Gaseous emissions in municipal wastes composting: effect of the bulking agent

Caterina Maulini-Duran, Adriana Artola*, Xavier Font, Antoni Sánchez

Composting Research Group
Department of Chemical Engineering
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona
Bellaterra, 08193-Barcelona (Spain).

*Corresponding author: Adriana Artola
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Departament d'Enginyeria Química, Escola d'Enginyeria, Edifici Q, Campus de Bellaterra, 08193- Cerdanyola del Vallès, Spain.
Tel.: +34 935814480
Fax: +34 935812013
Email address: adriana.artola@uab.cat
Abstract

In this study, the emissions of Volatile Organic Compounds (VOC), CH$_4$, N$_2$O and NH$_3$ during composting non-source selected MSW, source selected Organic Fraction of Municipal Solid Wastes (OFMSW) with wood chips as bulking agent (OF_wood) and source selected OFMSW with polyethylene (PE) tube as bulking agent (OF_tube) and the effect of bulking agent on these emissions have been systematically studied. Emission factors are provided (in kg compound Mg$^{-1}$ dry matter): OF_tube (CH$_4$: 0.0185±0.004; N$_2$O: 0.0211±0.005; NH$_3$: 0.612±0.269; VOC: 0.688±0.082) and MSW (CH$_4$: 0.0549±0.0171; N$_2$O: 0.032±0.015; NH$_3$: 1.00±0.20; VOC: 1.05±0.18) present lower values than OF_wood (CH$_4$: 1.27±0.09; N$_2$O: 0.021±0.006; NH$_3$: 4.34±2.79; VOC: 0.989±0.249). A detailed composition of VOC is also presented. Terpenes were the main emitted VOC family in all the wastes studied. Higher emissions of alpha and beta pinene were found during OF_wood composting processes.

Keywords: Composting; Gaseous emissions; VOC; Terpenes, Bulking Agent.
1. Introduction

It is well known that recycling reduces the amount of waste going to disposal (landfilling), the consumption of natural resources and also improves energy efficiency. Therefore, recycling plays an essential role towards sustainable consumption and production (SCP). Accompanying SCP, the recycling sector has increased business with a current turnover of €24 billion employing about 500,000 people in Europe, distributed in more than 60,000 companies. The EU represents the densest area in waste and recycling industries, accounting for around 50% of world share (European Environment Agency, 2010). At the same time, sustainable management of resources and waste minimization and valorization has been the common objective of plans, directives and regulations in recent decades, including Municipal Solid Waste (MSW). According to this, in recent years, there has been a proliferation, either in Spain or Europe, of new solid waste treatment plants mainly as a result of Directive 1999/31/EC on the implementation of the limitation of landfill as final destination for organic wastes. Biological treatment plants, which allow waste valorization, are recommended as the main destination for this type of wastes (Commission of the European Community, 2008).

Generation of biodegradable organic residues is increasing worldwide and strategies for its environmentally sound use are being developed and optimized. Integrated waste management is considered the key point for a successful MSW treatment. Waste separation, that increases the quality of by-products (i.e. compost, digestate and biogas) and recyclables, is a critical component of this system. Integrated waste management also enables better financing of waste management activities and minimizes the energy and labor inputs to any downstream processes (Murray, 1999). European Directive 2008/98/EC points to the recovery of mixed municipal waste
collected from private households. In order to comply with the objectives of this Directive, and to move towards an European recycling society with a high level of resource efficiency, Member States shall take the necessary measures to achieve by 2020 a minimum overall recycling percentage of a 50% by weight of paper, metal, plastic and glass from households and possibly from other origins (as far as these waste streams are similar to waste from households) (European Parliament, 2008). As a consequence of the implementation of all these Directives, by 2013, 19% of total household wastes are source selected in Spain, being the organic fraction a percentage of 20%.

As mentioned before, biological treatment plants based on anaerobic digestion and/or composting processes are being widely constructed. Focusing on the composting process, the presence of non-organic wastes (impurities) could decrease the compost quality, affect composting gaseous emissions or increase the investment costs and the energy demand due to the equipment dedicated to the separation of impurities. Bulking agents are used to provide air space in composting materials, regulate the water content or the C/N ratio (Iqbal et al. 2009). These studies show how important is the bulking agent in the composting process evolution. Gaseous emissions during the composting process are often related with the porosity of the material being composted, which depends on the type and amount of bulking agent used. Some authors have related the emissions of some volatile organic compounds (VOC) to wood wastes used as bulking agent (Komilis et al. 2004). Recent studies (Yang et al. 2013, Shao et al. 2014) have investigated the effect of several bulking agents on gaseous emissions in composting processes of organic wastes. Yang et al. (2013) have studied emissions of CH$_4$, N$_2$O and NH$_3$, while Shao et al. (2014) presented an in depth study on odor emissions, mainly VOC. Both studies pay attention to the composting process evolution and the quality of
the final product. However, all the experiments have been done with a degradable bulking agent: cornstalks, rice straw, sawdust, etc. Therefore, the contribution of wood chips, the bulking agent mostly used nowadays in composting facilities, to VOC emissions is not described. The presence of plastics, glass and other non-organic wastes could replace the bulking agent (wood chips) function when mixed MSW are composted.

