



1 **Development and comprehensive analysis of spatially resolved technological high**
2 **resolution ($0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$) Emission Inventory of Particulate Matter for India: A step**
3 **Towards Air Quality Mitigation**

4 **Saroj Kumar Sahu¹, Poonam Mangaraj^{1,4}, Gufran Beig², Marianne T. Lund³, Bjørn**
5 **Hallvard Samset³, Pallavi Sahoo¹, Ashirbad Mishra¹**

6 ¹Environmental Science, Department of Botany, Utkal University, Bhubaneswar, India

7 ²National Institute of Advanced Studies, Indian Institute of Science-Campus, Bangalore,
8 India

9 ³CICERO Center for International Climate Research, Oslo, Norway

10 ⁴Research Institute for Humanities and Nature, Kyoto, Japan

11 Correspondence to: Saroj Kumar Sahu (saroj.bot@utkaluniversity.ac.in); Poonam Mangaraj
12 (poonammangaraj92@gmail.com), Gufran Beig (beig@nias.res.in)

13
14 **Abstract:** Elevated emission of particulate matter (both PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀) is not limited to urban
15 areas. It's the major pollutant that drives the air quality across the Indian sub-continent as well
16 as across the globe with adverse health impacts. Moreover, India is home to many polluted
17 cities in recent years that are among the list of most polluting cities in the globe. Therefore, the
18 identification of sources of particulate matter and their quantification along with spatial
19 variability has become of paramount importance from the modelling point of view. The present
20 work is an attempt to develop a high-resolution (~10km×~10km) national inventory of
21 particulate (both PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀) pollutants for India for the base year 2020 using IPCC
22 methodology. The study quantifies the emission load from all possible sources in the county
23 using the best possible resolution activity data and bottom-up approach. The estimated annual
24 emission for PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, are calculated to be 15.8 Tg/yr, and 8.3 Tg/yr respectively. The
25 developed emission dataset is publicly available on Zenodo at
26 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7885103> (Sahu et al., 2023). Transport-driven windblown road
27 dust remains the dominating source of PM₁₀ emission, while transport and industry are the most
28 important sources of PM_{2.5}. The unattended anthropogenic source - municipal solid waste
29 burning is found to be emerging as a new threat followed by crop residue burning. The
30 developed new surface dataset has formulated a few recommendations of possible mitigation
31 strategies for India and would be a critical tool for modelling studies.

32 **Keywords:** Emission Inventory, Anthropogenic, Particulate Matter, Air Quality, Mitigation



33 **1. Introduction:**

34 In recent decades, air pollution has been a global concern and is one of the leading
35 causes of mortality, where approx. ~4.2 million people die every year. Nearly ~2.8 million
36 deaths are associated with indoor air pollution globally contemplating it as a modern day curse
37 (Brunekreef et al. 2002; GBDS 2015, 2016). Air pollution is considered as the fifth leading
38 cause for mortality across the globe (HEI, 2019, 2020, 2022). Air quality remains a major
39 environmental health challenge in India. However, the rapid economic growth and inescapable
40 urbanization has stimulated air pollution to such an extent that it continues to pose a threat to
41 public health (Gorai et al., 2018; Beig et al., 2020; McDuffie et al., 2021). During the recent
42 years, urban air pollution has emerged as one of the biggest environmental issues in most of
43 the well-developed and developing countries (Molina and Molina, 2004; Sahu et al, 2011;
44 Venkataraman et al., 2018; Sahu et al, 2023). South Asian countries are currently regarded as
45 one of the major sources of anthropogenic pollutants (IPCC, 2021) where the most emerging
46 economy of South Asia i.e., India has a high urbanization rate of 31% with 416 million urban
47 populations by 2050 (UN, 2018). Due to its large population and rapidly expanding economy
48 in Southeast Asia (SEA), it is also major source of air pollutant and greenhouse gases (GHGs)
49 (Streets et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2009; Permadi et al., 2018). Amidst all hazardous pollutants,
50 both PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ have emerged as pollutant of concern due to their adverse impacts on
51 human health in developing countries. Particulate Matter (PM) is an important pollutant
52 responsible for deteriorating air quality in most of the Asian cities. Particulate matter is root
53 cause of the noxiousness of health (Mukherjee et al. 2017, Manojkumar et al., 2019; Klimont
54 et al., 2017). It can be emitted to the atmosphere as primary pollutants and result from
55 atmospheric aerosol formation where the tiny solid and liquid particles to persist as airborne.
56 The size of the particles is responsible for their potential to cause health problems. Smaller
57 particles less than 2.5µm in diameter are the greatest threat because they can travel deep down
58 into your lungs, and some may even accumulate in bloodstream. Air pollution is responsible
59 for ~1 million premature deaths per year (Conibear et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2018, Chen et al.,
60 2020). The World Health Organization (WHO) reports that 7 million people generally die a
61 premature death due to PM. Similarly, the International Agency for Research on Cancer
62 (IARC) states it is a malignant carcinogen (IARC 2013, Kim et al., 2019). Chronologically, a
63 couple of studies have focused the acute health effects associated with the short-term exposure
64 to airborne particulates (Brunekreef, et al., 2002; Weltman et al., 2021). Many studies across



65 the globe have constantly illustrated higher rates of respiratory malfunctioning and
66 cardiovascular diseases because of elevated air pollution where the role of PM_{2.5} is significant.

67

68 India is the second largest populated country in the world carrying around 1.4 billion
69 people where the air pollution has emerged as a big challenge (UNDP 2017; Venkataraman et
70 al., 2018; Sahu et al, 2021). Recently 37 cities from India are already in global list of most 100
71 polluting cities with the high load of PM (WHO, 2014). It is also seen that ~99.9% of the Indian
72 population is currently estimated to live in the areas where the WHO Air Quality Guideline of
73 10µg/m³ was surpassed (Venkataraman et al., 2018; Pant et al., 2018). The impact of regional
74 pollution on climate and the environment has become a focal point in atmospheric science
75 where Indian megacities pose a vital role to play.

76 The economic upswing of India in recent decades has eventuated a constant increase in trend
77 of air pollutant, which as a consequence, unfolds the up surging relative contribution of
78 emissions of India to that of Asia (Kurokawa and Ohara, 2019). Therefore, understanding the
79 source of anthropogenic emissions in a developing nation like India is an uphill task due to
80 diverse culture and uneven distribution of urbanization and development. As air pollutants are
81 emitted into the atmosphere because of variety of individual sources, it has large spatial and
82 temporal variability. Accurate quantification of these emissions is also challenging due to
83 complex process that includes various contributing sources, the intricacy of their technology
84 and the lack of authentic real time measurements within India (Venkataraman et al., 2018). So,
85 developing a reliable emission inventory (EI) with ultra-precision is of great significance for
86 building air pollution control measures and mitigation strategies. Robust emission estimates
87 are also a critically important factor for studies of regional atmospheric chemistry and climate
88 variability. Emission inventories provide a basic framework in order to understand the sources
89 of pollutants and for reinforcing the measures to control pollution (Moblely et al., 2005; Miller
90 e tal., 2006; Gargava et al., 2014). Earlier, couple of national studies have also made efforts to
91 compile inventories focused on few major pollutants over India (Gargava and Aggarwal, 1999;
92 Garg et al., 2002; Reddy and Venkataraman, 2002a,b; Dalvi et al., 2006; Mohan et al., 2007;
93 Sahu et al., 2008, CPCB, 2010; Behera et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2011; Gargava et al., 2014; Sahu
94 et al, 2014; Sahu et al, 2015a; Sahu et al, 2017; Beig et al., 2021; Sahu et al, 2021). The above
95 emissions inventories developed, are for older base years with very coarse resolution. In
96 contrast, the emissions are very dynamic in nature, changing with national/regional policy,
97 technology, and lifestyle. Moreover, many inventories are developed using top-down approach
98 where the uncertainty is believed to be very high. These emission datasets do not represent the



99 current nation's emission scenario and need to update with bottom-up approach using high-
100 resolution activity data. Apart from this, the resolution of emission inventory is crucial for air
101 quality, climate and regional atmospheric chemistry study (Bond et al. 2004; Ohara et al. 2007;
102 Sahu et al. 2008, 2011, 2014, 2015a, 2017). The finer the resolution the more detailed
103 information of sources is available for regional scale air quality and atmospheric chemistry
104 modelling. Aiming to address these issues, we here present a very high resolution gridded (~10
105 km \times ~10 km) inventory of tiny ($PM_{2.5}$) and coarse particle (PM_{10}) emission, developed using
106 bottom-up approach, for Indian sub-continent, from both anthropogenic and natural sources
107 and for the base year 2020. We have also formulated possible mitigation strategies based on
108 the present work.

