

Assessment of Greenhouse Gas Emissions in Delhi Landfills: Analyzing Factors Affecting Emissions and Environmental Implications

Abstract

Landfills are a primary method of waste disposal in developing nations despite their environmental impact. The decomposition of municipal organic waste in landfills generates potent greenhouse gases (GHGs) that contribute to the effects of urban climate change. In Delhi, India, which generates 11 144 tons per day (TPD) of municipal solid waste (MSW), three major landfill sites (Ghazipur, Bhalswa, and Okhla) were examined using the well-established in-situ static chamber method to measure emissions of carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O). This study highlights the need to address these uncertainties by comprehensively capturing GHG emissions from the diverse dynamics within the landfill through rigorous field experiments that account for spatial and temporal variability. The average CH₄ emission fluxes from three years of extensive field studies exhibited high variability, measured at 1494±893 (CV=59.8%), 1576±746 (CV=47.3%), and 961±322 (CV=33.5%) mg m⁻² h⁻¹ for Ghazipur (GL), Bhalswa (BL), and Okhla (OL), respectively. This resulted in CH₄ emission factors (EFs) of 5.6±3.5, 4.4±1.9, and 4.2±1.4 g kg⁻¹ for GL, BL, and OL, respectively. The CO₂ emission fluxes were 7520±3401 (CV=45.2%), 8005±3907 (CV=48.8%), and 5066±1985 (CV=39.2%) mg m⁻² h⁻¹ with corresponding EFs of 20.0±7, 23.3±9, and 16.3±4.7 g kg⁻¹. The N₂O emission fluxes were 1210±329 (CV=27.2%), 998±298 (CV=30%) and 944±339 (CV=36%) µg m⁻² h⁻¹ with EFs of 3.8±0.1, 2.5±0.2, and 3.1±0.3 mg kg⁻¹ for GL, BL, and OL, respectively. Total GHG emissions from Delhi's landfills were estimated as 328.6±91.9, 231.0±109.5, and 241.1±112.2 Gg CO₂ equivalent for 2009-10, 2010-11, and 2011-12. Investigating waste management practices such as spreading, covering, and compaction is essential for understanding their impact on GHG emissions and advancing climate change mitigation through waste-to-energy solutions for sustainable solid waste management and energy production. **While the findings offer valuable understandings into emission patterns, the limited sample size introduces some uncertainty, and the EFs should be considered as a preliminary estimation of major GHG in three consecutive years. Future research is necessary to validate these factors with more extensive datasets that capture spatial and seasonal variations in emissions.**

31 **Key Words:** Greenhouse gas, Municipal Solid Waste, landfill-specific emission factor,
32 Limiting factors, in-situ measurement.

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Municipal solid waste (MSW) management is a critical issue worldwide [1]. The changing
35 lifestyles and consumption patterns observed, especially in urban areas, have been attributed
36 to increasing industrial growth, economic prosperity, and expanding transportation networks
37 in rapidly developing nations like India [2]. This phenomenon has resulted in a notable surge
38 in waste generation due to heightened levels of consumption and production associated with
39 urbanisation and economic development [2], [3]. As a result, these factors contribute to the
40 emission of GHGs from human activities, posing a significant threat to exacerbating climate
41 change [4]. With the world's largest population and undergoing rapid industrialization
42 alongside shifting consumption patterns, India is experiencing a steep increase in MSW
43 generation. In response to these environmental challenges, India actively participates in
44 international negotiations as part of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate
45 Change (UNFCCC) to address these pressing environmental issues. Understanding the gravity
46 of climate change, India has initiated comprehensive measures to combat it, including the
47 implementation of a National Action Plan [5]. As part of this action plan, India has launched
48 the National Mission on Sustainable Habitat, a promising initiative that aims to promote
49 sustainable living environments. This initiative focuses on various aspects such as developing
50 energy-efficient buildings and effective solid waste management practices [6]. One of the key
51 challenges this mission addresses is the proper disposal of MSW, offering a hopeful solution
52 to the current waste management crisis.

53 MSW has historically been disposed of in landfills in India, which led to the emission of
54 greenhouse gases (GHGs) like methane (CH₄), carbon dioxide (CO₂), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and
55 volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the absence of proper scientific management [7]. These
56 GHGs have high global warming potential (GWP) of CH₄ and N₂O, which are 28 and 298
57 times higher than that of CO₂ for a 100-year time scale [8]. In India, landfilling is one of the
58 most common, cost-effective, but poorly managed ways of managing an MSW. Therefore,
59 landfill sites are susceptible to groundwater contamination through leachate percolation [9].
60 Landfills, like burning agricultural crop residue, are poorly managed, particularly in Punjab
61 and Haryana. This deteriorates air quality, which ultimately affects individuals' health [10-11],

62 making the issue of MSW management not just an environmental concern but a personal one.
63 The potential health risks from poorly managed landfills are a cause for concern and underline
64 the need for immediate action. Landfills are estimated to contribute approximately 754 Gg of
65 CH₄ emissions, as reported in India's third Biennial Update Report submitted to the UNFCCC
66 by the government of India in 2016. Only a few experiments have been carried out so far to
67 estimate CO₂ and N₂O from landfills [12] – [18]. A study on Swedish landfills has shown that
68 N₂O emissions are influenced by the CH₄ content of the soil, which, with concentrations above
69 5%, stimulates N₂O formation [12]. This growth rate highlights the escalating importance of
70 addressing emissions from this sector within India's national GHG mitigation strategies.

71 However, it is crucial to note that detailed data on limiting factors such as types of waste,
72 quantity of waste, waste composition, moisture levels, thickness of soil cover, and soil
73 characteristics within landfills are not readily available in India. This lack of comprehensive
74 data leads to significant uncertainties in estimating GHG emissions from MSW. The study
75 outlined in this paper aims to address these uncertainties by comprehensively capturing GHG
76 emissions resulting from the diverse dynamics within the landfill through rigorous field
77 experiments that account for spatial and temporal variability. Understanding the emission
78 behaviour of different GHGs is crucial, as these gases play a significant role in changing local
79 climate patterns. In this study, an exhaustive field measurement (in-situ) was undertaken to
80 measure total GHG (viz. CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O) emissions and tried to build a relationship with
81 key limiting factors that influenced GHG emissions from the three landfills of Delhi during the
82 period from 2009 to 2012. The GHG emissions data were used to develop landfill-specific
83 GHG emission factors (EFs) for Delhi. These EFs (emission factors) are critical values that can
84 be used to estimate total emissions from a landfill when conducting in-situ measurements is
85 difficult or not feasible. Additionally, these EFs can serve as reliable alternatives in situations
86 where model-based estimations may lead to overestimation, as highlighted by Chakraborty et
87 al., 2011 & 2013 [13], [19].

88 **2. Materials and Methods**

89 The emitted GHGs (mainly CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O) from the Delhi landfills have been captured
90 by landfill-specific in-situ GHG flux measurements using the Static Chamber Method.
91 Extensive GHG flux measurements have been carried out from 2009 to 2012, covering

92 different seasons (viz., winter, summer, and monsoon) to reduce the uncertainties in the landfill
93 GHG emission estimations.