The objective of this work is to study the emissions of VOC, CH$_4$, N$_2$O and NH$_3$ during the composting process of MSW and the effect of the bulking agent in these emissions. With this purpose, three wastes have been composted: non source selected MSW (high level of impurities), source selected OFMSW (low level of impurities) with wood chips as bulking agent and source selected OFMSW with polyethylene (PE) tube as bulking agent since this non-biodegradable material will not contribute to the emissions of the studied compounds. This study can provide the baseline to distinguish between the emissions from the waste itself and the bulking agent, an aspect that it is not clear in composting scientific literature.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Waste composted

The wastes used in the experiments were different types of municipal solid wastes. Specifically, 100 kg of non-source selected MSW from a waste treatment plant located in Zaragoza (Spain) were composted as received at the plant (MSW). In the case of source selected OFMSW two cases were studied: i) OF_wood, 100 kg of material that were already mixed with wood chips in the plant (ratio 1:1, v:v) and ii) OF_tube, 100 kg of material that were used as received at the plant. In this case, the OFMSW was manually mixed with PE tube pieces of 25 mm diameter and 4 to 15 cm long (ratio 1:1,
Both OFMSW were obtained from a composting plant in Manresa (Barcelona, Spain). All the composting experiments with the three wastes considered (MSW, OF_wood and OF_tube) were carried out with aliquots of 25 kg per reactor and performed in duplicate.

Air-filled porosity was determined using an air pycnometer according to previous studies (specific details about the methodology can be found in Ruggieri et al., 2009). The results of air-filled porosity for OF_wood and OF_tube, mixed in the laboratory, initial MSW (not mixed, the waste collected was composted as collected from the plant) and final samples for the six trials can be found in Table 1. A homogeneous sample from each waste and each mixture (waste plus bulking agent) was stored at -18 °C to be used for waste characterization.

The main characteristics of the initial wastes and the final products obtained from each experiment are presented in Table 1. Dry and organic matter, conductivity and pH have been determined in triplicate following the standard procedures for composting samples (US Department of Agriculture and US Composting Council, 2001).

2.2 Composting pilot plant

The results presented in this study were obtained in a pilot scale composting plant using two near-to-adiabatic non-commercial cylindrical reactors with an operating volume of 50 L each and forced aeration. A schematic diagram of the pilot reactors and a detailed description can be found elsewhere (Puyuelo et al., 2010).

Gas samples were collected in 1-L Tedlar® bags for VOC N$_2$O, CH$_4$ and NH$_3$ determination. Also a 250-mL glass gas collector was used for samples taken for VOC
composition determination. In all cases, one sample per day and per reactor was withdrawn.

The data acquisition system is a PLC Data Acquisition. It consists of a microcontroller that interprets the potential changes of the sensors connected to its inputs in numerical values. It also realizes the reverse function: converting numerical values into voltage, thereby allowing performing an automatic control. Temperature (PT100 sensor, Desin Instruments, Barcelona, Spain), exhaust gas oxygen concentration (Alphasense, A2O2, UK) and inlet airflow (Bronkhorst Hitec, The Netherlands) were monitored during the experimental trials. According to the values of oxygen concentration, airflow and temperature, the PLC acts on the flow meter, allowing airflow from 0.2 to 10 liters per minute. The controller performs roughly 25 readings per second, sending to the reader a temporal data every second and a real data each minute. The communication is done by a serial port interface. Data are visualized through the connection of the PLC data acquisition system to an internal Ethernet network.

The control strategy used in the experiments has been presented in Puyuelo et al. (2010). The main objective of this strategy is to obtain an automatic airflow regulation that maximizes the biological activity in the reactor measured as OUR (Oxygen Uptake Rate). OUR control permits the optimization of energy consumption during the process while achieving a high degree of stability in the final product. Briefly, the controller works in cycles of 1 hour. The designed OUR control loop compares the variations in the OUR measurements reached among the successive cycles according to the airflow applied. After completing a cycle, the oxygen level is revised to avoid percentages below 5 % of oxygen concentration in air (v/v). If the level is below this limit, airflow will be increased by 50 %. If an adequate oxygen level has been measured, the next step
will be the control loop based on the OUR measurement and the applied flow comparison between two consecutive cycles. For both parameters, three situations are possible, i.e., the system determines if the current value is lower than, higher than or equal to the previous value. Different absolute thresholds were established to define the superior and inferior limits in which the variation of OUR and airflow can be considered negligible. The limit to detect OUR variation was defined as 0.5 % of the maximum OUR achieved in previous experiments in the reactor (approximately 15 g O₂ h⁻¹). The range considered for the airflow measurements was 0.05 L min⁻¹. Considering the airflow measurements, the controller checks the OUR variation. Next, the controller determines if the OUR variation obtained is linked to an increase, decrease or a constant airflow.