109 **2. Materials & Methodology:**

110 ***2.1. Sources & Activity Data Used***

111 Particulate pollution significantly varies across the countries in all aspects of its
112 composition, distribution and sources. Hence, the assessment of the wide range of sources of
113 PM emission depends largely on determining the regional sources characteristics. In order to
114 suffice the objective of developing a realistic EI, activity data is of paramount importance. The
115 sources of PM in developing countries are far more comprehensive and diverse than those from
116 developed countries because of the quick metamorphosis between rural and urban economies.
117 According to review of literature, it was observed that the most contributors to PM include
118 basically transport based, industrial sources, cooking, thermal power, fugitive dust and
119 unprocessed biomass fuel like wood, dung and crop residue (Reddy and Venkataraman, 2002
120 a,b; Garg et al., 2002). Furthermore, large amounts of PM are also injected into the troposphere
121 through municipal solid waste burning, dust from construction activities followed by
122 suspension of dust from both paved and unpaved roads, where meteorological parameters like
123 wind speed and direction hold a substantial role in their genesis. Given the wide distribution of
124 sources of PM, a crucial step towards developing a detailed emission inventory is to identify
125 all attainable major/minor anthropogenic and natural sources which in one way or another is
126 responsible for both indoor and outdoor air pollution.

127 In this current process, a bottom-up based EFs based approach has been adopted as per
128 IPCC Tier-2/3 approach, which is used extensively. Gathering and later assembling of such
129 high-resolution comprehensive activity data is both an uphill and scrupulous task. Apart from
130 secondary sources, primary data from a couple of on-site active emission campaigns had been
131 carried out for several cities like Delhi(SAFAR-Delhi-2010, 2018),Mumbai (SAFAR-



132 Mumbai-2015), Ahmedabad (SAFAR-Ahmedabad-2017), Pune(SAFAR-Pune-2020), Sahu et
133 al., 2021a,b, Mangaraj et al., 2022a, b, which had allegedly been a support in framing similar
134 data set for entire Indian sub-continent.

135 The gridded $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} estimation is undertaken particularly with regard to
136 primary/secondary activity data collected for 16 major/minor sectors: transport, industry,
137 thermal power plants, waste burning, residue burning, construction, waste disposal and
138 treatment, brick kiln, street vendor, cow dung, diesel generator used in agricultural sector,
139 crematory, windblown road dust, cooking activity in slums and residents (household), cigarette
140 smoking, mosquito coils and incense sticks for worship. In term of high resolution spatial
141 information of activities, this inventory includes spatial data of about ~0.62 million village
142 boundaries /and associated population data, ~721 district data, ~1.1 million km of major/minor
143 road network across the country, ~19000 industries, 0.56 million sq km of forest area,
144 agriculture area, ~0.9 million point of interest (PoI), which includes large shopping malls,
145 major hotels, tourist places, railway stations and junctions, hospitals etc. for accurate spatial
146 allocation of emission. The detail of high-resolution proxy information is vital in improving
147 spatial allocation. In the same vein, secondary data is collected from various authentic
148 government sources like MoRTH (Ministry of Road Transport & Highway), DoES (Directorate
149 of Economics and Statistics), NPA (National Power Portal), CEA (Central Electricity
150 Authority), CPCB (Central Pollution Control Board), Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas,
151 Census of India, Ministry of Home Affairs, Ministry of Urban Employment and Poverty
152 Alleviation, ICAR (Indian Council of Agricultural Research), Ministry of Agriculture &
153 Farmers' Welfare, MoSPI (Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation), Ministry of
154 Housing and Urban Affairs. The details of sectorial (source-specific) activity data,
155 technological emission factor and methodology used for present emission estimation are
156 provided separately hereafter.

157 *a) Transport:*

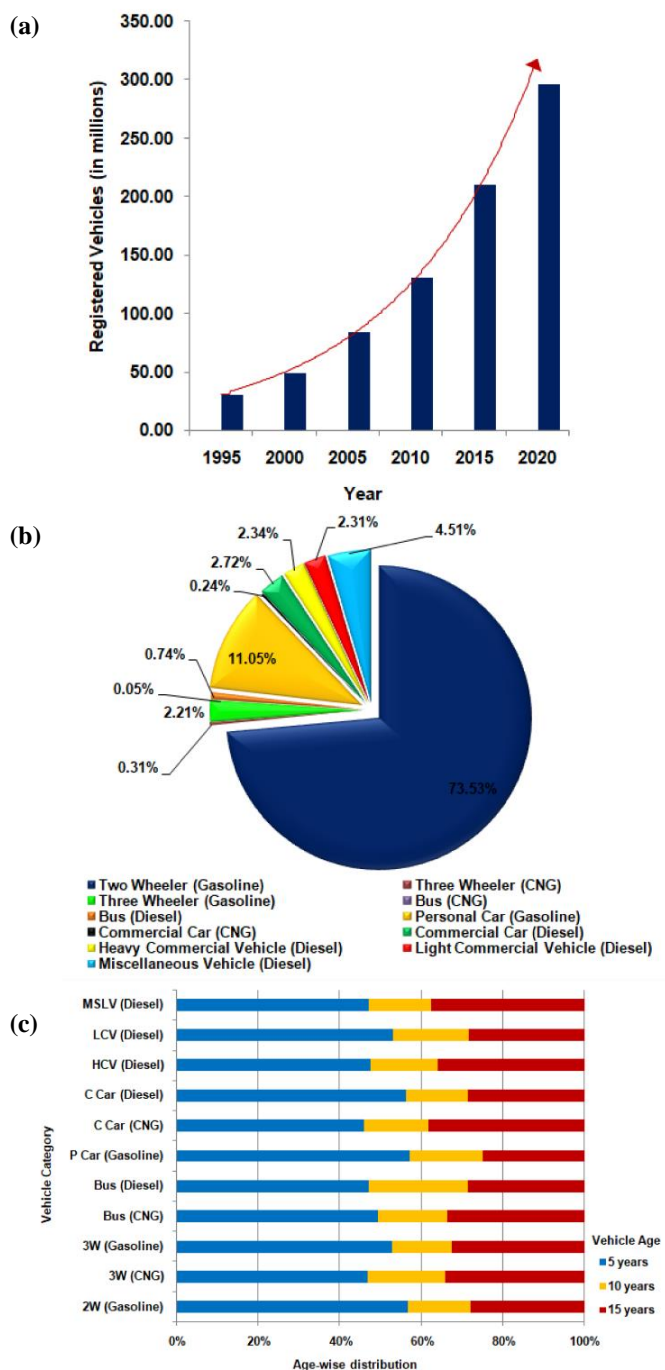
158 India covers a wide and large road network of approximately 5.89 million km consisting of
159 national highways, state highways, expressways, major and minor roads spread across the all-
160 geographic region. India has been witnessing a consistent increase in the number of vehicles in
161 recent years. Indian vehicle number has grown by more than five folds in the last two decades
162 (Fig.1a). At an approx. 295.8 million vehicles have been registered as of March 2020.
163 Assembling category-specific vehicle numbers across India with reference to the type of fuel
164 used along with several secondary data are obtained from MoRTH. The district-wise on-road



165 vehicle activity data were obtained from paid site of Socio-economic statistical data
166 (<https://www.indiastat.com/>) and Transport Departments of individual states.

167 The vehicle are broadly classified vehicles into 8 categories: - Two-wheeler (2W),
168 Three-wheeler (3W), Commercial Car (C Car), Personal Car (P Car), Light Commercial
169 Vehicle (LCV), Heavy Commercial Vehicle (HCV), Bus and Miscellaneous (MSLV), further
170 apportioned them based upon their fuel used. The relative contribution of each category to the
171 total number of vehicles plying on-road as of 2020 is illustrated in Fig.1(b). The Energy
172 Statistics of India, MoSPI states that the national level fuel consumption for road transport
173 sector tallies ~30 MT of petrol, ~89 MT of diesel and ~10.8 MT of CNG consumed annually.
174 According to Petroleum Planning & Analysis Cell, MoPNG India holds ~2207 CNG stations
175 as of March 2020 with highest no. of CNG stations in Gujarat (636), Delhi (419) and
176 Maharashtra (370).

177 On-road vehicle emission depends on various factors like vehicle type, vehicle emission
178 control, age of the vehicle, and Vehicle Kilometers Travelled (VKT). Category-specific VKT
179 per day per vehicle is an important parameter that determines the magnitude of traffic in a
180 particular region associated with the pollution load. Therefore, VKTs was observed keenly
181 from our recent studies SAFAR-Delhi-2010, 2018; SAFAR-Mumbai-2015, SAFAR-
182 Ahmedabad-2017, SAFAR-Pune-2020 and were analyzed before consummating VKTs for
183 national scale. Classifying the number of vehicles according to their age is sensitive and
184 modulate the emission significantly. A load of aging vehicles accounts for ~28.5% which
185 belongs to >15 years old category as shown in Fig.1(c). As reported by the Ministry of Road
186 Transport and Highways, vehicles older than 15 years will be prohibited with effect from 1st
187 April 2022 as they cause 10-12 times more pollution than present-day vehicles. However, in
188 the absence of an effective vehicle scrapping policy, these vehicles are still active in the
189 country.



190

191 **Fig.1. Growth of vehicles in India (1995-2020); Relative contribution of each vehicle**
 192 **category to the total number of vehicles; Age-wise distribution of vehicle category**



193 **b) Wind-blown road dust:**

194 Road dust has always remained a critical and dominating sector in emission inventories for the
195 Indian geographical region. Road dust resuspension due to the movement of the vehicle is a
196 very common phenomena and contributes predominantly to the PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} load in the
197 atmosphere. High silt loading along with rough and miserable road conditions with congested
198 shoulders are the prime reason for the resuspension of dust. Along with this, modulating factors
199 like on-road vehicle percentage, surface moisture content, surface silt load, average
200 precipitation days, mean vehicle speed, and average vehicle weight of the vehicle are
201 significantly essential for estimation. According to the MoRTH, the road network (Fig. 2e) of
202 India is densely distributed around 6.7 million kilometers (2020) as stated earlier and ~71% of
203 road runs through rural India, and the rest 29% runs through urban areas. Therefore, every
204 parameter involved was analyzed both in terms of rural and urban road conditions of India.