94 **2.1. Study Sites**

95 Three landfill sites, namely Ghazipur (commissioned in 1984; 28°37'22.4"N, 77°19'25.7"E);
96 Bhalswa (commissioned in 1994; 28°44'27.16" N, 77°9'27.92" E) and Okhla (commissioned
97 in 1996; 28°30'42" N, 77°16'59" E) situated in Delhi. The region is characterized by a hot,
98 semi-arid subtropical climate with dry winters and significant temperature variations between
99 summer and winter. The monsoon season, lasting from late June to mid-October, brings about
100 797.3 mm of rain. During the monsoon, rainfall recorded was 529 mm in 2009, 558 mm in
101 2010, and 590 mm in 2011. The types of MSW waste generally received at GL include waste
102 from households, poultry, fish markets and slaughterhouses. BL receives waste from
103 households and vegetable markets besides construction and demolition (C&D) waste. OL
104 receives household and street sweeping waste along with C&D waste. Total MSW generation
105 in Delhi is about 11144 TPD, where daily landfilling of MSW was estimated to be about 2300,
106 1800, and 1600 t from Ghazipur (GL), Bhalswa (BL), and Okhla (OL), respectively. Since
107 2018, approximately 4000 tons per day (TPD) MSW have been directed to Delhi waste-to-
108 energy generation plants, a significant step towards sustainable energy production, yielding 24
109 megawatts (MW) daily. The remaining waste undergoes recycling processes, along with the
110 management of construction and demolition (C&D) waste, as outlined on the official website
111 of the Delhi Government. For further information on landfill sites, waste management
112 practices, waste composition, and related details, readers are referred to the previous
113 publication by Chakraborty et al., 2011 [13], [19].

114 **2.2. GHG emission estimations**

115 Our study aimed to develop landfill-specific emission factors of GHGs (viz. CH₄, CO₂, and
116 N₂O) from Delhi's landfills. To achieve this, we applied an in-situ measurement method, using
117 the well-established static chamber method to measure GHG emissions in landfills. The GHG
118 flux samples collected from the chamber were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC; Model:
119 6890 N, Agilent Technologies, USA) using FID for determination of CH₄, CO₂, and ECD for
120 N₂O and fitted with 25' x 1/16" stainless steel Hayesep-D and Porapac-Q columns. In each
121 sampling, the air samples were collected from the static chamber using syringes at intervals of
122 15 minutes until 1 hr. Inside the chamber, two DC fans were fitted for homogeneous air mixing.

123 The GC injector, column oven, and detector temperatures have been maintained at 160°C,
124 50°C, and 250°C, respectively. The carrier gas as nitrogen (with 20 ml min⁻¹ flow rate at a
125 constant pressure of 6 bar) was used to analyze CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O.

126 For the calibration of GC, the standard gases of 10 and 100 ppm CH₄ were used from
127 NIST (National Institute of Standards and Technology, USA). For CO₂ standardization,
128 MAINZ (Germany) provided standards of 394±0.2 ppm, and 1% CO₂ NIST standards were
129 used. For the N₂O calibration, 500±0.2 ppb and 5.17±0.3 ppm of NIST standards were used.
130 Thus, the output CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O concentration values were used for CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O
131 emission flux calculations. The change of gases' concentration over time in the chamber as
132 emission flux is calculated using equation 1.

133 The field sampling protocol was followed to capture GHG emissions in different
134 seasons, covering the winter, summer, and monsoon in Delhi's three landfills for three
135 consecutive years from November 2009 to December 2012. This comprehensive approach
136 allowed us to capture the entire variation in the emission flux. The sampling was done twice
137 every other month from three landfills during the period described above. The whole landfill
138 area was divided into six zones of about 4-5 ha each based on the ages (1 month to 1.5 years
139 of dumping) of the dumped MSW. In every sampling event, 8-12 sampling points were
140 randomly chosen in the targeted zones in the landfill. Subsequently, the sampling was
141 conducted in the forenoon and afternoon to capture the temperature influenced GHG flux from
142 the landfill. The aluminium bases were fixed several hours before sampling, even though
143 sometimes these were installed on the previous day of sampling to ensure that the best
144 equilibrium state arrived at that point before putting chambers on the base. The base and the
145 top were sealed using water, as discussed elsewhere [13], [18], [20], [22].

146 The number of sampling points across the entire landfill area varied seasonally, with
147 24-32 points in winter, 48-54 points in summer, and another 24-32 points in the monsoon
148 season each year. The observed seasonal variations in GHG fluxes were analyzed to calculate
149 average GHG emission fluxes specific to the landfill. Outlier data points were identified and
150 excluded using the interquartile statistical method to refine the estimation of landfill-specific
151 annual GHG emissions.

152 GHG emission flux (mg m⁻² h⁻¹) = $\frac{\Delta X * EBV_{(STP)}}{10^6} * \frac{M \times 10^3}{22400} * \frac{60}{T} * \frac{1}{A} \dots \dots \dots (1)$

153 Where,

154 ΔX = Change in concentration for each time interval (15, 30, 45 and 60 min) concerning that
 155 at 0.
 156 $EBV_{(STP)}$ = Effective box volume at standard temperature and pressure
 157 T = Flux time in min. (15, 30..., 60)
 158 A = landfill area covered by the box in m^2
 159 M = Molecular weight of GHG (*viz.* CH_4 , CO_2 and N_2O)

160
 161 $EBV = [(H + h) * L * B] \dots \dots \dots (2)$
 162

163 Where,
 164 EBV = Effective box volume
 165 H = Box height (cm)
 166 h = Height of aluminum channel above the ground level (cm)
 167 L = Box length (cm)
 168 B = Box breadth (cm)
 169

170 $EBV_{(STP)}$ correction equation
 171
$$\frac{P_1 V_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2 V_2}{T_2} \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

172 Where,
 173 P_1 = Barometric pressure at the time of sampling in mm Hg
 174 V_1 = EBV (Effective box volume)
 175 T_1 = Temperature inside the box at the time of sampling in K (Kelvin)
 176 P_2 = Standard barometric pressure (760) in mm Hg
 177 V_2 = $EBV_{(STP)}$
 178 T_2 = 273 K

179 **2.3. Physico-chemical parameters of landfill soils**

180 In addition to in-situ GHG measurements, a detailed investigation of the physicochemical
 181 properties of landfill soil has also been undertaken. The parameters studied, and corresponding
 182 standard methodologies adopted for analyzing physicochemical parameters are summarized in
 183 Table 1. The range of observed MSW temperature, moisture content, pH, etc. values during
 184 the three seasons are 28 to 30 °C, 36 to 39 %, and 7.0 to 7.3, respectively, of different Landfills,
 185 as shown in Table 1.