2.3. Stability degree

On the basis of the methodology proposed by Adani et al. (2006) to assess the degree of biological stability, the dynamic respiration index (DRI) was measured using a respirometer (Ponsá et al., 2010). Briefly, the determination consists of placing 150 g of sample in a 500-mL Erlenmeyer flask and incubating the sample in a water bath at 37 °C. A constant airflow was supplied through the sample, and the oxygen content in the outgoing gases was measured. From this assay, DRI was determined as the maximum average value of respiration activity measured during 24 hours, expressed in mg O₂ g⁻¹ OM h⁻¹. A detailed description of this dynamic respirometer can be found at Ponsá et al. (2010). All the samples were analyzed in triplicate.
2.4. Determination of gaseous emissions

VOC, CH₄ and N₂O analysis was performed by means of gas chromatography (Agilent Technologies 6890N Network GC system, Madrid, Spain) as explained in Colón et al. (2012). All samples were analyzed in triplicate for each compound. The deviation found per each triplicate was lower than 5% for all the compounds except for VOC that was less than 10%.

Ammonia concentration was measured in situ at the gas outlet of the composting reactor by means of an ammonia sensor (Industrial Scientific sensor iTX-T82, Oakdale, PA, USA) with a measurement range of 0 to 1200 ppmv. The sensor was placed inside a hermetic recipient with inlet and outlet holes that allowed gas circulation. The measurement was taken when the value was stabilized during a period of constant flow. Ammonia was measured just before the water trap installed to protect the rest of measurement devices from moisture avoiding the effect of ammonia solubilization in the condensate water from the composting process exhaust gases.

2.5. GC-MS detection

A sample from each process was taken daily in a 250 mL glass gas collector. VOC characterization was performed using air samples analyzed by SPME (Solid Phase Micro Extraction)/GC-MS, as previously reported by other authors (Orzi et al., 2010). A manual SPME device with divinylbenzene (DVB)/Carboxen/polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) 50–30 μm fiber from Supelco (Bellefonte, PA, USA) was used. The compounds were adsorbed from the air samples by exposing the fiber (preconditioned for 1 h at 270 °C, as suggested by the supplier) to the sample in the glass gas collector for 30 min at room temperature. A solution of deuterated p-xylene in methanol was used as internal standard (IS).
VOC characterization was performed using a Gas Chromatograph (Agilent 5975C) coupled with a 7890 Series GC/MSD. Volatile compounds were separated using a capillary column for VOC (Agilent Technologies DB-624) measuring 60 m x 0.25 mm with a film thickness of 1.40 µm. Carrier gas was helium at a flow rate of 0.8 mL min\(^{-1}\). VOC were desorbed by exposing the fiber in the GC injection port for 3 min at 250 °C. A 0.75-mm internal diameter glass liner was used, and the injection port was in splitless mode. The temperature program was isothermal for 2 min at 50 °C, raised to 170 °C at a rate of 3 °C min\(^{-1}\) and, finally, to 230 °C at a rate of 8 °C min\(^{-1}\). The transfer line to the mass spectrometer was maintained at 235 °C. The mass spectra were obtained by electron ionization at 70 eV, a multiplier voltage of 1379 V and collecting data over the mass range of 33–300.

Deuterated \(p\)-xylene was used to determine the fiber and GC-MS response factors for 15 typical compounds emitted in composting processes according to the literature (Scaglia et al., 2011; Suffet et al., 2009). These 15 compounds were diluted in methanol at the same concentration as deuterated \(p\)-xylene. This solution (10 µL) was injected into the glass gas collector with 10 µL of deuterated \(p\)-xylene in methanol solution. The fiber was exposed for 30 minutes to the resulting solution and injected into the GC-MS using the same method as described above. The area obtained for each compound was compared to deuterated \(p\)-xylene to determine each response factor. The aim of determining these response factors is to increase the reliability of the quantitative analysis.

Compounds were identified by comparing their mass spectra with the mass spectra contained in the NIST (USA) 98 library. A semi-quantitative analysis for all the identified compounds was performed by direct comparison with the internal standard. Quantitative analysis was performed for \(m\)-xylene, \(n\)-decane, alpha-pinene, beta-pinene,
limonene, toluene, dimethyl disulfide, hexanal, styrene, cyclohexanone, nonanal, decanal, eucalyptol, pyridine and 2-pentanone. These compounds have been the most common VOC found in previous experiments (Maulini-Duran et al., 2013), representing different VOC families.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Process evolution

As mentioned before, air filled porosity was determined for initial and final materials of each process. OFMSW was mixed with wood chips (OF_wood) and PE tube (OF_tube), respectively, until adjusting AFP to adequate values. MSW presented adequate AFP without addition of bulking agent due to the presence of impurities. Initial and final AFP values for the three materials are summarized in Table 1. These values are within the range recommended for an adequate development of the composting process (Ruggieri et al., 2009).