205 Amato et. al., (2017) reported that the silt load varies significantly from major busy
206 roads to the minor slower ones. It indicated that traffic intensity, fleet composition, and
207 paved/unpaved road conditions are directly proportional to road dust resuspension. The surface
208 silt content for rural areas was considered to be 36% because of the larger fraction of unpaved
209 roads. Similarly, the urban region holds a silt content of 30% due to a higher paved road ratio.
210 The resuspension of dust due to vehicle-induced activities is a complicated phenomenon that
211 is also affected by vehicular weight and speed (Gillies et. al, 2005). The HCV share is
212 substantially responsible for pulverization of coarser particles into finer dust, resulting in
213 elevated rate of resuspension emission. The weight of the vehicles differs widely depending
214 upon its model, engine, and load factor. In the present study the average weight of the vehicles
215 used in rural scenario for 2W, 3W, 4W, Bus, HCV, LCV, MSLV are 0.2, 0.03, 0.10, 0.05, 0.26,
216 0.17, 0.51 tons respectively. Similarly considering the urban scenario the average weight was
217 estimated to be 0.17, 0.02, 0.25, 0.12, 0.68, 0.15, 0.59 tons for the same vehicle categories
218 respectively. The comparison between average weight of vehicles for rural and urban regions
219 reflects an increase in the case of urban areas representing the possibilities of heavier road dust
220 resuspension. On the other hand, the number of precipitation days decides the surface moisture
221 content. The higher the moisture the lesser is the dust resuspension and vice-versa. District-
222 level annual precipitation days were adopted from the Indian Metrological Department's (IMD)
223 Rainfall Statistics of India, 2019, which ranged between 4-6% for urban and rural regions.

224

225 **c) Industry:**



226 Air pollutant emission from industries specifically eventuates due to combustion related
227 activities that involve burning of fossil fuel. Our study accounts for ~19000 industries of
228 different types over Indian subcontinent, specifically dominates over megalopolis regions.
229 They are mostly concentrated in the industrial zones of states like Maharashtra, Gujarat, Tamil
230 Nadu, Delhi, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Odisha. Major industries include iron and steel
231 industries (~764), cement (~235), engineering (~1684), textile (~1674), agro-processing
232 (~930), chemical (~910), and many micro-, small- and medium-scale industries. The
233 production capacity, fuel consumed, and technology used regarding industries was adopted
234 from government sources like Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas, MoSPI (Ministry of
235 Statistics and Programme Implementation) and Ministry of Micro, Small, and Medium
236 Enterprises (MSME) India. According to the Energy Statistics of India, the major dominating
237 fuel consumed by the industrial sector for coal, lignite, diesel, low sulphur heavy stock (LSHS)
238 and furnace oil (FO) accounts to be ~296 million tonne (MT), ~6MT, ~0.3 MT, ~0.04 MT, and
239 ~2.4MT respectively. The processing and energy/fuel consumed along with fuel specific
240 technological emission factors are involved in estimating the total industrial emission. The
241 spatial distribution of industries is illustrated in Fig.2 (f). Industrial emissions were spatially
242 distributed based on their locations over the country.

243 *d) Thermal Power Plant:*

244 Energy demand in India has been growing rapidly as remarkable progress has been made in
245 providing electricity to maximum parts of the country. Coal-based thermal power plant is the
246 largest source of electricity in India. According to the Ministry of Power, ~52% of India's
247 electric power generation is fulfilled by the coal-based plants, 26.1% by wind, solar & other
248 renewable energy-based power plants, 12% by hydroelectric-based power plants, whereas, the
249 lignite, gas, nuclear, and diesel-based power production techniques contribute to the remaining
250 9.9% of consumption. The Ministry of Power reported that the total installed capacity of coal-
251 based power plants over India is ~208624.2 MW as of 2020. The plan-wise growth of installed
252 capacity in the country stated that there has been a linear increase in total installed capacity of
253 India with 199877MW in 2012 and 370106 MW. The average electricity use is ~1208 kWh
254 per capita for the financial year 2020. This is also expected to expand much more rapidly in
255 the upcoming decades. The Growth of Electricity Sector in India, 2020 reported that ~5 lakh
256 villages of India were electrified. The annual reports of the National Power Portal and Ministry
257 of Power, have detailed information regarding the total number of operational units, technology



258 used and fuel usage. The spatial location of individual thermal power plants is illustrated in
259 Fig. 2(g).

260 The role of coal-fired thermal power plants is huge in terms of providing electricity and
261 coal combustion. Thermal power plants of India adopt several technologies with unlike
262 operating conditions. The power units are categorized broadly into three i.e., subcritical,
263 supercritical and ultra-supercritical. The supercritical plants consume less fuel and have
264 increased efficiency than the subcritical. Ultra-supercritical plants are the most advanced ones
265 with enhanced coal technology as they require less coal per MWh, bringing down emissions.
266 Generally, power plants maintain a coal stock record, which holds the actual coal consumption
267 in power plants and coal supplied during a particular period. The CEA states that the daily coal
268 requirement is based on the maximum coal required for actual consumption of the plant or the
269 coal required for an installed capacity of the plant at 55% plant load factor (PLF). India has
270 consumed ~611.4 MT of coal and ~36.3 MT of lignite by the thermal power plants to meet the
271 electric demand. The thermal power station with the highest installed capacity in Northern
272 India is Rihand Thermal Power Station with an installed capacity of 3000 MW. Similarly, to
273 the West is Vindhyachal Super Thermal Power Station with an installed capacity of 4760 MW,
274 Barh and Talcher Super Thermal Power Station in East India with 3300 MW of installed
275 capacity, and Ramagundam Super Thermal Power Station in the South with 2600 MW of
276 installed capacity.

277 e) ***Household and Slum:***

278 In a country like India, with diverse cultures and a multi-level society, the census always
279 stretches a snapshot of the demographic profile. India holds a population of ~1.38 billion
280 dispersed over 36 states and union territories, of which a large fraction (~65%) resides in is the
281 rural India. The remaining 35% dwells in the urban suburbs. Residential cooking has remained
282 one most responsible reason for morbidity and mortality rates due to indoor air pollution in
283 India (Global Burden of Disease Study, 2019). The residential sector involves cooking
284 activities, which include heating of water, use of traditional stoves (chulhas), and use of solid
285 fuels. The type of technology used for cooking in city and village populations varies by large.
286 India is also urbanizing rapidly as more people migrate from rural areas to the cities, which is
287 one of the reasons for mushrooming of slum clusters across five major megacities like Delhi,
288 Mumbai, Kolkata, Bangalore, and Chennai. The National Buildings Organization (NBO) under
289 The Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs, Government of India in 2015, reported that
290 ~17.4% of slum population belongs to the total urban population of State/UTs-India and



291 ~22.4% of slum population belongs to the total population of metro cities/towns. The
292 Handbook of Urban Statistics of India, 2019 reported that, according to the UN World
293 Urbanization Prospects, 2018, ~55.29% of the world's population resided in urban areas in
294 2018 when 34.03% of the urban population in India dwelled in slums. It also estimated an
295 average annual growth rate of the urban population of the world ~1.90% during 2015-
296 20. Considering this and the advancement of urbanization in India at present, it is estimated
297 that ~35% of India's urban population lives in slums. In slums, the level of air pollutants is
298 seemingly higher than in non-slum settlements due to their practice of unclean cooking fuel
299 and most of the impoverished slum localities stand in the vicinity of industrial zones as well as
300 city center.

301 The living standard of people in a slum is substandard without access to many
302 government's benefits like LPG connections, below poverty line (BPL) ration cards, etc.
303 Moreover, the poor waste disposal management, open burning of wastes and trash, the type of
304 fuel, and the quantity used restraints to assess the air quality in slums. The fuel consumption
305 pattern throughout the country portrays a picture where it is estimated that ~46.32 MT of wood
306 is used as the primary fuel for cooking activities. Enforcement of LPG schemes has become
307 prevalent since 2011, but only ~22.4 MT of LPG as major residential fuel. Additionally, the
308 use of cow-dung/upla for residential cooking in India is also of larger proportion. Unlike these,
309 the practice of using raw fuel like coal and kerosene is ~8.12 MT. The per capita fuel economy
310 with respect to type and quantity of fuel used for residential cooking is estimated after referring
311 and analyzing the fuel statistics of Household Amenity Census 2011, Venkataraman, 2018,
312 Energy Statistics 2020, and Council on Energy, Environment and Water, 2020. Despite the
313 implementation of the Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala Yojana scheme, 2012 (MoPNG, 2018) the use
314 of cleaner fuels (LPG) is comparatively less to the use of raw fuel like coal, wood, kerosene,
315 and cow-dung (upla). India's rural population, which is a massive proportion and the lower
316 income households, still uses fuelwood as primary as well as secondary cooking fuel along
317 with other solid fuels which lead to increase in pollution levels.