186 **3. Results and Discussion**

187 **3.1. Physico-chemical parameters**

188 **3.1.1. pH**

189 The samples were collected from the subsurface soil at 6 to 8 inches depth where the pH was
 190 7.3 ± 0.6 , 7.2 ± 0.8 , and 7.0 ± 0.8 from GL, BL, and OL, respectively. The methanogenic bacteria

191 operate only within the pH range of 6-8 [23], [24]. The accumulation of H₂ and CH₃COOH
192 decreases the pH value, inhibiting the activity of methanogenic bacteria [25]. The pH values of
193 MSW showed a little seasonal variability. During winter, the pH ranged from 6.9 to 7.2; in
194 summer, it fluctuated between 7.2 and 7.8, and in the monsoon season, it varied between 6.8
195 and 7.1 (see Table 1). According to Li et al. (2007), organic carbon mineralization increases
196 with pH increase, attributed to elevated CO₂ production alongside soil microbial biomass [25].
197 The pH of the soil surface, where aluminum bases were fixed, presumed to be the surface-
198 emitting GHG, remained consistent across Delhi's landfills. In most instances, the pH levels
199 were observed below neutrality, possibly indicating the fermentation stage. It was reported that
200 the fermentation process strictly follows the pH ranges of <5, enabling ethanol production, and
201 >5 initiates volatile fatty acids production. In this phase, acetate, H₂, and CO₂ are produced.
202 This phase continues after dumping for 100 days, followed by the next anaerobic process, i.e.
203 methanogenesis [26]. The pH levels of the MSW exhibited a weak correlation with GHG
204 emissions in GL, BL, and OL ($r = 0.68, 0.59, \text{ and } 0.67$ for GL, BL, and OL, respectively) across
205 all seasons. This could be attributed to pH's crucial role in affecting GHG emissions in a
206 controlled or protective environment. However, field experiments present a different scenario,
207 likely influenced by various other factors. Additionally, leakages through pores, cracks, etc.,
208 could alter the statistics and contribute to these differing observations.

209 **3.1.2. Temperature**

210 The ambient temperature in Delhi was around 17 - 25°C in the winter, while in the summer,
211 the ambient temperature ranged between 38 - 47°C. During the monsoon season, the
212 temperature was recorded in the 27 - 41°C range during the sampling events. The humidity
213 during the sampling events in winter varied from 29 - 58%. In the summer, the humidity
214 dropped from 5% to 20%, while in the monsoon season, it remained at 55 to 98%. In summer,
215 the MSW temperature (up to 6 inches depth) was observed to be 5 to 7°C higher than ambient
216 temperature. However, in the winter season, this difference was nearly zero to one degree C.
217 Still, in the monsoon season, sometimes, MSW temperature was lower than the ambient
218 temperature by about 2 to 3°C. The active temperature for methanogenic microorganisms was
219 reported to be 30-50°C [27]. The optimum temperature range of gas generation has been
220 proposed to be between 30-45°C during the landfill gas generation phase. Consequently, it was
221 thought that mesophilic and thermophilic bacteria were the cause of the increased greenhouse
222 gas emissions that occurred throughout the summer. While due to the comparatively low

223 temperature, the mesophilic bacteria were dominant in winter and monsoon seasons. The
224 impact of temperature change on the growth of biomass and the activity of the microorganisms,
225 as well as GHG (CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O) emissions, was also observed [28].

226 **3.1.3. Moisture content**

227 Wastes have varying capabilities to hold water depending on the type of waste. Therefore, the
228 moisture content in the garbage was found to be diversified. Maximum moisture content was
229 found in monsoon season, reaching up to 80%, but on average, it ranged between 43-57%.
230 Moisture content in the summer was as low as 28%, and the maximum was found to be 35%.
231 In the winter season, the moisture content was found to be between 31 to 48%. Dach and Jager
232 reported that the kinetics of degradation of organic matter was dependent on the water content
233 of that material [29]The moisture below 25% would significantly affect and even inhibit the
234 biodegradation process. Due to the unscientific covering of the top layer, rainwater is likely to
235 enter Delhi's landfills through it, contributing to the hydrolytic process by dissolving readily
236 degradable organic matter, as described by Hernández-Berriel et al. [30]. It was also reported
237 that the moisture content in a typical landfill is lying down in a range of 15 to 40%, with a
238 typical average of 30% [31]. Gurijala et al., 1997 claimed that the samples that contained more
239 than 55% (wt/wt) moisture content produced significant amounts of CH₄ and CO₂ [32], [34].
240 Other researchers also reported how the moisture content in biodegradable waste influences
241 the CH₄ and CO₂ generation rate in landfill sites [30], [31], [33], [34]. Hence, it was considered
242 that the moisture content in MSW propelled the degradation processes by exchanging the
243 substrate, nutrients, buffer, etc., and spread microorganisms into the different stages of
244 degradation [35], [36]The moisture contents of dumped MSW were 30-42%, 25-35%, and 50-
245 75% in the winter, summer, and monsoon seasons. The three landfill sites' annual average
246 moisture contents were found to be 39±12%, 40±11 %, and 36±9% (Table 1).

247 **3.1.4. Volatile Solids**

248 In addition, the volatile solid is an important parameter, often used to measure the
249 biodegradability of the organic fraction of MSW [37]. Some organic components of MSW,
250 such as newspaper, exhibited high volatility but low biodegradability primarily due to its lignin
251 content [37]. Employing a Muffle furnace set at a temperature of 550°C, the volatile solids
252 (VS) component in the wet waste was determined to be 31.2±9, 32±11 and 29±9% in GL, BL,
253 and OL, respectively (Table 1). The ash content was measured in three landfills and was

254 discovered to be $7\pm 4\%$, reflecting the presence of inorganic or metallic constituents within the
255 MSW. It was observed that there was a significant correlation between VS and GHG (CH₄ and
256 CO₂) emissions, having correlation coefficients of CH₄ (r) of 0.89, 0.83 and 0.79 ($p < 0.05$) for
257 GL, BL and OL, respectively.

258 **3.1.5. Organic carbon**

259 The total organic carbon (OC) contents were recorded as $15\pm 6\%$, $16\pm 6\%$, and $14\pm 4\%$
260 in the different landfill sites (GL, BL, and OL, respectively, Table 1). The correlation analysis
261 between OC content with CH₄ and CO₂ emissions revealed significant relationships, with
262 correlation coefficients (r) of 0.671 and 0.892 ($p < 0.05$), respectively. These findings suggested
263 the active involvement of aerobic and anaerobic degradation processes within the landfills.
264 Furthermore, the OC/VS ratio was determined to be 0.39 ± 0.3 , lower than the default value of
265 0.5 specified by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in 2006. This indicates
266 a higher proportion of volatile solids relative to organic carbon content in the waste, suggesting
267 potentially more significant anaerobic degradation activity.

268 **3.1.6. Total Nitrogen**

269 The total nitrogen (TN) in the MSW's samples from three landfill sites, GL, BL, and
270 OL, was estimated as $1.7\pm 0.6\%$, $1.9\pm 0.6\%$, and $1.7\pm 0.5\%$, whereas organic nitrogen was
271 0.6 ± 0.3 , 0.9 ± 0.4 , and $0.7\pm 0.4\%$, respectively. The NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, and NO₂⁻ have been found to
272 be dominant inorganic N forms. The results showed that N-NH₄⁺ was higher than N-NO₂ and
273 N-NO₃⁻ (Table 1). No correlation was discovered between TN, organic nitrogen (ON), NO₃⁻
274 and NO₂⁻ and surface N₂O emissions except with NH₄⁺, which showed a weak correlation (r
275 = 0.522). This indicated that N₂O emissions could primarily be from aerobic waste
276 degradation through nitrification. The higher presence of NH₄⁺ led to the nitrification process.
277 However, nitrification and denitrification are cyclic processes that could be changed on any
278 occasion by the abundance of NH₄⁺ or NO₃⁻ [38].

