3	282.8 ± 1.8
Start b	5.42	634.2 ± 10.7	442.5 ± 16.4	7.5 ± 0.1	266.9 ± 4.9	264.8 ± 2.6
Grand Mean	5.57±0.21a	635.6±2a*	466.6±34b	7.6±0.1a	270.8±5.5b	273.8±12.7c
28 d a	7.63	828 ± 12.7	439.5 ± 28.9	9.7 ± 0.9	237.7 ± 14.4	144.9 ± 13.1
28 d b	7.42	827.1 ± 9.1	379.5 ± 22.4	7.8 ± 0.1	202.3 ± 0.8	133.5 ± 10.1
Grand Mean	7.53±0.15b	827.6±1b	409.5±42.4b	8.8±1.3a	220±25	139.2±8.1b
90 d a	7.65	805.3 ± 19.7	333.2 ± 32.5	7.8 ± 0.5	154.7 ± 17.8	32.8 ± 4
90 d b	7.77	794.7 ± 5.6	347.7 ± 4.5	8.3 ± 0.1	181.9 ± 1.2	42.0 ± 8.9
Grand Mean	7.71±0.08b	800 ± 7.5c	340.5±10.3a	8.1±0.4a	168.3±19.2a	37.4±6.5a

560 * number followed by the same letter in the same column are not statistically different (Test Tukey, p<0.05)

561

562

563

Table 2 – Biological stability characterization and volatile emission values of the analyzed samples

564

Sample	RT* (Days)	DRI _{DM} (mgO ₂ kg DM ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	DRI _{DM} MAX (mgO ₂ kg DM ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Temp. (°C)	VOC (µg m ⁻³)	Odour (OU _E Nm ⁻³)
Sa	0	1,672	1,863	41	14,215	32,944
Sb	0	1,597	1,814	46	14,648	24,147
Grand Mean		1,635±53 c*	1,675±267 c	43.5±3.5b	14,431±306c	28,546±6,220b
Ia	28	954	990	43.5	4,944	5,838
Ib	28	865	881	50	4,133	3,966
Grand Mean		910±63 b	936±77 b	47.6±3.3b	4,539±573b	4,902±1,324a
Ea	90	188	203	24.5	184	3,070
Eb	90 2C	105	108	25.5	226	2,067
Grand Mean		147±59 a	156±67 a	25±0.7a	205± 30a	2,569±709 a

565

* number followed by the same letter in the same column are not statistically different (Test Tukey, p<0.05)

566 **Table 3-.** Dominant molecules for each air emission sample accounting for at least the 10% of each class of compounds.

class	Molecule	MSW						OTV ^a	TLV-TWA ^b
		Sa	Sb	Ia	Ib	Ea	Eb	($\mu\text{g m}^{-3-1}$)	($\mu\text{g m}^{-3-1}$)
	p-xylene	58	64	0	67	19	46	4,767 ^{1c}	433,361 ^{1c}
	o-xylene	0	0	51	0	30	61	4,767 ^{1c}	433,361 ^{1c}
	styrene	132	150	48	5	0	0	1,361 ^c	212,592 ^c
	benzene	0	0	57	0	0	0	38,267 ^c	31,889 ^c
	1 ethyl 4 methyl benzene	0	0	0	79	0	0	432 ^{2c}	245,298 ^{2c}
	1 methyl 2 (1 methylethyl) benzene	0	112	35	0	0	0	30,253 ^{3c}	60,507 ^{3c}
	1 ethyl 4(1 methylethyl) benzene	0	0	0	95	0	69	432 ^{2c}	245,298 ^{2c}
	1 methyl 3(1 methylethyl) benzene	0	189	0	0	3	0	30,253 ^{3c}	60,507 ^{3c}
	2 ethyl 1,3 dimethyl benzene	0	174	18	26	0	0	432 ^{2c}	245,298 ^{2c}
	1,2,3 trimethyl benzene	103	399	0	0	0	0	2,703 ^{4c}	122,843 ^{4c}
	1 methoxy 4 methyl 2(1methylethyl) benzene	0	0	8	16	15	0	NA	NA
total		293	1088	217	288	67	176		