318 *f) Street Vendor:*

319 Street vending is a profession that has been in general practice in India in a much-unorganized
320 manner since time immemorial. Urbanization has also given rise to a booming number of street
321 vendors. Street trade has become one of the visible self-employment occupations across India
322 and is also likely to rise substantially. Similarly, street food has also become much popular as
323 it is readily available and is comparatively cheaper than big hotels and inns. Mobile food carts



324 have become a trend across cities throughout the world (Nahar, 2020). Lessons can be drawn
325 from megacities like Mumbai and Delhi, which hold at least 3-5 lakh street vendors, where
326 only a few of them are registered under Municipal Corporations and maximum vending zones
327 are unauthorized and unsystematic. According to the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO),
328 ~1.18 million households depend on street vending as their major source of income.
329 Considering the population growth and rise in the present urban population, according to the
330 Government of India's Street Vending (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street
331 Vending) Act there are ~10 million street vendors in India (Narang, 2020).

332 The SAFAR field campaign of the Ministry of Earth Sciences carried out across the
333 major cities Delhi, Mumbai, and Pune reported that the commercial cooking activities
334 predominantly involved the use of raw fuel (coal, fuelwood) and LPG as the primary source of
335 fuel (SAFAR-Delhi-2010, 2018; SAFAR-Mumbai-2015, SAFAR-Pune-2020). This had led to
336 the rise of an unattended source that has quite a large involvement in air pollution. Due to
337 population growth, it is expected to reach heights in upcoming decades as people have become
338 more dependable on readily available food at a lower price. The practice of charcoal grilling
339 could be regarded as a significant source of PM, CO, and ultrafine particles. Consumption of
340 coal is estimated to be around ~20-30 kg/day. Fuel wood is another prime fuel being used
341 widely due to its easy availability. They use commercial-grade LPG cylinders of 17.9 kg
342 capacity per month. Due to lack of proper statistical information regarding the commercial
343 cooking fuel type and its consumption pattern by the street vendors the SAFAR emission
344 inventory campaign reports were referred to and decoded for national scale.

345 **g) *Crop Residue Burning:***

346 The enormous amount of crop residue is generated every year, which are generally used as
347 animal feed, thatching for roofs in rural houses, fuel for domestic cooking etc. Despite that, a
348 large portion of the crop residue is still left unutilized in the fields, which are opted by farmers
349 for burning as it is one of the convenient methods to remove waste and later is believed to be
350 productive and nutritive for the crops. Here, eight different types of crops viz. wheat, rice,
351 sugarcane, maize, mustard, groundnut, coarse cereal and cotton are taken into consideration.
352 These crops grow profoundly throughout the country in different states. The coarse cereal here
353 includes pearl millet (bajra), sorghum (jowar) and barley.

354 The activity data for the crops like cultivated area, their production and yield are
355 obtained from government sources like ICAR (Indian Council of Agricultural Research),
356 Ministry of Agriculture & Farmers' Welfare, MoSPI (Ministry of Statistics and Programme



357 Implementation). The annual production of crop types considered for this study was estimated
358 to be ~700MT for the base year 2020, which includes major crops such as rice, wheat, maize,
359 mustard, groundnut, sugarcane, coarse cereals, and cotton. Period of sowing, harvesting and
360 post-harvesting across Indian states were compiled from ICAR and Ministry of Agriculture
361 & Farmers' Welfare. India produces nearly ~624.3 MT of crop residue annually with wide
362 regional variability. Approx. ~150.7MT of residue is being burned on field. The amount of
363 residue generated for a particular crop type is reported in Mangaraj et al. (2021). To improve
364 the spatial allocation and the trend of fire counts, the satellite-ground data of monthly active
365 fire counts of MODIS-C6 from the NASA-FIRMS were referred. The detailed information
366 about the activity data and modulating factors used for crop residue emission estimation as well
367 as its seasonal variation at very high resolution can be referred in our recent study Sahu et al.,
368 2021b.

369 ***h) Cow-dung (Biofuel):***

370 In India, animal manure is used in biogas plants. The cattle population in India is also quite
371 dominant worldwide which is why access to dung becomes frequent. Cows are generally kept
372 by households for their domestic purpose from which use of cow dung as fuel is one objective.
373 It also contains a significant amount of energy, which is why it is used as solid biofuel for
374 cooking purposes in domestic hearths or traditional open stoves (chulhas) without a proper
375 ventilation system, especially in rural India. Cow-dung cakes are made from the by-products
376 of animal husbandry (specifically cow), which are traditionally used as fuel in India. The
377 collected cow dung is moulded into circular shapes leaving a curvature to let it stick to the
378 walls for sun-drying. Later, they are stacked into piles and reserved for use as a replacement
379 for firewood. In common language is referred to as 'Upla'.

380 Around 896 million people reside in Indian villages where access to LPG connection is
381 still challenging and limited. According to a United Nations Industrial Development
382 Organization (UNIDO), over two-thirds of India's 1.3 billion people still rely on cow dung not
383 only as their primary but also as secondary fuel options for cooking activities due to its easy
384 availability and especially during winters for boiling water. Cow dung is associated with a high
385 level of indoor air pollution. The burning capacity of cow dung is dependent on its moisture
386 content and the amount of heat released during combustion. At least 30kg of cow dung is
387 consumed per month by a single household for their day-to-day cooking activities (SAFAR-
388 Delhi, 2018).

389 ***i) Diesel Generator:***



390 India's power sector has always struggled to provide extensive, uninterrupted, and reliable grid
391 supply, where diesel generator sets serve as a great alternative, as well as power back-up, in
392 prominent sectors like agriculture, construction, industry, plants, households, telecom,
393 hospitals, and other commercial applications. Uninterrupted power supply force people to rely
394 on diesel generators (DG). The diesel generator sets market in India has both organized and
395 unorganized manufacturers. The diesel gen-sets are used as a backup in commercial complexes
396 and residential societies. Nevertheless, the large fraction of total generator demands comes
397 from the agriculture sector due to poor grid power penetration. According to the International
398 Energy Agency (IEA), the estimated use of diesel gen-sets in agricultural irrigation accounts
399 for ~8.8 million units. The Department of Telecommunication (DoT), 2019 reported
400 unprecedented growth in the telecommunication sector that has triggered an exponential
401 increase in cellular towers. The fuel consumption pattern is as per reported in Sahu et al.,
402 (2015b). Diesel gen-sets ranging between the size of 2 kVA to 7000 kVA are used mostly in
403 the country with 75kVA especially being more widespread. Keeping the usage of diesel gen-
404 sets in various sectors, the demand for total fuel is estimated to be around ~11MT per year.

405 ***j) Municipal Solid Waste Burning:***

406 Waste is a growing environmental and social issue for all modern economies. The characteristic
407 of waste depends on lifestyle and topographical background, which vary from one country to
408 another. Wastes nowadays are exceeding the economic growth imposing its impacts on every
409 individual as well as the environment (Sahu et al, 2021). In the Indian scenario, major cities
410 like Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Bengaluru have huge dumping sites like Okhla, Deonar, Dhapa,
411 and Mavallipura with a daily inflow of more than a thousand tons of waste. Many studies
412 confirm the high concentration of these pollutants at burning sites. As per CPCB, the solid
413 waste generation rate lies between 0.2 and 0.3 Kg/capita/day in small towns/cities with
414 populations less than 0.2 million. State-specific MSW generated were also referred from
415 Annual Report of Implementation of Solid Waste Management Rules, 2019. For cities with a
416 population ranging 0.2–0.5 million, 0.5–1 million, and above 1 million it is usually 0.3-0.35
417 Kg/capita/day, 0.35-0.4 Kg/capita/day, and 0.4-0.6 Kg/capita/day respectively. We have
418 considered 115 cities based on population ranging from 0.5 million and above. The waste
419 generated per capita varies significantly from city to city as well as in rural areas. In India, the
420 officially reported annual municipal solid waste generated is 53 MT per year, but considering
421 the population dependent per capita MSW generation factor, the actual waste produced is much
422 higher. The total waste generated from these cities along with the other regions of India was



423 estimated to be ~194MT. Currently, in India according to the MSW Rules, major fraction i.e.,
424 43% of total municipal solid waste (MSW) is used for land-filled, another ~23% is treated and
425 the rest 34% is openly burned to prevent the dumping ground from overflowing with waste.
426 Most of the cities and towns in India do have a waste collection facility and landfill sites, to
427 inhibit the burning of the solid waste directly inside cities. On the other hand, there is no such
428 organized and efficient waste collection facility for the rural areas of India and therefore openly
429 burned arbitrarily. This scenario was quite visible from the estimations where ~74% of
430 municipal solid waste generated belonged to regions apart from cities with ~24% of total MSW
431 generated.