279 Overall, these results provided valuable insights into the physicochemical
280 composition of MSW in the studied landfills, highlighting the presence of inorganic
281 components, the significant roles of organic carbon, nitrogen, and volatile solids in GHG
282 emissions, and the active degradation processes of organic waste within the landfills.

283 **3.2. Greenhouse gas flux estimations**

284 The Compaction activity, surface temperatures, microbiological processes, heterogeneous
285 surfaces, and fluctuations in trash composition all affect emissions and add uncertainty to
286 estimates of greenhouse gas emissions from landfills. Similar challenges were encountered in
287 GL, BL, and OL. Periodically, variations in GHG emission flux reached approximately 100%
288 or even higher, necessitating the exclusion of some outlier data points through the interquartile
289 statistical method. The high uncertainties associated with GHG emission flux estimations,
290 attributed to spatial variations across seasons as reported by Zhang et al., 2019 [39], are further
291 elaborated in the subsequent section, highlighting the seasonal variability in emissions.

292 **3.2.1. Methane flux estimation**

293 Figure 1 shows the seasonal variations in the CH₄ emission fluxes observed during 2009-2012.
294 The GL site in Delhi showed a CH₄ emission flux of $1197.0 \pm 325.4 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$, which was lower
295 compared to the CH₄ emission flux in the other two landfill sites, e.g., 2201 ± 472.1 and
296 $1411.3 \pm 404.4 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ at BL and OL in the winter season (November to February) during
297 2009-10. During the summer season (March to June) in 2009-10, the CH₄ flux at GL, BL, and
298 OL sites was observed to be 3617.5 ± 994.4 , 3006.2 ± 1021.3 and $1154.3 \pm 393.8 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$
299 respectively, with OL showing the lowest values. In the monsoon and post-monsoon season
300 (July to October) in 2009-10, the CH₄ emissions flux at the GL, BL, and OL sites was observed
301 to be 918.6 ± 199.4 , 833.7 ± 294.5 and $557.5 \pm 122.8 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ respectively.

302 Likewise, in the winter season 2009-10, the GL site had low CH₄ emission fluxes (i.e.,
303 $951.0 \pm 321 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) compared to BL and OL (1303 ± 427 and $995 \pm 244 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$,
304 respectively) during 2010-11. In the summer, the CH₄ fluxes followed the trends GL > BL > OL
305 ($2603 \pm 1025 > 2152 \pm 430 > 1476 \pm 464 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$). In the monsoon and post-monsoon, the
306 variation in the CH₄ emissions fluxes in the landfills was not significantly different from each
307 other, i.e., 833 ± 283 , 709 ± 177 and $776 \pm 195 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ at all three sites.

308 During the winter season in 2011-12, the GL showed a similar pattern as found in
309 previous years with lower CH₄ emission fluxes ($920 \pm 224 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) compared to the other two
310 landfill sites, e.g., $980 \pm 346 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ at BL and $1062 \pm 394 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ at OL. During the
311 summer, the CH₄ fluxes at GL, BL, and OL sites were detected as 2675 ± 935 , 2022 ± 288 , and
312 $1632 \pm 378 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$, respectively, while OL showed the lowest values other than two landfills.
313 In the monsoon and post-monsoon seasons, the CH₄ emissions fluxes at the GL, BL, and OL
314 sites were observed to be 909 ± 262 , 854 ± 282 and $792 \pm 192 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$, respectively.

315 There was considerable variability observed in seasonal CH₄ emission fluxes. Based on
316 the aggregated data measured over the 2009-2012 periods, the seasonal CH₄ emission fluxes
317 and average CH₄ flux from the three landfills of Delhi were calculated. The measured CH₄
318 emission fluxes were further subjected to statistical treatment for removal of outlier values
319 using the inter-quartile method, which yielded the average seasonal CH₄ emission fluxes as
320 1027±286, 1485±591 and 1132±351 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ from GL, BL, and OL respectively in the winter
321 season. In the summer, the CH₄ fluxes were detected as 2856±975, 2331±771, and 1312±537
322 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ from GL, BL, and OL, respectively. In the monsoon season, the CH₄ emission fluxes
323 were 856±227, 755±221, and 660±169 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ from GL, BL, and OL, respectively. The
324 results indicated higher CH₄ emissions during summer, followed by the winter and monsoon
325 seasons. The average annual CH₄ emission fluxes calculations were 1494±893, 1576±746, and
326 961±322 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ from GL, BL, and OL, respectively (Table 2).

327 Although no significant correlation coefficient was observed between CH₄ flux and soil
328 temperature, the role of temperature in CH₄ emissions could be ruled out. Afternoon emissions
329 were found to be higher compared to forenoon emissions in the landfills (Fig. 2). This
330 suggested that influencing factors for methane emissions from the landfill could extend beyond
331 temperature alone; parameters such as humidity, atmospheric pressure, and others likely also
332 contribute and deserve further exploration in future studies. The difference in average CH₄ flux
333 values of 326±245, 370±448 and 208±187 mg m⁻² h⁻¹, respectively, for GL, BL, and OL, was
334 observed between forenoon and afternoon CH₄ emission fluxes indicating the influence of
335 temperature on CH₄ emission processes in the landfills (Fig. 2). Continuous measurements of
336 CH₄ emission in the landfills during the period from 8 AM to 4 PM in different seasons have
337 also been carried out. It was observed that the CH₄ emissions were highest during the afternoon
338 in all three landfills (Fig. 3). The CH₄ emission fluxes derived from three landfills in Delhi
339 align with values reported by various authors [13], [18], [40].

340 **3.2.2. Carbon dioxide flux estimation**

341 Only a few experiments have been carried out to estimate CO₂ from landfills in India [13],
342 [18]. The emission estimated by measurements carried out during the three-year study period
343 revealed temporal and spatial variability in CO₂ emissions from Delhi's landfills (Fig.1). To
344 minimise the error, the statistical inter quartile method was applied to remove outlier data
345 points and in winter the CO₂ emission fluxes were spotted to be 6595±1418, 7754±2309 and

346 4016±1314 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ whereas, in the summer, the CO₂ fluxes were noticed as 10518±3223,
347 9956±4168 and 5824±2033 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ from GL, BL, and OL, respectively.

348 During the monsoon season, the emissions were 4468±1309, 4912±2703, and
349 4152±1602 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ from GL, BL, and OL, respectively. The lowest CO₂ emission fluxes
350 were exhibited during the monsoon season compared to the other two seasons, except for OL,
351 which showed higher emissions during the monsoon season than the winter season. The
352 average CO₂ emission fluxes for three landfills were 7520± 3401, 8005±3907, and 5066±1985
353 mg m⁻²h⁻¹ (Table 3). The CO₂ emission fluxes obtained from three landfills in Delhi correspond
354 closely to values reported in prior studies [40].