The evolution of the composting process of the three wastes studied was followed through OUR, temperature, airflow and oxygen concentration. Similar OUR, oxygen, temperature and airflow profiles were observed in the duplicates for the same waste. Figure 1 shows the profiles obtained for all these parameters for one replicate of each experiment: OFMSW with wood chips as bulking agent (replicate OF_wood-I, Figure 1a), OFMSW with PE tube as bulking agent (replicate OF_tube-I, Figure 1b) and MSW (replicate MSW-I, Figure 1c).

The six trials reached thermophilic conditions during the first day of process, according to the biodegradability of the material. The maximum temperature reached during OF_wood composting (Figure 1a) was of 68 °C in both trials. The reactors needed approximately 17 days to return to mesophilic conditions. The thermophilic
peak matched with the highest OUR value (21 g O₂ h⁻¹) and therefore the highest airflow provided (7.5 L min⁻¹).

During OF_tube composting (Figure 1b) the maximum temperature achieved was 56 ºC, lower than that of OF_wood. In this case the inert bulking agent used was an empty tube that allowed air passing through the bulking material, thus increasing the air filled porosity. Indeed, air filled porosity in OF_tube trials was more than 10% higher than the other wastes composted during the experiments. This higher porosity enhances heat dissipation, reaching lower temperatures and cooling faster than the other trials, reaching mesophilic conditions around the 9th day of process. Maximum OUR and airflow values were 9 g O₂ h⁻¹ and 4.8 L min⁻¹, respectively.

The maximum temperature achieved during the composting process of MSW was 68ºC (as was in OF_wood composting). The airflow supplied in both MSW trials was lower than in the other experiments (2.2 L min⁻¹), matching again the highest airflow and the highest OUR value (10 g O₂ h⁻¹) with the beginning of the thermophilic phase.

According to the temperature profile and DRI values of the final material obtained for replicates of each waste composted (Table 1), the composting process evolution was satisfactory, and the final product was stabilized (Adani et al., 2006).

3.2 Gaseous emissions

The daily evolution of VOC, CH₄, N₂O and NH₃ emissions for each waste is shown in Figure 2. Error bars indicate the differences between the two replicates. In Table 2, the emission factors for VOC, CH₄, N₂O and NH₃ are also summarized for each trial in terms of kg of compound emitted per Mg of treated waste.
$CH_4$ emissions

Figure 2a presents the evolution of methane emissions during the composting process of the three waste mixtures. As can be seen in Figure 2a, there is a very significant difference between $CH_4$ emissions from OF_wood and from the other two wastes. Methane emissions are related to the presence of anaerobic zones, maybe due to excessive moisture and insufficient porosity or an inappropriate aeration system strategy (Amlinger et al., 2008). Carbon is used as an electron acceptor when other more energetically favorable electron acceptors, including oxygen, nitrogen, iron, manganese and sulphur, have been exhausted (Brown et al., 2008). Moisture and porosity (Table 1) were in the optimal ranges in all the experiments. In addition, as observed in Figure 1a the oxygen content was always over 17% after the first day of process. However the presence of a high content of rapidly biodegradable organic matter could lead to oxygen depletion, creating anaerobic areas in the solid matrix. The main methane emission during OF_wood composting process can be observed from day 6 to day 21 (Figure 2a), when the microbial activity is decreasing. He et al. (2000) reported that composting wastes with a high easily biodegradable matter content such as food wastes, could lead to the formation of anaerobic zones due to compaction effects. Material compaction was detected at the end of the experiments as the composting reactors were neither opened nor the material turned for the whole process. However, it cannot be ascertained whether the compaction occurred at the initial or final stages of the process. On the other hand, there is a small difference between initial and final porosity. Ruggieri et al. (2008) stated that changes in air-filled porosity from initial to final samples in the composting process are not representative of what has been occurring in the reactor during the process. These authors detected the lowest air-filled porosity values after 48 hours of composting process. In OF_wood composting experiments a 6L reduction
between initial and final volume of the waste in the reactor was observed thus indicating compaction even if air-filled porosity values do not show it. Volume reduction for OF_tube and MSW were 3.4 and 2 L, respectively. Values in Table 2 confirm that CH$_4$ emission factor for the OF-wood processes was higher than the emission of the other processes.

In fact, lower methane emission during MSW and OF_tube composting processes (maximum values achieved in days two and five of process and corresponding to 0.004 kg of CH$_4$ Mg of dry waste$^{-1}$ for both wastes), may be explained by the lower compaction effect due to a lower content in biodegradable organic matter. Also the shorter thermophilic phase observed comparing MSW and OF_tube with OF_wood could be the explanation of these different emissions. Jiang et al. (2011) related higher methane emission with long thermophilic phases.