432 ***k) Municipal Solid Waste Treatment Plant:***

433 Waste-to-energy plants burn MSW, in order to produce steam that in turn generates electricity
434 through steam turbines. Incineration of wastes is an efficient way to get rid of waste problem
435 as well as to reduce the emission as compared to incomplete combustion at landfill site. At the
436 same time, incineration process reduces the demand for landfill space as well. The combustion
437 process results in the release of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases. As per the Central
438 Pollution Control Board, India has 10operational waste-to-energy plants in the states of Andhra
439 Pradesh (Vishakapatnam, Guntur), Chandigarh, Delhi (Ghazipur, Narela, Okhla), Goa
440 (Saligao), Madhya Pradesh (Jabalpur), Telangana (Jawaharnagar), Uttar Pradesh (Barabanki).
441 The total installed capacity of the operational plants accounts ~94 MW treating a total of ~7965
442 tonnes of municipal solid waste per day. Delhi is the leading state having three waste-to-energy
443 plants with a total installed capacity of 52MW, which incinerates around 5750 TPD of solid
444 waste. Andhra Pradesh the second highest state to have two waste-to-energy plants with a total
445 installed capacity of 30 MW treating ~1315 tonnes of solid waste per day. Installation of
446 another 16 waste-to-energy plants have already been proposed but are yet to be operational.

447 ***l) Construction activity:***

448 Construction activity is associated with the development and modernization of cities in India.
449 Construction sites are source of dust, which can travel far in air. Construction activities include
450 various operations like land clearing, operation of vehicular activities in demolition, debris
451 removal, site preparation, loading and unloading of raw materials, bulldozing, and working
452 with toxic materials. The guidelines on dust mitigation measures in handling construction
453 material, Construction & Demolition (C&D), do have abatement measures for waste generated
454 on- and off-site. The C&D waste management rules passed in 2016 stated that building
455 material, debris, and rubble resulting from any construction, remodelling, repair, or demolition



456 of any civil structure of a private or government property shall be regarded as C&D waste and
457 need to therefore abide by the rules. Yet cities have failed to execute proper management.
458 According to CPCB, 70% of the buildings that will stand by 2030 are yet to be completed. It
459 is difficult to determine the construction sites across the country due to a lack of reliable data
460 availability. Megacities Delhi and Mumbai have lately remained in headlines for their dust load
461 due to construction activities. As major cities are much involved in the building of well-
462 constructed roads, flyovers, roads, freeways, expressways, skyscrapers, building blocks, multi-
463 complexes, and new establishments, therefore, weightage was given to the major cities. In this
464 study, we have included activities demolition and debris removal – bulldozing, vehicle
465 movement on construction site (unpaved roads), and site preparation – bulldozing, scrapers
466 unloading and removing topsoil. The major source of particulate matter at construction sites
467 involves the movement of vehicles and heavy equipment, which readily combine with other
468 toxins in the atmosphere and increase the risk of inhalation of those particles. The use of heavy
469 commercial vehicles and multi-utility can lead to suspension of dust.

470 *m) Brick Kiln:*

471 The brick making industry is an unorganized small-scale industry that is scattered across India
472 (Lalchandani and Maithel 2013; Pandey et al. 2014; Rajarathnam et al. 2014). Apparently, the
473 traditional brick making industry is the backbone of urban development in India, which is also
474 second largest producer of bricks in the world. The brick kiln industries are flourishing due to
475 the increase in demand of bricks due to rapid economic growth and urbanization. But in due
476 course of time, this sector it has turned out to be one of the largest consumers of coal in the
477 country. Several technologies are being adopted by the brick kilns where the most widely use
478 technology is Fixed Chimney Bull's Trench Kiln (FCBTK). Other firing technologies that are
479 not much popular are semi-Zigzag, Hoffman, Vertical Shaft Brick Kiln (VSBK) and Down
480 Draught Kiln (DDK). Apparently, traditional kilns such as DDKs, and FCBTKs produce huge
481 amount of emission in contrast to VSBKs and Zig-zag kilns (Weyant, et al., 2014; Seay et al.,
482 2021). The practice of older inefficient technologies that has slow combustion (smoldering)
483 and limited control for emission is responsible for huge emissions from brick manufacturing
484 sector. According to the CPCB, only 20% of FCBTKs have shifted to Zigzag kilns and the
485 progress is slow. India produces ~280 billion brick annually (Rajarathnam et al. 2014), where
486 65% of total brick production is from the Indo-Gangetic plains. Punjab, Haryana, Outskirts of
487 Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and West Bengal are also brick producing regions. The brick kiln
488 sector consumes ~35 MT of coal annually (Seay et al, 2021 and Rajarathnam 2014). Many



489 kilns in rural and semi urban areas generally use cheap, low-quality fuels such as biomass (rice
490 husk, mustard husk/tudi and bagasse), wood/sawdust, old tyres, ashes, discarded engine
491 oil/kerosene, and plastic. Coal is widely used as fuel but in many cases fuel is mixture of coal
492 around 60% along with solid fuel like crop residue (25%) and rubber (15%). Studies by CPCB
493 suggested that switching to cleaner kiln types would contribute not only towards reducing the
494 CO and PM emissions by 60-70%.

495 *n) Incense stick/ Mosquito coil/ Cigarette:*

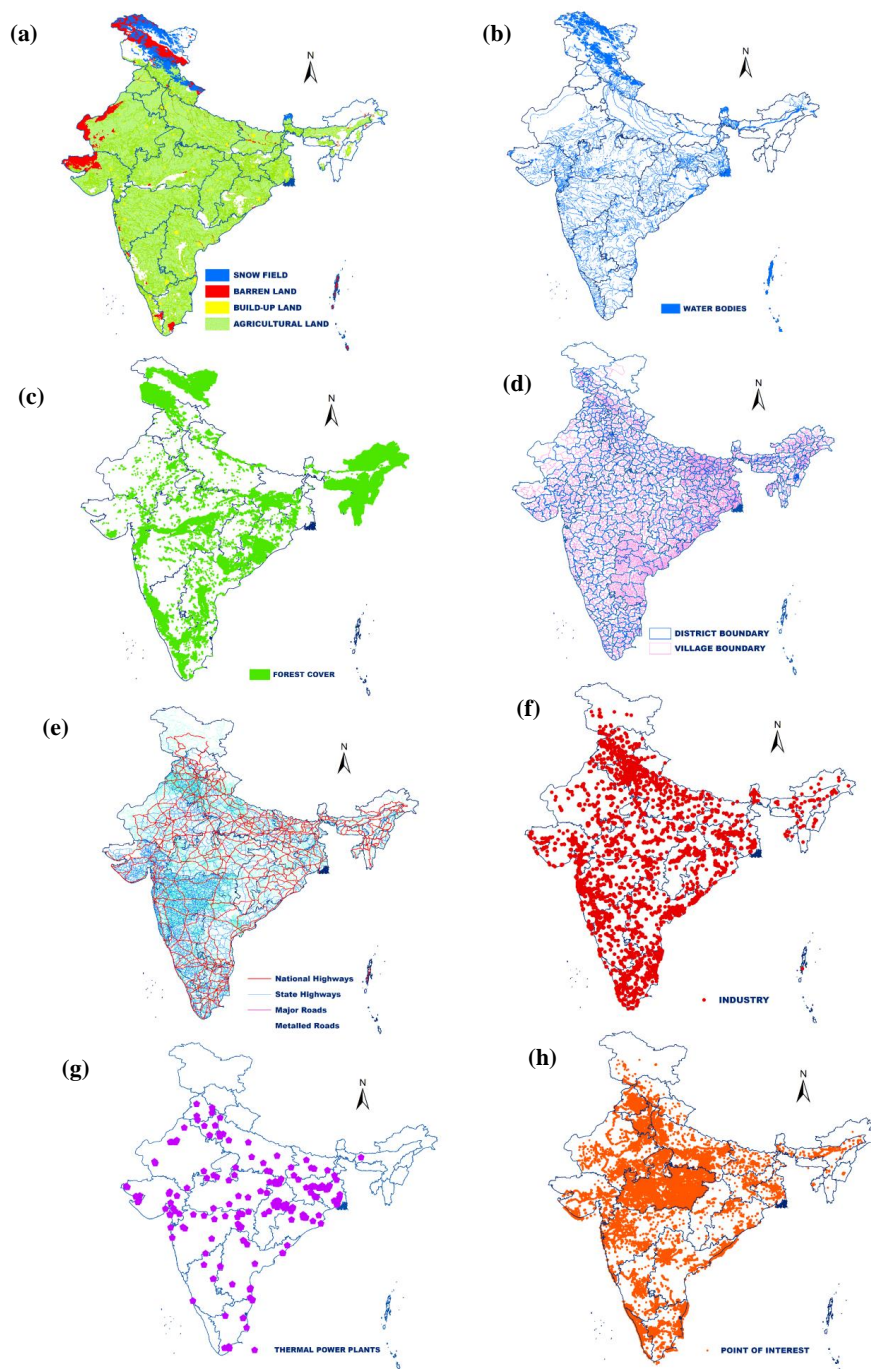
496 The burning of incense sticks is another source of indoor air pollution and is very country-
497 specific due to culture and lifestyle. Unlike cigarette smoking, it is widely being used in Indian
498 households as well as business communities. India celebrates different festivals throughout the
499 year where the incense sticks is being widely used. There are various types of incense,
500 including sticks, joss sticks, cones, coils, powders, rope, rocks/charcoal, and smudge bundles.
501 Weight of incense stick, composition, daily per capita usage by households and street vendors.
502 The average weight of incense sticks burnt varies from 20-100g depending on the type used.
503 They are composed of biomass ~45%, coal ~15%, resin (jigit) ~15%, bakhoo (wood chips)
504 ~25% per incense stick. Mosquito coils are also widely being used and source of indoor air
505 pollution. The average weight of mosquito coils is ~12-16g. The incomplete combustion of
506 coils (includes biomass (40%), wood dust (40%), and charcoal (20%)) leads to high emission.
507 There are approximately 120 million smokers in India and according to the WHO, more than
508 10 million die each year due to tobacco consumption in India. Around 12.95% of the adult
509 male population smoke cigarettes. The activity data considered in the present study is collected
510 from Cohen et al., (2013) and Kumar et al., (2014).