355 3.2.3. Nitrous oxide flux estimation

356 The N₂O emission fluxes were meticulously monitored from the landfills in Delhi over three
357 consecutive years spanning 2009-2012. In GL, N₂O emissions were recorded as 1419.6±588,
358 1416.7±483, and 1208.3±489 µg m⁻² h⁻¹ in the years 2009-10, 2010-11 and 2011-12,
359 respectively. At the same time, BL was noted to emit 1254.3±642, 1029.4±333 and 1006.6±312
360 µg N₂O m⁻² h⁻¹, while the values obtained on the OL site were 1187.1±804, 987.9±342 and
361 994.9±287 µg m⁻² h⁻¹ in three consecutive years. The average of three years N₂O emission
362 fluxes was found as 1210±329 998±298 and 944±339 µg m⁻² h⁻¹ from GL, BL, and OL,
363 respectively (Table 4). The GL was observed as the highest N₂O emitter compared to BL and
364 OL (Fig 1). However, no significant differences in the seasonal N₂O emission fluxes were
365 noticed in Delhi's landfills. In landfills, the factors influencing GHG emissions are
366 interdependent and reciprocal. As all GHG samples were collected at the same time intervals,
367 it could be presumed that the emissions of all gases occurred simultaneously. When one gas
368 was used as a normalizing factor for the other two gases, a moderate to high correlation
369 ($r^2=0.504$, correlation= 0.71) was observed, mainly when CH₄ was used as the normalizing
370 factor, and N₂O was plotted against CO₂. The available literature suggested that methane-
371 oxidizing bacteria could also be a source of N₂O [26], [41], [21], indicating that N₂O generation
372 and emission from landfills might depend not only on nitrification and denitrification but also
373 on phenomena related to CH₄ emissions.

374 The increase of mineral and ammonium concentration inhibited methanotrophic activity [38].
375 The observation that CO₂ and CH₄ were not well correlated when N₂O was kept constant in
376 landfill emissions suggested a complex interplay among these gases. This finding challenges
377 the simplistic assumption that changes in one gas directly correspond to changes in another

378 when N₂O levels are steady. Instead, it implied that methane generation and oxidation
379 dynamics could significantly influence the emissions of both N₂O and CO₂ from landfills.
380 Furthermore, methane oxidation to CO₂ is another critical process in landfill environments.
381 Methanotrophic bacteria convert methane to CO₂ as part of their metabolic activity. Therefore,
382 changes in methane oxidation rates could impact the relative proportions of CH₄ and CO₂
383 released into the atmosphere.

384 Jha et al. documented N₂O fluxes ranging from 6 to 460 µg m⁻² h⁻¹ in Chennai's landfills during
385 September 2004, consistent with the values observed in Delhi's landfills [18]. Elevated N₂O
386 emissions were documented in landfills that utilised sewage sludge disposal or employed
387 landfill leachate circulation as part of their management practices, as both methods contribute
388 to increased nitrogen levels within the landfills [42]–[44]. However, such practices were not
389 implemented in Delhi's landfills. Bo'rjesson and Svensson observed N₂O emissions reaching
390 35.7 mg Nm⁻² h⁻¹ from active landfills covered with sewage sludge [12].

391 **3.3. Factors affecting GHG emissions in landfills**

392 The comprehensive analysis of the physicochemical composition of MSW in the studied
393 landfills revealed several key factors influencing GHG emissions. The pH levels slightly below
394 neutrality supported methanogenic activity, particularly during fermentation. Temperature
395 variations also significantly impact microbial activity and GHG emissions, with higher
396 emissions during the summer due to optimal conditions for mesophilic and thermophilic
397 bacteria. In the seasonal variability assessment, the inferences were drawn from the CH₄ and
398 CO₂ emissions, which were generally higher in summer compared to other seasons, except
399 N₂O emissions were indifferent among the seasons. However, surface temperature and GHG
400 emission fluxes were not significantly correlated. Still, the impact of increased temperature
401 was evident by higher CH₄ fluxes in the summer seasons and likewise in the forenoon
402 compared to the afternoon when the ambient temperature was comparatively higher. Moisture
403 content, crucial for biodegradation, which triggers hydrolysis processes, varies seasonally; the
404 significant correlation between moisture content and CH₄ emissions was spotted ($r = 0.75, 0.7,$
405 $\text{and } 0.69$ for GL, BL, and OL, respectively) in summer and where the non-significant
406 relationship was found in the monsoon post monsoon. The Volatile solids and organic carbon
407 showed strong correlations with CH₄ and CO₂ emissions, indicating active degradation
408 processes. A lower OC/VS ratio indicated a higher proportion of volatile solids, which

409 suggested active anaerobic activity and simultaneous aerobic degradation processes. Nitrogen
410 content, particularly NH_4^+ , correlates with N_2O emissions, primarily through nitrification.
411 During the study, different rainfall amounts were detected in the monsoon season (late June to
412 mid-September) and post-monsoon season (September-October) from 2009 to 2012. Despite
413 varying precipitation levels, CH_4 emission fluxes from the three landfills exhibited a consistent
414 pattern, lower than in the summer months. There could be several reasons for these lower CH_4
415 fluxes during monsoon season. Hernandez-Berriel et al. claimed that rainwater reduces CH_4
416 and CO_2 emissions by dissolving mineralized carbon and washing out the nutrients along with
417 microorganisms [30]. However, Visvanathan et al. proposed that CH_4 oxidation increased
418 manifold in tropical regions when adequate moisture content was present in landfill-cover soils
419 in addition to sufficient light and heat exposure [41]. In the three landfills during the monsoon
420 season, the moisture levels of MSW have been estimated to be between 70 and 80 per cent.
421 The monsoon season's CH_4 emissions were reduced due to the development of cracks by drying
422 wet MSW and the diffusion of air oxygen into the underlying layers of MSW. It was also
423 observed that the standard management procedures of MSW stacking, levelling, and
424 compaction were challenging to adhere to adequately due to greater moisture concentrations.
425 During the monsoon season, the available unfilled areas of the landfill were also used for
426 dumping waste, which was later removed and put back on the pile after the end of the monsoon
427 season. As a result, when temperature increased, the decomposition of waste heaps occurred
428 aerobically instead of anaerobically.

429 The results indicated that CH_4 constituted about 27, 29, and 31%, whereas CO_2 constituted 73,
430 71, and 69% of the total GHG emissions (based on the total mass) from GL, BL, and OL,
431 respectively, while N_2O emissions constituted only <0.02% in the total GHG emissions. In
432 Delhi's landfills, it was noticed that a sizable amount of MSW decomposed aerobically rather
433 than anaerobically, favouring the release of N_2O through the nitrification process. Some of the
434 N_2O emissions also occurred through the denitrification process. Based on the samples
435 collected from MSW piles dumped at different times in the landfills, it was noticed that 30-
436 60% of carbon contents in organic matter in MSW was degraded within the first 3 to 6 years
437 initially under aerobic conditions followed by an anaerobic process, then slowly taper off,
438 continuing for periods up to 25 years or more [18].

439 Other causes may be attributed to the management practices employed by municipal
440 authorities, such as dumping and spreading of MSW, compaction, soil cover, and the types of
441 cover materials used. These practices, which were comparatively better in certain seasons,

442 resulted in lower GHG emissions. Conversely, poor landfill management practices in other
443 seasons led to higher diffusivity through cracks and fissures, resulting in increased landfill gas
444 emissions [42].