furans	2,4 dimethyl furan	0	0	0	0	0	1	90,450 ^{5d}	NA
	2 pentyl furan	140	83	163	234	0	1	90,450 ^{5d}	NA
total		140	83	163	234	0	2		
ketones	acetone	70	88	11	2	4	4	30,826 ^c	1,778,414 ^c
	2 butanone	656	1192	5	9	0	0	15,895 ^c	588,716 ^c
	4,4 dimethyl 2 pentanone	0	0	0	0	12	0	1,634	233,422
	2,4 dimethyl 3 pentanone	19	0	0	29	0	0	1,634 ^{6c}	233,422 ^{6c}
	3ethylcyclopentanone	0	0	20	31	0	0	NA	NA
	3 methyl, 2hexanone	0	0	0	0	1	1	56 ^{7c}	233,034 ^{7c}
	5 methyl, 2 hexanone	7	4	0	0	0	5	56 ^c	233,034 ^c
	2 methyl, 3hexanone	0	0	31	0	0	0	56 ^{8c}	233,034 ^{8c}
	3,3,5 trimethyl, cyclohexanone	0	0	0	28	0	0	1,128 ^c	28,209 ^c
	5 vmethyl 2 (1 methylethyl), trans cyclohexanone	258	243	12	31	0	0	NA	NA

	2 nonanone	0	182	14	0	0	0	11,531 ^d	NA
total		1010	1709	93	130	17	10		
alogenated compound	1 chloro, 2 propanol	0	0	9	13	13	0	NA	NA
	tetrachloroethylene	0	0	13	0	14	4	183,238 ^c	339,330 ^c
total		0	0	22	13	27	4		
esters	acetic acid methyl ester	37	4	0	0	0	0	13,917 ^c	605,070 ^c
	methyl propionate	258	0	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
total		295	4	0	0	0	0		
	2.,2 dimethyl hexane	0	23	33	18	0	0	457,073 ^{9c}	175,7979 ^c
	butyl cyclohexane	0	0	36	13	0	0	85,854 ^{10c}	1,030,253 ^{10c}
	pentyl cyclohexane	62	0	22	60	0	0	85,854 ^{10c}	1,030,253 ^{10c}
	Heptane	3	0	30	0	0	0	613,246 ^c	1,635,323 ^c
	2,2,4,4,6,8,8 heptamethyl nonane	0	0	39	53	3	0	245,953 ^{11c}	1,046,607 ^{11c}
	decane	720	958	0	50	0	0	4,400 ^e	NA
	2,6 dimethyldecane	48	1220	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
	undecane	1,262	0	0	0	0	0	7,800 ^e	NA

	dodecane	1,733	773	0	0	0	0	14,550 ^c	NA
	tetradecane	0	28	34	0	0	0	NA	NA
	total	3828	3002	194	194	3	0		
N compounds	trimethylamine	269	24	269	0	0	0	1 ^a	24,121 ^a
	2 methyl pyridine	0	7	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
	total	269	31	269	0	0	0		
	2 butoxy ethanol	30	0	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
	2 butanol	6	66	65	0	0	0	7,866 ^a	302,535 ^a
	1-methoxy 2 propanol	53	16	0	0	0	0	75,000-500,000 ^{12d}	NA
alcohols	1 butoxy 2 propanol	25	110	38	54	0	0	NA	NA
	2 ethyl 1 hexanol	84	412	14	37	0	0	41.7 ^{13d}	NA
	3 7 dimethyl 3 octanol	106	0	0	0	0	0	691.6 ^{14d}	NA
	total	304	604	117	91	0	0		
sulphur compounds	dimethyl disulfide	0	68	9	8	0	0	1-346.5 ^d 48.3 ^c	NA
	disulfide carbon	0	0	14	0	4	0	342 ^c	31,071 ^c

	disulfide methyl propyl	6	20	0	20	1	0	49 ^{15d}	NA
	allyl mercaptan	428	0	0	0	0	0	0.2 ^d	NA
	dimethyl trisulfide	3	0	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
	sulfide allyl methyl	59	0	0	0	0	0	0.7 ^{16d}	NA
	1(methylthio) 1propene	123	0	0	0	0	0	4	1,840
	total	619	88	23	28	5	0		
	terpenes								
	limonene	2993	3042	2233	3135	5	0	200 ^e	NA
	camphor ^a	127	529	14	20	3	0	1,678 ^c	12,428 ^c
	total	3,120	3,571	2,247	3,155	8	0		

567

568 ^a OTV: odour threshold value

569 ^b TLV-TWA: Threshold Limit Value – Time Weighted Average

570

571 ^c data from: Amore and Hautala, 1983.