511 *o) Crematory:*

512 According to a government census reports, every year more than ~5 million people die every
513 year in India. The crude death rate for India has been reported to have a decline from 8.6 per
514 1000 people in 2000 to 7.3 per 1000 people in 2020. The cremation of a body is a religious
515 action performed for the final disposition of a corpse. Most of these are cremated as per
516 traditional ritual style in open area ground. This traditional Hindu funeral pyre system is an
517 ancient ritual that has been practised since ages in which cremated bodies are burned by using
518 firewood in an open ground. These result in deforestation and air pollution. A traditional pyre
519 takes six hours and burns ~450-550 kg of wood (SAFAR-Delhi, 2018), which accounts
520 ~3.82MT of wood used for crematory per year. Apart from electric crematory (10%), the
521 traditional method of cremating by using wood (90%) as fuel is still in practice in India. In this



522 work, district-wise emission from crematorium at both rural-urban levels is calculated based
523 on the district-wise religious population following traditional funeral pyre system. The data of
524 death rate by the Ministry of Home Affairs, Govt. of India, for each state was used for district
525 belonging to the respective state in alliance with the religion type.
526 The spatial location of major activity data is illustrated in Fig.2 (a-h)



527

528 **Fig.2: (a) Land cover (b) Water bodies (c) Forest cover (d) District and Village boundaries**

529 **(e) Road Transport Network (f) Industries (g) Thermal power plants (h) Point of interest**



530 **2.2. Emission Factors & Methodology:**

531 The emission factor (EF) is very sensitive parameter and has a vital role in modulating the
532 quality of inventory data preparation and associated uncertainty. EFs are highly dependent on
533 type of combustion technology used, type of fuel, chemical composition of fuel used and its
534 usage, and emission control. The emission factors used for different fuel types for the industrial,
535 thermal power plant, residential, and other commercial sectors are adapted from several
536 recently published work (Sahu et al., 2023, 2021a, 2021b, 2020; Mangaraj et al., 2022a, 2022b).
537 The appropriate scientific justification and judgement are discussed and elaborated. Further,
538 the methodology to estimate the emissions is similar to that adopted by us in Sahu et al., 2023a.

539

540 **2.3. GIS based spatial allocation of emission:**

541 Spatial disposition of the emissions is a complex process for modelling and analysis.
542 Geographic Information System (GIS) has the ability to overlay spatial location with the
543 gridded cell layout in order to facilitate the accurate source data by aggregating the control
544 points in each cell. The GIS-based statistical methodology is widely used in emission
545 inventory. Indian geographical region consists of 721 districts and geographically it is covered
546 by 30185 grid cells, each having $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ resolutions. As the value of emission in gridded
547 cells consists of several sectors that contribute to total emissions, they are organized
548 systematically in the form of thematic layers so that it could be analysed individually. The
549 transport sector over the Indian sub-continent involves a wide and large road network of
550 approximately 5.89 million km, which was used as proxy. The district-level boundary layer
551 accompanying the number of vehicles registered i.e., ~29crores and its corresponding emission
552 throughout the 721 districts of India was overlaid across the gridded layer. The emission later
553 superimposed on the road network was distributed based upon the national highways, state
554 highways, major, and minor roads networking the industrial zones. Similarly, a load of wind-
555 blown road dust over the paved and unpaved roads of India was accomplished. Industrial sector
556 is one of the vital and spatial locations of around large size 19000 industries in India was
557 adopted and extracted on each grid cell. The weightage according to the most polluting
558 industries was distributed to calculate the gridded emission. The spatial location of ~ 201
559 thermal power plants with their installed capacity fostered as a foundation for assigning
560 emission load over those specific grids. Districts (~721), sub-districts (~6080), village
561 boundaries with nearly 0.62 million villages in India, and population data, etc. are a critical
562 input for calculation of emission from sectors like residential, slum, street vendor, crematory,
563 municipal solid waste burning, incineration plants, incense sticks/mosquito coils/cigarettes,



564 diesel generator and cow-dung (biofuel). As these sectors are dependent on the above GIS
 565 factsheet as their primary baseline so along with the per capita utilization and fuel activity data,
 566 emission was distributed spatially over the grid cells which demonstrated emission load
 567 reference to the actual scenario. Aviation sector with their landing and take-off activity data
 568 was prepared by their real-time destination and source accountancies. In conjunction with the
 569 exact geo-referenced locations of airports over India, accordingly emission was assigned to
 570 those specific grids. Allocating spatial position of brick kilns all over India is in itself a
 571 herculean task as no robust pre-constituted data is readily available. Hence identifying the exact
 572 locations of brick kilns was done with the help of Google earth pro and later geo-referenced
 573 based on our GIS attribute data. In the case of crop residue burning, there is very little detail
 574 on the methods to extract burned areas for the emissions calculations. Accurate burned area
 575 estimates are notably difficult to extract in the cropland area. Hence information such as ground
 576 fuel loading, combustion efficiency, emission factors, and the satellite-ground data integration
 577 method by considering the NASA FIRMS monthly active fire counts of MODIS-C6 for the
 578 required base year (https://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/active_fire/#firms-shapefile) was
 579 adopted to calculate the seasonal gridded emission load on Indian sub-continent.

580 3. Result and Discussion:

581 In the present study, the total PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ are estimated to be ~8332.35 Gg/yr and
 582 ~15797.76 Gg/yr respectively. The sector-wise emissions are shown in Table 1. An open-
 583 access dataset has been provided at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7885103> (Sahu et al., 2023)
 584 for PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ emission from a broad spectrum of 17 major and unattended anthropogenic
 585 sources at high-resolution (0.1°×0.1°) for the Indian subcontinent.

586 **Table 1: Sector-wise PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ Emission in India for base year 2020**

Sl. no.	Major Sectors	Sub-Sectors	PM _{2.5} (Gg/yr)	PM ₁₀ (Gg/yr)
1	Windblown-Road Dust	-	471.90	4371.60
2	Transport	-	1586.30	1635.41
3	Industry	-	1190.89	1626.73
4	Thermal Power Plant	-	388.62	1489.71
5	Residential	Household	251.22	359.08
		Slum	529.15	675.46
		Street Vendor	521.45	919.15
		Crop Residue Burning	1023.48	1286.58
		Cow-Dung (Biofuel)	80.83	101.04
		Diesel Generators	272.90	341.12



		Total Residential	2679.01	3682.41
6	Other	Municipal Solid Waste Burning	782.29	842.46
		Municipal Solid Waste Treatment Plants	61.83	63.09
		Construction	352.04	880.11
		Brick Kiln	612.33	949.78
		Incense Sticks/Mosquito Coils/Cigarettes	160.35	197.99
		Crematory	46.78	58.47
		Total Other	2015.61	2991.90
		Grand Total Emission	8332.35	15797.76

587

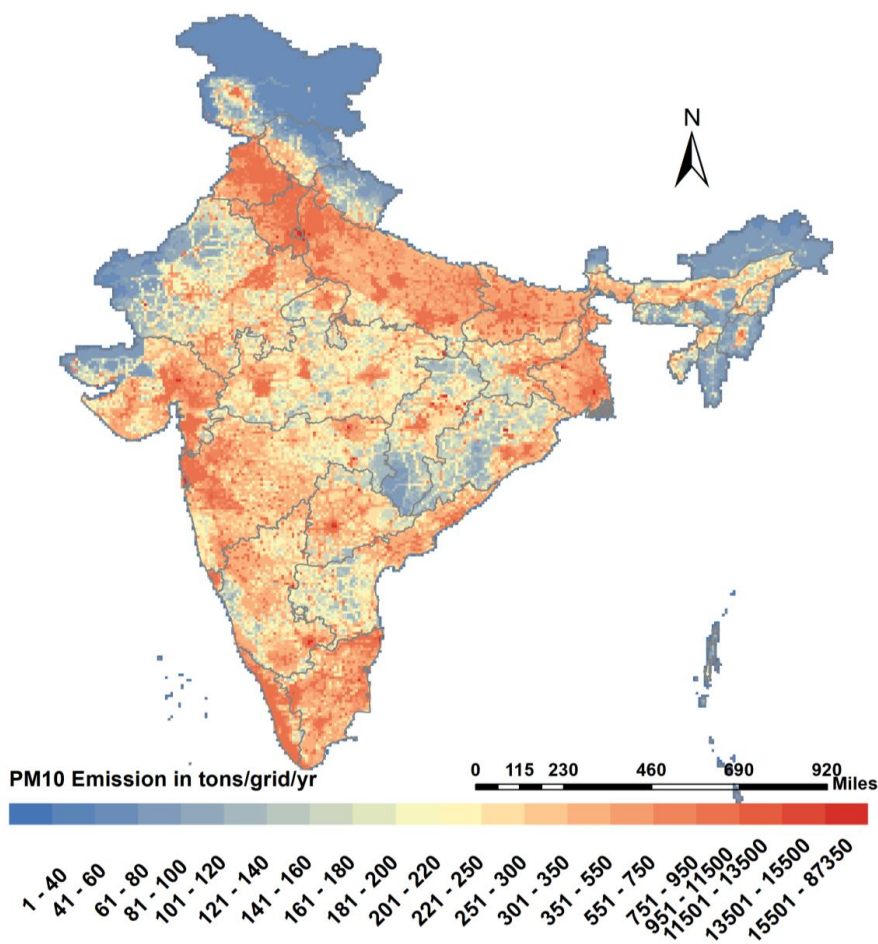
588 **3.1 Spatial distribution of emissions:**