445 **3.4. GHG emission estimation from 2009 to 2012**

446 To estimate CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions from Delhi's landfills, the average flux value of
447 each year during the 2009-12 period was used (Table 2,3,4). The cumulative CH₄ emissions
448 were 10.2±2.9, 6.8±3.3, and 7.2±3.5 Gg in 2009-10, 2010-11, and 2011-12, respectively. The
449 CH₄ estimations results were found to be similar to those reported by the other previous [13],
450 [18], [20]. The CO₂ emissions were estimated as 41.5±10.5, 39±17, and 38±14 Gg for 2009-
451 10, 2010-11 and 2011-12, respectively. The N₂O emissions were 5.8±0.7, 6.0±0.5, and 5.8±0.6
452 Mg in 2009-10, 2010-11 and 2011-12, respectively (Table 5). These variations suggested
453 potential shifts in waste management practices, landfill conditions, environmental factors
454 influencing gas emissions, or climatic conditions affecting microbial activity. Therefore,
455 achieving consistent GHG emissions estimates for landfills could be challenging, highlighting
456 the need for rigorous and comprehensive studies to establish country-specific emission
457 estimations. The total GHG emissions were estimated from the landfills of Delhi for the period
458 from 2009-10 to 2011-12 as 328.6±91.9, 231±109.5, and 241.1±112.2 Gg CO₂ eq. (GWPs were
459 calculated using a 100-year time scale). It was also estimated that the landfill gases composed
460 of CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O in volume by volume (v/v) percentages ranging from 30% to 45%, 50%
461 to 70%, and less than 1%, respectively. Therefore, a significant contribution of GHG emissions
462 from landfills in Delhi underscores the urgent need for targeted interventions in waste
463 management practices to mitigate climate change impacts. The estimated CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O
464 emissions from each of the three Delhi landfills are shown in Table 5.

465 **3.5. GHG emission factors**

466 The landfill-specific CH₄ emission factors (EFs) were developed from the *in-situ* field
467 measurement results in three Delhi landfill sites. The amount of MSW deposited (excluding
468 inert materials) in the three years with total CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions from each of the
469 landfills in respective years were used to assess EFs (i.e. the ratio of *Total Emission* vs.
470 *deposited MSW* in a particular year) of these gases. The CH₄ EFs were 5.6±3.5, 4.4±1.9, and
471 4.2±1.4 g kg⁻¹ for GL, BL, and OL, respectively (Table 6). The CO₂ EFs were calculated to be

472 20±7, 23.3±9 and 16.3±4.7 g kg⁻¹ for GL, BL, and OL, respectively, while the N₂O EFs were
473 3.8±0.1, 2.5±0.2, and 3.1±0.3 mg kg⁻¹ for GL, BL and OL, respectively.

474 It is imperative to consider spatial and temporal variations in GHG emission estimations when
475 developing representative emission factors (EFs). The study highlighted that estimating
476 emissions without considering seasonal variations might lead to underestimating or
477 overestimating total GHG emissions from landfills. For instance, if we consider CH₄ emission
478 fluxes obtained during the monsoon season, the annual CH₄ emissions from GL, BL, and OL
479 would be estimated at 2.1, 1.7, and 0.7 Gg, respectively. In contrast, if we consider emission
480 fluxes obtained during the summer seasons, the results would be 9.3, 7.4, and 1.5 Gg for GL,
481 BL, and OL, respectively.

482 **4. Limitation and Future Scope**

483 The research provides valuable insights into emission patterns from three landfills in Delhi,
484 India, using static/flux chamber methods. However, the development of Emission Factors
485 (EFs) is constrained by the limited sample size collected across the seasons over three
486 consecutive years. Additionally, key factors influencing GHG emissions in landfills were not
487 fully addressed due to limited data availability and a lack of comprehensive insights into these
488 variables.

489 To strengthen these findings, future studies should address these gaps through extensive sample
490 collection in line with field monitoring guidelines. Capturing both temporal and spatial
491 variations in GHG emissions from landfills will provide a more comprehensive understanding
492 of their patterns. This approach will also help accurately identify and address the key factors
493 most significantly influencing GHG emissions. Foundational static/flux chamber methods
494 provide valuable understandings, but we still understand that the advancement methods
495 strengthen the study. Hence, this is one of the limitations of the present study, and in future
496 studies, more advanced methods will be used for the measurement of gas emissions.

497

498 **5. Conclusions**

499 With increasing population and urbanization, MSW management has become a pressing issue,
500 primarily addressed through landfill disposal, leading to GHG emissions. This study aimed to
501 provide reliable estimations of GHG emissions from landfills and understand the processes that

502 influence GHG emissions. Field sampling encompassed winter, summer, and monsoon
503 seasons, revealing significant seasonal variations in GHG emission fluxes. CH₄ emission
504 factors (EFs) were determined as 5.6±3.5, 4.4±1.9, and 4.2±1.4 g kg⁻¹ for GL, BL, and OL,
505 respectively. CO₂ EFs were 20±7, 23.3±9, and 16.3±4.7 g kg⁻¹ for GL, BL, and OL,
506 respectively, while N₂O EFs were 3.8±0.1, 2.5±0.2, and 3.1±0.3 mg kg⁻¹ for GL, BL, and OL,
507 respectively.

508 The comprehensive analysis of MSW in the studied landfills revealed key factors influencing
509 GHG emissions. Slightly acidic pH levels supported methanogenic activity during
510 fermentation. Temperature variations significantly impacted microbial activity, with higher
511 CH₄ and CO₂ emissions in summer due to optimal conditions for mesophilic and thermophilic
512 bacteria. While surface temperature and GHG emissions were not significantly correlated,
513 higher CH₄ fluxes were observed in summer and forenoon. Moisture content, crucial for
514 biodegradation, significantly correlated with CH₄ emissions in summer but not during the
515 monsoon. Volatile solids and organic carbon strongly correlate with CH₄ and CO₂ emissions,
516 indicating active degradation. The lower OC/VS ratio suggests active anaerobic activity
517 alongside aerobic processes. Nitrogen content, especially NH₄⁺, correlates with N₂O emissions
518 primarily through nitrification. The highest CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions occurred from
519 April to July, attributed to increased temperature conditions, optimum moisture concentration,
520 readily degradable organic carbon content, C: N ratio and volatile solids.

521 Overall, the findings underscore the importance of considering spatial and temporal variations
522 in GHG emissions from landfills to generate accurate estimations. The study highlighted the
523 necessity for further research to develop more reliable data, particularly in harnessing energy
524 from waste sources, which could address solid waste management and power crisis issues.
525 These insights shed light on the physicochemical composition of MSW in landfills,
526 emphasizing the roles of organic carbon, nitrogen, and volatile solids in GHG emissions and
527 the active degradation processes occurring within the landfills. **This research offers a
528 preliminary valuable understanding of emission patterns through the creation of EFs. However,
529 it's essential to acknowledge the limitations caused by the limited number of samples.
530 Therefore, the presented EFs should be considered as an incentive estimation. To enhance the
531 accuracy and usefulness of these factors, future research should focus on gathering more
532 extensive field data, considering both spatial and seasonal variations in emissions. This will**

533 lead to more reliable emission assessments and validate the findings of this study across various
534 conditions.

535 .

536 **Acknowledgement**

537 The Ministry of Environment, Forests & Climate Change of the Government of India gratefully
538 acknowledged the authors' support of the National Communication (NATCOM-India)
539 initiative.

540 **References**

541 [1] Hoornweg, D., & Bhada-Tata, P. (2012). What a waste: a global review of solid waste
542 management. World Bank.

543 [2] Wilson, D. C., et al. (2015). Global Waste Management Outlook. United Nations
544 Environment Programme.