$N_2O$ emissions

$N_2O$ emissions evolution is presented in Figure 2b. The main $N_2O$ emissions released during the six composting processes carried out were found during the first week. There is some controversy in the literature about $N_2O$ emissions. El Kader et al. (2007), composting farm manure, and Yang et al. (2013), composting kitchen waste, reported the highest $N_2O$ emissions during the first week of composting process.

However, Fukumoto et al. (2003) related the inhibition of $N_2O$ emissions with thermophilic temperatures, which occur usually during the first week of the process. Regarding the different wastes composted in this study, there are no significant differences between the emissions factors obtained for $N_2O$ emissions, as can be observed in Table 2. Since the type of biodegradable organic matter is the same in the three wastes maybe the type of bulking agent has no effect in $N_2O$ emissions.
**NH₃ emissions**

Figure 2c reports ammonia emissions for the different wastes treated. Although also in the case of ammonia, OF_wood is the waste presenting the highest emissions during the whole composting process, there is an important deviation in the highest emission point. However, even the lowest value for OF_wood reported in Table 2 (2.4 kg NH₃ Mg⁻¹ dry matter) doubles the highest value presented for the other two wastes (corresponding to MSW-I, 1 kg NH₃ Mg⁻¹ dry matter). Pagans et al. (2006) reported that NH₃ emissions were strongly related with the thermophilic phase of composting. The trend observed in Figures 1 and 2c during all the trials agrees with this proposal.

**VOC emission**

In Figure 2d, total daily VOC emissions produced during the three experiments are shown. As described by Komilis et al. (2004) the main emission of VOC was detected during the first days in all the experiments, in the mesophilic to thermophilic transition. Scaglia et al. (2011) reported that VOC, odor emissions and biological activity were strongly related. In any composting process high temperatures are caused by high biological activity. Even when enough aeration is provided to the reactor, these factors cause some anoxic zones in the matrix that contribute to VOC emissions (Maulini-Duran et al. 2013). During the OF_wood and MSW composting processes more VOC have been emitted than during the OF_tube composting process. This could be related again with the sustained thermophilic phase observed in OF_wood and MSW processes in comparison with OF_tube. Also, a higher DRI reduction was achieved in these wastes, reflecting a higher biological activity. Observing Figure 1, DRI reduction is in agreement with the comparison of OUR profiles, where OF_wood and MSW
present higher values than OF_tube. Initial OF_wood has a higher DRI than the other treated wastes, which means a high content of biodegradable organic matter that could lead to the occurrence of anaerobic zones and the achievement of higher temperatures during the process.

*Gaseous emissions and process evolution*

Traditionally, the composting process can be divided into three stages, depending on the temperature evolution. The first period begins at day 0 of the experiment until the thermophilic temperature is reached (45ºC). The second stage coincides with the thermophilic period (>45ºC) and the third period corresponds to the return to mesophilic temperatures (<45ºC) (Haug, 1993).

No CH$_4$ was emitted during the first period of OF_wood composting process, 86% in the second period and 14% in the third period. In OF_tube, CH$_4$ was also emitted mainly during the second period (74%), 7% in the first period and 19% third period. These differences could be caused by the fast OUR increase in OF_wood composting process and, therefore, a high airflow at the beginning of this process. The percentage distribution in MSW composting process is very similar than that of OF_tube: 17%, 73% and 10% (1$^{st}$, 2$^{nd}$ and 3$^{rd}$ period, respectively).

N$_2$O emissions during the first period of OF_wood composting were 2%, 92% during the second period and 7% during the third period. In OF_tube composting N$_2$O emissions are 8% in the first period, 83% during the second period and 9% during the third period. N$_2$O emissions detected in MSW composting process were: 14% (1$^{st}$ period), 84% (2$^{nd}$ period) and 2% (3$^{rd}$ period). N$_2$O emissions for OFMSW and MSW were lower than raw sludge emissions in the same conditions (Maulini-Duran et al., 2013). For all the processes, the emission is higher during the thermophilic stage in the
three cases. However, N₂O concentration values were close to the detection limit of the analysis, thus involving higher errors between replicates (Figure 2b). This fact makes difficult to discard the inhibition of N₂O production at thermophilic temperatures.

Similar trends are also detected in NH₃ emissions during all the composting processes carried out. Only 3% of the NH₃ emissions in OF_wood composting process occurred during the first period, 93% was emitted during the second period and 4% during the third one. In MSW emission percentages distribution was 1% (1st period), 92% (2nd period) and 7% (3rd period) while in OF_tube composting, 78% of NH₃ was emitted during the second period and 28% during the third one; no NH₃ was emitted during the first period.

Also VOC emission detected during the composting processes studied follows a similar distribution during the three established periods for the three wastes. For OF_wood and MSW, the percentages are exactly the same: 9% in the first period, 90% during the second period and 1% in the third period. During OF_tube composting process, 15% of VOC were emitted during the first period, 82% during the second one and 3% during the third period.