589 The distribution of the total national PM₁₀ emission of 15.8 Tg/yr is illustrated in Fig.3.
 590 The spatial pattern of PM₁₀ emission shows clear regional distribution, with high values in the
 591 order of 11.5–86 Tg/yr/grid of PM₁₀ is found over the upper Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP) area as
 592 well as some parts of Western and Southern parts of India. The elevated emission in the above
 593 regions is due to high rural population density and associated traditional activities. It is also
 594 found that road network is quite dense in IGP region, Southern and Western India. In addition
 595 to this, establishment of industries in these areas push mass of people to migrate from
 596 surrounding regions, which are one of the elements in propelling such high emission.
 597 Considering all the 16 major/minor sectors, the spatial distribution is done by segregating them
 598 into six major sectors viz. transport, windblown road dust, industry, thermal power plants,
 599 residential and other sector as shown in Fig.4 (a-f). The spatial distribution of PM_{2.5} (8.3 Tg/yr)
 600 is substantially similar that of total PM₁₀ emission pattern. PM₁₀ being the most prevalent
 601 pollutant with regard to its adverse impacts on health and environment, emphasis has been
 602 given to spatial distribution of PM₁₀ emission here. The PM₁₀ emission for transport,
 603 windblown road dust, industry, thermal power plants, residential and other sector are estimated
 604 to be 1635.41 Gg/yr, 4371.60 Gg/yr, 1626.73 Gg/yr, 1489.71 Gg/yr, 3682.41 Gg/yr and
 605 2991.90 Gg/yr respectively. These 6 major sectors hold the emissions of other minor sectors
 606 under them as mentioned in the table earlier. Both Fig.3 and Fig.4 depicted clearly that the
 607 emission is quite high in upper IGP.

608 With respect to gridded spatial PM₁₀ emission, the elevated emission grid falls over the
 609 Delhi and surrounding regions which have dominating sectors windblown road dust with ~70.6
 610 Gg/grid/yr, transport with ~9.2 Gg/grid/yr, residential ~3.3 Gg/grid/yr followed by industrial
 611 and power plants. This could probably be due to the amalgamation of the high vehicular density
 612 in densely populated area, high usage of solid fuel like biofuel, coal, kerosene use in slum



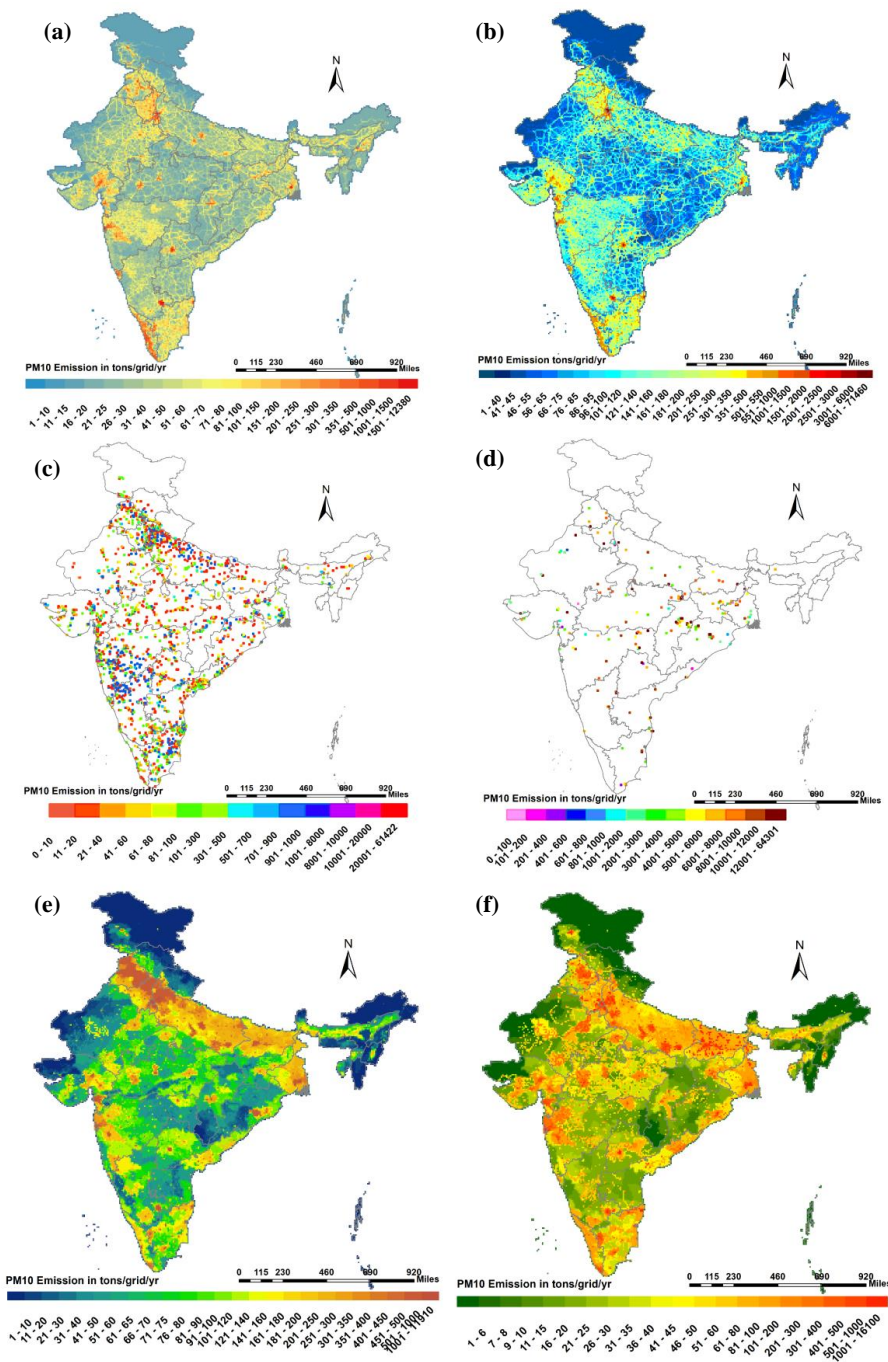
613 pockets, commercial cooking and street vendors in Delhi-NCR. The geographical location of
614 Delhi makes it an inland as it is surrounded by is bordered by Uttar Pradesh in east and Haryana
615 to the west, south and north, which is why this region stands as the most polluted hotspot. In
616 term of gridded analysis, just 10% of Indian geographic region (districts) contributes nearly
617 4.69 Tg of emission annually and the district-wise analysis of the emission from all the sectors
618 shows a significant change in number with respect to the sectorial variation. The windblown
619 road dust emission of 1.2 Tg/yr being the most dominating sector followed by the residential
620 0.9 Tg/yr and the industrial sector with 0.8 Tg/yr. The power and other sectors each with 0.6
621 Tg/yr leaves the transport sector (0.4 Tg/yr) to the bottom. Top 100 polluting districts
622 contributes nearly 40% of national total emission where these districts are more confined over
623 state like Delhi, Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Bihar, Chhattisgarh in the IGP
624 region; Gujarat, Rajasthan, Maharashtra towards the Western region Madhya Pradesh in the
625 central, Odisha, Jharkhand to the East and Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Telangana,
626 Karnataka in the South India. In the case of transport and windblown sectors, the most
627 dominating districts are Bangalore, Chennai, Ahmadabad, Kolkata, Thane, Surat, Pune and
628 Mumbai Suburban. The pattern shows that the megacities are the maximum contributors due
629 to the dense vehicular load over those regions. Similarly in case of power sector Singrauli,
630 Sonbhadra, Kachchh, Raigarh, Anugul, Korbastands out to be highly emitting and for industrial
631 sector Delhi, Bangalore, Pune, Ghaziabad, Belgaum, Rangareddy, Ahmadabad and Hyderabad
632 were recorded as most dominating districts. Along with this higher growth in population and
633 urbanization are key reasons for the elevated emissions.