545 [3] Ghosh, S. K. (2019). Health Impacts of Living Near Open Dump Sites: A Systematic
546 Review. *Journal of Environmental and Public Health*, 2019.

547 [4] C. Xian, C. Gong, F. Lu, H. Wu, and Z. Ouyang, "The evaluation of greenhouse gas
548 emissions from sewage treatment with urbanization: Understanding the opportunities and
549 challenges for climate change mitigation in China's low-carbon pilot city, Shenzhen," *Sci*
550 *Total Environ*, vol. 855, p. 158629, Jan. 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2022.158629.

551 [5] P. Rajput, S. Singh, T. B. Singh, and R. K. Mall, "The nexus between climate change and
552 public health: a global overview with perspectives for Indian cities," *Arab J Geosci*, vol.
553 16, no. 1, p. 15, Dec. 2022, doi: 10.1007/s12517-022-11099-x.

554 [6] S., Rani, "Initiatives on Climate Change Mitigation". In: *Climate, Land-Use Change and*
555 *Hydrology of the Beas River Basin, Western Himalayas. Advances in Asian Human-*
556 *Environmental Research*. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29525-6_6

557 [7] M. D. Meena *et al.*, "Municipal solid waste: Opportunities, challenges and management
558 policies in India: A review," *Waste Management Bulletin*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 4–18, Jun. 2023,
559 doi: 10.1016/j.wmb.2023.04.001.

560 [8] R. K. Fagodiya *et al.*, "Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Salt-Affected Soils: Mechanistic
561 Understanding of Interplay Factors and Reclamation Approaches," *Sustainability*, vol. 14,
562 no. 19, Art. no. 19, Jan. 2022, doi: 10.3390/su141911876.

563 [9] S. Mor and K. Ravindra, "Municipal solid waste landfills in lower- and middle-income
564 countries: Environmental impacts, challenges and sustainable management practices,"
565 *Process Safety and Environmental Protection*, vol. 174, pp. 510–530, Jun. 2023, doi:
566 10.1016/j.psep.2023.04.014.

- 567 [10] Singh, N., Agarwal, R., Awasthi, A., Gupta, P. K., & Mittal, S. K. (2010). Characterization
568 of atmospheric aerosols for organic tarry matter and combustible matter during crop
569 residue burning and non-crop residue burning months in Northwestern region of India.
570 *Atmospheric environment*, 44(10), 1292-1300, doi: /10.1016/j.atmosenv.2009.12.021
- 571 [11] Agarwal, R., Awasthi, A., Mital, S. K., Singh, N., & Gupta, P. K. (2014). Statistical model
572 to study the effect of agriculture crop residue burning on healthy subjects. *Mapan*, 29, 57-
573 65.
- 574 [12] G. Börjesson and B. H. Svensson, "Nitrous oxide emissions from landfill cover soils in
575 Sweden," *Tellus B: Chemical and Physical Meteorology*, vol. 49, no. 4, pp. 357–363, Jan.
576 1997, doi: 10.3402/tellusb.v49i4.15974.
- 577 [13] M. Chakraborty, C. Sharma, J. Pandey, N. Singh, and P. K. Gupta, "Methane emission
578 estimation from landfills in Delhi: A comparative assessment of different methodologies,"
579 *Atmospheric Environment*, vol. 45, no. 39, pp. 7135–7142, Dec. 2011, doi:
580 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2011.09.015.
- 581 [14] C. Ramprasad, H. C. Teja, V. Gowtham, and V. Vikas, "Quantification of landfill gas
582 emissions and energy production potential in Tirupati Municipal solid waste disposal site
583 by LandGEM mathematical model," *MethodsX*, vol. 9, p. 101869, Jan. 2022, doi:
584 10.1016/j.mex.2022.101869.
- 585 [15] P. Ghosh *et al.*, "Assessment of methane emissions and energy recovery potential from
586 the municipal solid waste landfills of Delhi, India," *Bioresour Technol*, vol. 272, pp. 611–
587 615, Jan. 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2018.10.069.
- 588 [16] D. V. Pheakdey, V. Noudeng, and T. D. Xuan, "Landfill Biogas Recovery and Its
589 Contribution to Greenhouse Gas Mitigation," *Energies*, vol. 16, no. 12, Art. no. 12, Jan.
590 2023, doi: 10.3390/en16124689.
- 591 [17] S. Chandra and R. Ganguly, "Assessment of landfill gases by LandGEM and energy
592 recovery potential from municipal solid waste of Kanpur city, India," *Heliyon*, vol. 9, no.
593 4, p. e15187, Apr. 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e15187.
- 594 [18] S. Kumar, A. N. Mondal, S. A. Gaikwad, S. Devotta, and R. N. Singh, "Qualitative
595 assessment of methane emission inventory from municipal solid waste disposal sites: a
596 case study," *Atmospheric Environment*, vol. 38, no. 29, pp. 4921–4929, Sep. 2004, doi:
597 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2004.05.052.
- 598 [19] Monojit Chakraborty, Chhemendra Sharma, Jitendra Pandey, Prabhat K. Gupta, 2013.
599 Assessment of Energy Generation Potentials of MSW in Delhi under Different Technological
600 Options. *Energy Conversion and Management* 75, 249–255
- 601 [20] A. K. Jha, C. Sharma, N. Singh, R. Ramesh, R. Purvaja, and P. K. Gupta, "Greenhouse
602 gas emissions from municipal solid waste management in Indian mega-cities: A case study