Analyzing these data, it is clear that gaseous emissions are strongly related with OUR values and temperature rise and, consequently, with the biological activity of the process. In a previous work, where raw and anaerobically digested sludge were composted, the relationship between composting periods and compounds emissions distribution was not so clear (Maulini-Duran et al., 2013). However, values of OUR, airflow and temperatures were clearly lower, especially in the case of anaerobically digested sludge where no thermophilic temperatures were reached.

The trends in VOC, CH₄, N₂O and NH₃ emissions and the emission factors reported in Table 2, could be of interest for plant designers and operators, particularly,
to the design of gaseous emissions equipment and to its operation. It is worthwhile to
mention that the deviation found between duplicates is in the low range (three values
out of twelve higher than 40%) when compared to similar studies of composting
emissions of wastes of high heterogeneity (Colón et al., 2012; Maulini-Duran et al.,
2013; Maulini-Duran et al., 2014).

On the other hand, although $N_2O$ emission factor is the lowest among the
analyzed contaminants, the greenhouse effect of this compound has to be taken into
account. The global warming potential of $N_2O$ is 298 kg CO$_2$ eq., higher than the
methane potential (34 kg CO$_2$ eq) (IPCC, 2013).

The use of a synthetic bulking agent points to a reduction in CH$_4$, NH$_3$ and VOC
emissions and to a lower compaction. However, from our results wood chips have some
advantages in front of PE bulking agent, such as moisture adjustment, higher
temperatures, better organic matter stabilization and the fact that another organic waste
is being valorized (pruning waste, shredded pallets…)

3.3. VOC characterization by SPME/GC-MS

A large number of emitted VOC was identified during the six composting
processes. These compounds have been classified into the following chemical families:
alcohols, esters, furans, ketones, aliphatic hydrocarbons, aromatic hydrocarbons,
aldehydes, halogenated compounds, nitrogen-containing compounds, sulphur-
containing compounds and terpenes. The total percentages of each VOC family emitted
are summarized in Table 3 for each composting process. A quantitative analysis has
also been carried out with some specific and typical VOC emitted during a composting
process (Scaglia et al., 2011). In particular, fifteen typical VOC have been identified,
but only 10 of these compounds have been found in the composting processes studied. These 10 compounds and their amounts are summarized in Table 4.

As can be seen in Table 3, aldehydes emission was almost zero during all the composting processes studied. Also halogenated compounds have been only found during one of the MSW composting processes, in a very low percentage (Table 3). Avoiding source selecting before composting, batteries and remains of some toxic products were found in the initial waste. That could be the reason for finding halogenated compounds in gaseous emissions only during MSW composting process.

Furans and esters were present in gaseous emissions from almost all the composting trials with similar percentages, all of them around 1% (Table 3). These compounds were emitted at low concentrations during the whole composting processes. At the end of the process these percentages rise slightly due to the decrease in the emission of the other VOC found. No relationship seem to exist between furans and esters emissions and process evolution suggesting that these compounds were not generated during the composting process but their emission could be a consequence of stripping. Some of the esters found are phthalate acid esters that have been used for over 50 years in the manufacture of resins and plastics such as PVC (Clarke and Smith, 2011). This fact could explain why esters emission was higher in MSW composting processes.

Nitride molecules have been also emitted with similar percentages in all the trials (Table 3). This family is mainly represented by pyridine, related to putrid odor (Suffet et al., 2009). Pyridine emissions have been quantified and reflected in Table 4. The quantity of pyridine emitted is similar in OF_wood and MSW trials, but lower in OF_tube.
Percentages of sulphide molecules emitted during MSW and OF_wood processes are higher than in OF_tube composting process. The same trend is observed in Table 4, with the main sulphide molecule emitted: dimethyl disulphide. This compound is the most emitted VOC during MSW and OF_wood composting processes. Dimethyl disulphide is a strong odorant and its concentration should be kept below odor threshold values to avoid complaints against waste treatment installations. Dimethyl disulphide was detected in all the samples analyzed during the different experiments, always over the odor threshold, 0.007 mg m$^{-3}$ (Environmental Protection Agency, 2010).

Percentages of aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbons are clearly higher in MSW composting process than in OF_wood and OF_tube. The quantitative analysis confirms this trend with toluene, xylene and decane, present in MSW composting emissions but not detected during source selected OFMSW composting trials. Styrene, another aromatic hydrocarbon, has been detected during all the processes with similar quantities. Styrene emission may be related to the organic fraction itself while the origin of toluene, xylene and decane is more related with impurities. Aromatic hydrocarbons are described as indicators of hazardous compounds and odor nuisance sources (Palmiotto et al., 2014).