572 ^d data from: Ruth, 1986

573 ^e data from: Lornage et al., 2005

574 ¹ surrogate m-xylene

- 575 ² surrogate cumene (1 methylethyl benzene)
- 576 ³ surrogate 1 methyl 4 methylethyl benzene
- 577 ⁴ surrogate 1,3,5 trimethylbenzene
- 578 ⁵ surrogate 2 methyl furan
- 579 ⁶ surrogate 4,4 dimethyl 2 pentanone
- 580 ⁷ surrogate 5 methyl 2 hexanone
- 581 ⁸ surrogate 5 methyl 3 hexanone
- 582 ⁹ surrogate hexane
- 583 ¹⁰ surrogate cyclohexane
- 584 ¹¹ surrogate nonane
- 585 ¹² surrogate propyl alcohol
- 586 ¹³ surrogate hexane
- 587 ¹⁴ surrogate octanol
- 588 ¹⁵ surrogate ethyl methyl sulfide
- 589 ¹⁶ surrogate allyl sulfide

Pre-print

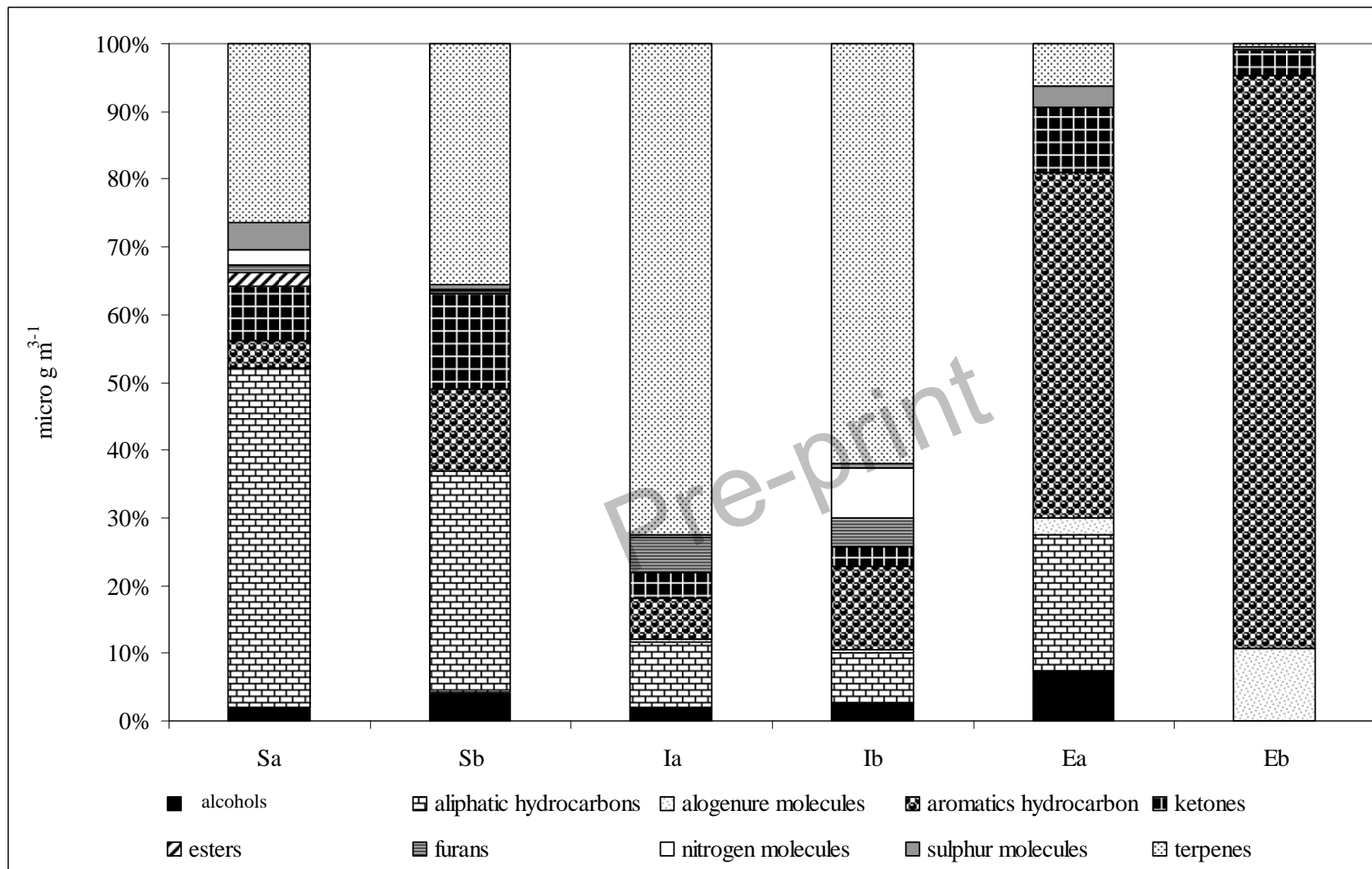
590 **Legends to Figures**

591

592 **Fig. 1-** Composition on classes of MSW volatile emissions (SPME CG-MS data).

593

Pre-print



595

596