- 603 of Chennai landfill sites,” *Chemosphere*, vol. 71, no. 4, pp. 750–758, Mar. 2008, doi:
604 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2007.10.024.
- 605 [21] P. K. Gupta *et al.*, “Methane and nitrous oxide emission from bovine manure
606 management practices in India,” *Environmental Pollution*, vol. 146, no. 1, pp. 219–224,
607 Mar. 2007, doi: 10.1016/j.envpol.2006.04.039.
- 608 [22] T. H. Christensen, P. Kjeldsen, and B. Lindhardt, “Gas-generating processes in
609 landfills,” in *Landfilling of waste: Biogas*, T. H. Christensen, R. Cossu, and R. Stegmann,
610 Eds., London, GB: E & FN Spon, 1996, pp. 27–50.
- 611 [23] S. Yang *et al.*, “Biogas production of food waste with in-situ sulfide control under high
612 organic loading in two-stage anaerobic digestion process: Strategy and response of
613 microbial community,” *Bioresource Technology*, vol. 373, p. 128712, Apr. 2023, doi:
614 10.1016/j.biortech.2023.128712.
- 615 [24] T.-J. Jiang, Z. Guo, J.-H. Liu, and X.-J. Huang, “Gold electrode modified with ultrathin
616 SnO₂ nanosheets with high reactive exposed surface for electrochemical sensing of
617 As(III),” *Electrochimica Acta*, vol. 191, pp. 142–148, Feb. 2016, doi:
618 10.1016/j.electacta.2015.12.196.
- 619 [25] C. Li, “Quantifying greenhouse gas emissions from soils: Scientific basis and modeling
620 approach,” *Soil Science and Plant Nutrition*, vol. 53, no. 4, pp. 344–352, Aug. 2007, doi:
621 10.1111/j.1747-0765.2007.00133.x.
- 622 [26] G. De Gioannis, A. Muntoni, A. Poletini, and R. Pomi, “A review of dark fermentative
623 hydrogen production from biodegradable municipal waste fractions,” *Waste Management*,
624 vol. 33, no. 6, pp. 1345–1361, Jun. 2013, doi: 10.1016/j.wasman.2013.02.019.
- 625 [27] Whitman, W.B., Bowen, T.L., Boone, D.R. (2014). The Methanogenic Bacteria. In:
626 Rosenberg, E., DeLong, E.F., Lory, S., Stackebrandt, E., Thompson, F. (eds) The Prokaryotes.
627 Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-38954-2_407
- 628 [28] N. Mora-Naranjo, J. A. Meima, A. Haarstrick, and D. C. Hempel, “Modelling and
629 experimental investigation of environmental influences on the acetate and methane
630 formation in solid waste,” *Waste Management*, vol. 24, no. 8, pp. 763–773, Jan. 2004, doi:
631 10.1016/j.wasman.2004.04.006.
- 632 [29] J. Dach and Jager, “Prediction of gas and temperature with the disposal of pretreated
633 residential waste,” 1995. Accessed: Nov. 29, 2023. [Online]. Available:
634 [https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Prediction-of-gas-and-temperature-with-the-](https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Prediction-of-gas-and-temperature-with-the-disposal-Dach-Jager/0260274420c28d462bbec3b8715080e106f09af1)
635 [disposal-Dach-Jager/0260274420c28d462bbec3b8715080e106f09af1](https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Prediction-of-gas-and-temperature-with-the-disposal-Dach-Jager/0260274420c28d462bbec3b8715080e106f09af1)
- 636 [30] Ma. C. Hernández-Berriel, L. Márquez-Benavides, D. J. González-Pérez, and O.
637 Buenrostro-Delgado, “The effect of moisture regimes on the anaerobic degradation of
638 municipal solid waste from Metepec (México),” *Waste Management*, vol. 28, pp. S14–S20,
639 Jan. 2008, doi: 10.1016/j.wasman.2008.03.021.
- 640 [31] P. T. Williams, *Waste Treatment and Disposal*. John Wiley & Sons, 2005.

- 641 [32] K. R. Gurijala, P. Sa, and J. A. Robinson, "Statistical Modeling of Methane Production
642 from Landfill Samples," *Appl Environ Microbiol*, vol. 63, no. 10, pp. 3797–3803, Oct.
643 1997.
- 644 [33] A. Sendilvadivelu, B. Dhandapani, and S. Vijayasimhan, "A Short Review on
645 Feedstock Characteristics in Methane Production from Municipal Solid Waste,"
646 *Architecture, Civil Engineering, Environment*, vol. 15, no. 3, pp. 75–85, Sep. 2022, doi:
647 10.2478/acee-2022-0032.
- 648 [34] K. Sormunen, M. Ettala, and J. Rintala, "Detailed internal characterisation of two
649 Finnish landfills by waste sampling," *Waste Management*, vol. 28, no. 1, pp. 151–163, Jan.
650 2008, doi: 10.1016/j.wasman.2007.01.003.
- 651 [35] P. S. Bandgar, S. Jain, and N. L. Panwar, "A comprehensive review on optimization of
652 anaerobic digestion technologies for lignocellulosic biomass available in India," *Biomass
653 and Bioenergy*, vol. 161, p. 106479, Jun. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.biombioe.2022.106479.
- 654 [36] D. Teclé, J. Lee, and S. Hasan, "Quantitative analysis of physical and geotechnical
655 factors affecting methane emission in municipal solid waste landfill," *Environmental
656 Geology*, vol. 56, pp. 1135–1143, Jan. 2009, doi: 10.1007/s00254-008-1214-3.
- 657 [37] M. Peces, S. Astals, J. M., Álvarez, "Assessing total and volatile solids in municipal
658 solid waste samples", *Environmental Technology* 35(24):3041-3046, 2014, DOI:
659 10.1080/09593330.2014.929182
- 660 [38] S. Zhao, S.-J. Feng, C.-C. Wu, J. Zhang, and K.-P. Chen, "A review on new ammonium
661 oxidation alternatives for effective nitrogen removal from wastewater," *Journal of
662 Chemical Technology & Biotechnology*, vol. 97, no. 8, pp. 1917–1928, 2022, doi:
663 10.1002/jctb.7028.
- 664 [39] C. Zhang, Y. Guo, X. Wang, S. Chen, "Temporal and spatial variation of greenhouse gas
665 emissions from a limited-controlled landfill site", *Environment International*, Vol. 127, pp. 387-
666 394, 2019, ISSN 0160-4120, doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2019.03.052.
- 667 [40] M. Gollapalli, S.H. Kota, "Methane emissions from a landfill in north-east India:
668 Performance of various landfill gas emission models", *Environmental Pollution*, Vol. 234, pp.
669 174-180, 2018, ISSN 0269-7491, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2017.11.064.
- 670 [41] C. Visvanathan, D. Pokhrel, W. Cheimchaisri, J. P. A. Hettiaratchi, and J. S. Wu,
671 "Methanotrophic activities in tropical landfill cover soils: effects of temperature, moisture
672 content and methane concentration," *Waste Management and Research*, vol. 17, no. 4, pp.
673 313–323, 1999, doi: 10.1034/j.1399-3070.1999.00052.x.
- 674 [42] C. M. Lee, X. R. Lin, C. Y. Lan, S. C. L. Lo, and G. Y. S. Chan, "Evaluation of leachate
675 recirculation on nitrous oxide production in the Likang Landfill, China," *J Environ Qual*,
676 vol. 31, no. 5, pp. 1502–1508, 2002, doi: 10.2134/jeq2002.1502.
- 677 [43] P. R. Yaashikaa *et al.*, "A review on landfill system for municipal solid wastes: Insight
678 into leachate, gas emissions, environmental and economic analysis," *Chemosphere*, vol.
679 309, p. 136627, Dec. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2022.136627.

680 [44] A. Watzinger, T. G. Reichenauer, W. E. H. Blum, M. H. Gerzabek, and S. Zechmeister-
681 Boltenstern, "The Effect of Landfill Leachate Irrigation on Soil Gas Composition: Methane
682 Oxidation and Nitrous Oxide Formation," *Water Air Soil Pollut*, vol. 164, no. 1, pp. 295–
683 313, Jun. 2005, doi: 10.1007/s11270-005-3541-2.

684

685

686

687 **Table Captions:**

688

689 **Table 1.** Analysis of physico-chemical parameters of MSW

690 **Table 2.** Seasonal and average annual CH₄ emission flux (mg m⁻² h⁻¹ ± SD)

691 **Table 3.** Seasonal and annual CO₂ emission flux (mg m⁻² h⁻¹ ± SD)

692 **Table 4.** Annual variations in N₂O emission fluxes (2009-12)

693 **Table 5.** Emission estimations of CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O in years 2009-12

694 **Table 6.** Landfill specific GHG emission factors (EF) for GL, BL, and OL.

695

696

697 **Figure Captions:**

698 **Fig. 1.** Seasonal and annual variations of CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O emission during 2009-2012

699 **Fig. 2.** Impact of temperature on CH₄ emission in three landfills

700 **Fig. 3.** Temporal variations in CH₄ emission in landfills during the day time