Ketones emission could be a consequence of alcohols oxidation, also in other studies percentages of ketones and alcohols are related (Maulini-Duran et al., 2013). Alcohols percentage is higher in OF_tube and OF_wood than in MSW composting. The same trend is observed for ketones. 2-pentanone and various cycloketones are common in air contaminants. 2-pentanone has been quantified, similar emission factor have been found in all the experiments carried out.
Summarizing, predominant VOC families (percentages in emissions over 5%) and individual compounds for OF_wood were terpenes, alcohols, ketones and sulphide molecules, with dimethyl disulphide as the main emitted compound. In the case of OF_tube, terpenes and alcohols dominate in VOC emissions being limonene and dimethyl disulphide the individual compounds with higher concentration. Finally in MSW composting, terpenes, aromatic hydrocarbons and aliphatic hydrocarbons presented the higher percentages while dimethyl disulphide and limonene presented the highest concentration.

One of the aims of this study was to ascertain the main origin of terpenes in the composting emissions. Terpenes are always the VOC family presenting the highest percentage in composting emissions not only in the case of OFMSW and MSW but also in other wastes such as sludge (Maulini-Duran et al. 2013). Staley et al. (2006) described terpenes as the main compounds responsible for odorous pollution at composting facilities. Eitzer (1995) noted that terpenes were the characteristic intermediates produced from the aerobic degradation of organic matter during composting.

Also in the experiments presented in this work, terpenes were the most emitted family of VOC in all the trials carried out. The difference observed in terpenes emission percentages between OF_wood-I and OF_wood II trials (Table 3) is due to the different amount of alcohols emitted in the two processes. Accordingly, the same percentage effect is observed during MSW processes. In the case of MSW-I more hydrocarbons (aliphatic and aromatic) were emitted than in MSW-II. Unexpectedly, the highest percentage of terpenes is emitted during OF_tube composting process, with very low variation between duplicates. Regarding Table 4, the quantitative analysis of limonene is highly homogenous between the different composted wastes, being slightly higher in
MSW composting processes. However, alpha-pinene emission is clearly higher in O_F_wood trials than during OFMSW composting processes without wood chips as bulking agent. The same trend is observed for beta-pinene emission, but with lower differences between the different wastes. Alpha-pinene comparison is even clearer if only OF_tube and OF_wood are considered (total absence of wood materials in MSW cannot be assured). From the comparison of OF_tube and OF_wood it can be stated that the same waste with different bulking agent emits similar quantities of all the other compounds quantified, but not alpha-pinene, which emission is 100-fold higher during OF_wood processes than in OF_tube ones. Büyüksönmez and Evans (2007) composted wood chips and pruning wastes, concluding that terpenes are the single most important type of VOC emitted. Specifically, alpha-pinene was the most prevalent compound representing either the largest or the major portion of the total emissions.

4. Conclusions

VOC, CH_4, N_2O and NH_3 emissions during MSW and OFMSW composting at pilot scale were mainly produced in coinciding with maximum temperature and biological activity.

VOC, CH_4 and NH_3 emission factors in OFMSW composting with wood chips as bulking agent were higher than in OFMSW composting with PE tube (synthetic bulking agent). Terpenes were the main VOC family found in all cases, regardless the presence of wood in the reactor. Alpha and beta pinene emission was higher during composting with wood chips. However, wood chips present some composting advantages in front of PE such as moisture adjustment and waste stabilization.
Acknowledgments

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References


Figure Legends

**Figure 1.** Evolution of temperature, airflow, OUR and oxygen content during composting: (a) OF_wood, (b) OF_tube and (c) MSW. Due to the similarity of profiles, only one graph is shown for each waste representing the six trials carried out. Legend in Fig 1a is the same for Fig 1b and 1c.

**Figure 2.** Daily emission factors (kg of compound Mg⁻¹ treated waste) evolution for (a) CH₄, (b) N₂O, (c) NH₃ and (d) VOC, for the six trials carried out. Values presented are an average of the two duplicated reactors for each waste with the corresponding deviation. Legend in Fig 2a is the same for Fig 2b, 2c and 2d.
Table 1. Characterization of the initial waste mixtures and materials obtained at the end of the process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Dry Matter (%, wb*)</th>
<th>Organic Matter (%, db*)</th>
<th>DRI* (mg O₂ g⁻¹ OM h⁻¹)</th>
<th>pH</th>
<th>Conductivity (µs/cm)</th>
<th>Air filled porosity (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OF-wood</td>
<td>40 ± 5</td>
<td>78 ± 1</td>
<td>2.9 ± 0.2</td>
<td>7.05</td>
<td>2034</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF-wood-I (final product)</td>
<td>37 ± 0.3</td>
<td>72 ± 2</td>
<td>0.5 ± 0.1</td>
<td>8.72</td>
<td>2789</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF-wood-II (final product)</td>
<td>37 ± 2.4</td>
<td>73 ± 3</td>
<td>1.1 ± 0.0</td>
<td>8.78</td>
<td>3198</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF-tube</td>
<td>38 ± 2</td>
<td>82 ± 0</td>
<td>1.9 ± 0.0</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>1877</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF-tube-I (final product)</td>
<td>38 ± 2</td>
<td>73 ± 6</td>
<td>1.2 ± 0.2</td>
<td>8.74</td>
<td>2930</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF-tube-II (final product)</td>
<td>39 ± 1</td>
<td>65 ± 4</td>
<td>1.0 ± 0.01</td>
<td>8.69</td>
<td>2540</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW</td>
<td>41 ± 2</td>
<td>68 ± 2</td>
<td>1.9 ± 0.1</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>3750</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW-I (final product)</td>
<td>41 ± 5</td>
<td>32 ± 5</td>
<td>0.8 ± 0.1</td>
<td>8.78</td>
<td>2370</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW-II (final product)</td>
<td>43 ± 1</td>
<td>45 ± 1</td>
<td>0.9 ± 0.1</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>3560</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Emission Factors for VOC, CH$_4$, N$_2$O and NH$_3$ (kg of compound emitted Mg$^{-1}$ of dry matter). For each waste, values for each replication are presented jointly with the average of the two duplicated reactors with the corresponding deviation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trials</th>
<th>CH$_4$</th>
<th>N$_2$O</th>
<th>NH$_3$</th>
<th>VOC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OF_wood-I</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.0250</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_wood-II</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>0.0169</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>0.813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_wood_mean</td>
<td>1.27 ± 0.09</td>
<td>0.0210 ± 0.006</td>
<td>4.34 ± 2.79</td>
<td>0.989 ± 0.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_tube_I</td>
<td>0.0155</td>
<td>0.0173</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>0.630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_tube_II</td>
<td>0.0214</td>
<td>0.0250</td>
<td>0.802</td>
<td>0.745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_tube_mean</td>
<td>0.0185 ± 0.004</td>
<td>0.0211 ± 0.005</td>
<td>0.612 ± 0.269</td>
<td>0.688 ± 0.082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW-I</td>
<td>0.0428</td>
<td>0.0429</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW-II</td>
<td>0.0670</td>
<td>0.0221</td>
<td>0.860</td>
<td>0.924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW_mean</td>
<td>0.0549 ± 0.017</td>
<td>0.0325 ± 0.015</td>
<td>1.00 ± 0.20</td>
<td>1.05 ± 0.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Percentages of different VOC families emitted during the six processes studied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trial</th>
<th>Terpenes</th>
<th>Furans</th>
<th>Esters</th>
<th>Alcohols</th>
<th>Ketones</th>
<th>Nitride molecules</th>
<th>Sulphide molecules</th>
<th>Aliphatic hydrocarbons</th>
<th>Aromatic hydrocarbons</th>
<th>Aldehydes</th>
<th>Halogenated compounds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OF_wood-I</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_wood-II</td>
<td>72.3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_tube_I</td>
<td>81.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_tube_II</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW-I</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW-II</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. Total emission of quantified VOC (kg of compound emitted Mg\(^{-1}\) of dry matter).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trial</th>
<th>Styrene</th>
<th>2-pentanone</th>
<th>alpha-pinene</th>
<th>beta-pinene</th>
<th>limonene</th>
<th>dimethyl disulfide</th>
<th>Pyridine</th>
<th>Toluene</th>
<th>Xylene</th>
<th>Decane</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OF_wood-I</td>
<td>0.0000646</td>
<td>0.00191</td>
<td>0.01636</td>
<td>0.0116</td>
<td>0.0914</td>
<td>0.0734</td>
<td>0.000882</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_wood-II</td>
<td>0.00140</td>
<td>0.00144</td>
<td>0.03636</td>
<td>0.00647</td>
<td>0.0760</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.00206</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_tube_I</td>
<td>0.00171</td>
<td>0.0134</td>
<td>0.00053</td>
<td>0.000882</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>0.0121</td>
<td>0.000290</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OF_tube_II</td>
<td>0.00122</td>
<td>0.00333</td>
<td>0.00038</td>
<td>0.00143</td>
<td>0.0593</td>
<td>0.0138</td>
<td>0.0000582</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW-I</td>
<td>0.00205</td>
<td>0.00649</td>
<td>0.00514</td>
<td>n.d.</td>
<td>0.175</td>
<td>0.327</td>
<td>0.00249</td>
<td>0.0176</td>
<td>0.00340</td>
<td>0.0151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW-II</td>
<td>0.00154</td>
<td>0.00548</td>
<td>0.00700</td>
<td>0.00415</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.00108</td>
<td>0.00451</td>
<td>0.00255</td>
<td>0.00783</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

33
Figure 1

**a**

- Temperature
- Oxygen
- OUR
- Airflow

**b**

**c**
Figure 2

(a) 

CH$_4$ emission (kg Mg$^{-1}$ treated waste) vs. time (days)

(b) 

N$_2$O emission (kg Mg$^{-1}$ treated waste) vs. time (days)