634

635

Fig. 3: Spatial map of gridded PM₁₀ Emission in India



636

637 **Fig.4: Sector-wise PM₁₀ Emission: - (a) Transport (b) Windblown road dust (c) Industry**

638

(d) Thermal power plant (e) Residential (f) Other

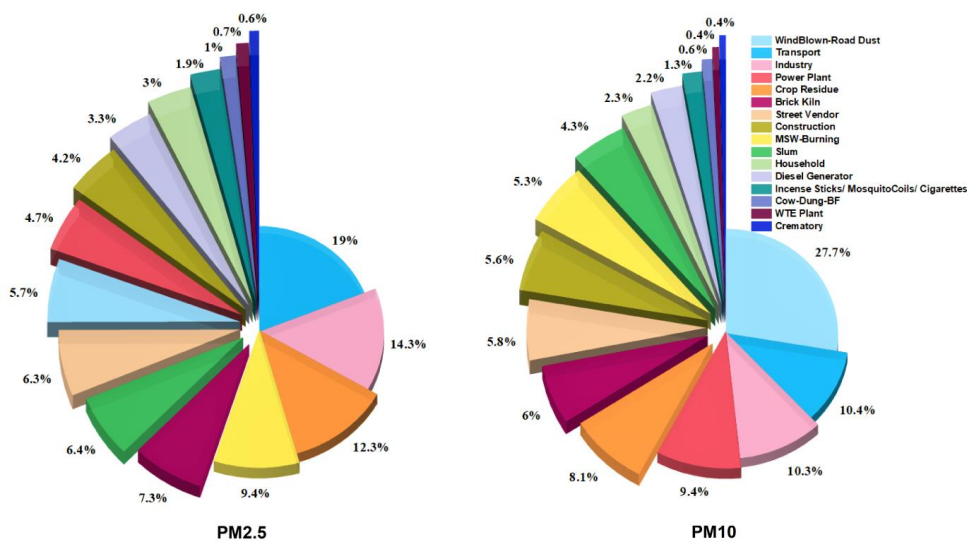


639

640 **3.2 Relative contribution of different sectors:**

641 We find that PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ emission is a pan-India problem with a regional character.
 642 The relative contribution of each individual sector to total PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ emission is shown
 643 in the Fig.5. With respect to PM₁₀ emission, the leading contributors involve windblown road
 644 dust with ~27.40%; residential as a whole ~23.08% which embodies several minor sectors like
 645 that of slum, household, street vendor, residue burning, cow-dung, and diesel set; followed by
 646 others with ~19.74% that incorporates minor sectors of municipal solid waste burning,
 647 municipal solid waste treatment plants, construction, brick kilns, incense sticks/mosquito
 648 coil/cigarette, and crematory; followed by transport ~10.25%; industry ~10.20% and thermal
 649 power plant with ~9.34%.

650



651

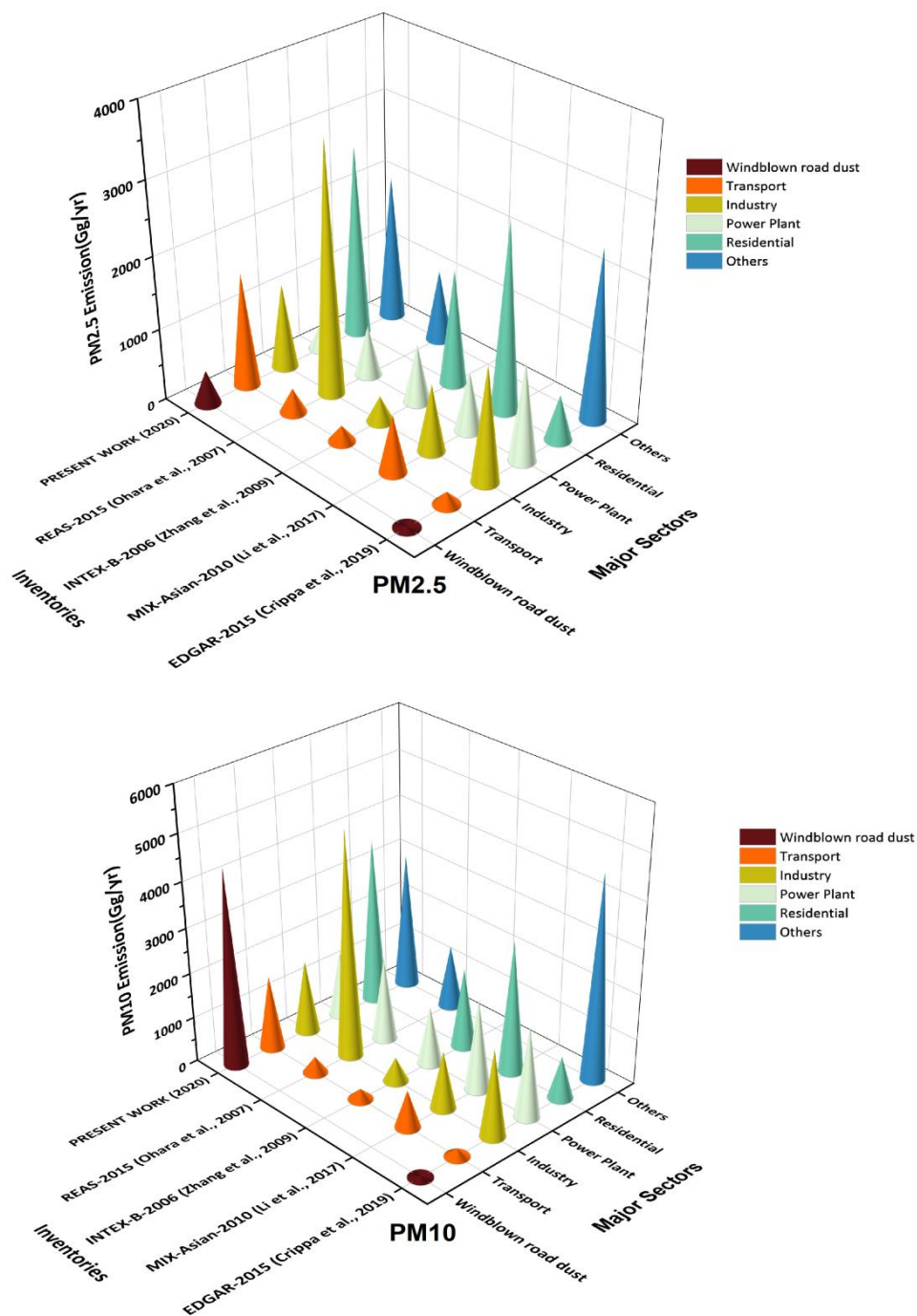
652 **Fig.5: Relative contribution of different sectors to Total PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ Emission in India**

653 **3.3 Inter-comparison with global inventory:**

654 In this study, an inter-comparison of present new emission inventories of PM₁₀ and
 655 PM_{2.5} has been done with existing emissions inventories of EDGAR-2015 (Crippa et al., 2019),
 656 MIX Asia-2010 (Li et al., 2017), INTEX-B-2006 (Zhang et al., 2009), and REAS-2015 (Ohara
 657 et al., 2007) (Fig. 6). This study provides estimates at provincial and/or national levels to assess
 658 the emissions at the source sector level. In present work, the major PM₁₀ share is being held by
 659 windblown sector i.e., 4371.6 Gg/yr. There is large disparity, by a factor of 9, in transport



660 emission between present and EDGAR emission. EDGAR estimation for the similar sector
661 shows a value of 178.68 Gg/yr and does not show a good agreement. The residential (domestic)
662 sector in the present work has the second largest PM₁₀ emission i.e., 3682.41 Gg/yr. The sector
663 justifies the significant number as it incorporates the sub sectors like slum, street vendors,
664 diesel generators, crematorium, and incense sticks etc. The practice of use of raw coal, dung,
665 wood as fuels for cooking and household activities significantly increases the indoor PM
666 emission. Sub-sectoral variation is one of the keys for the residential sector across the
667 inventories. The REAS-2015database does not have a defined estimate for the residential sector
668 and there is a huge disparity between the recorded EDGAR-2015database and present emission
669 estimations. Similarly, for the industry sector the REAS inventory shows an absolute high
670 number (5010.4 Gg/yr), which is almost three times of the current work. The emission from
671 road transport sector in the present work is estimated to be 1635.41 Gg/yr, which has a
672 significant deviation from the previous inventories in the order of 9 and 4 from EDGAR and
673 REAS respectively. This deviation is due to inclusion of detailed information like category-
674 wise age of vehicle and corresponding technological dynamic fuel-based emission factors for
675 the most recent base year. Similarly, a huge discrepancy is also seen when compared to other
676 global inventories of INTEX-B-2006 and MIX-Asia-2010 too. Moreover, this difference is
677 absolutely due to the difference in base years and adopted emission factors. This work has
678 taken account of all such country specific key factors appropriately to develop surface
679 chemistry, and is therefore believed to be the most comprehensive, reliable, and updated one
680 that can represent the real-time scenario perfectly.



681

682

Fig. 6: Comparison with global inventories



683 **3.4 Uncertainty analysis:**

684 Uncertainty assessment is sensitive piece of work and key to control measures. It
685 analyses the uncertainty in input data such as activity data and emission factors, which are used
686 to compile an inventory. An inventory do consider several assumptions due to missing data.
687 The measured values may have several errors and the emission factors adopted might not be
688 truly representative. Here, Monte Carlo analysis is adopted where the aim is fulfilled by
689 incorporating the critical factors like activity data uncertainty and emission factor uncertainty.
690 Firstly, the error propagation with respect to activity data and emission factor is calculated
691 followed by combined uncertainty evaluated by considering the uncertainty percentage of both
692 the emission factor as well as activity data for all the sectors. Then contribution to variance
693 was determined from the combined uncertainty and summation of emission. As a result of
694 which the total average percentage of uncertainty in the present study is estimated to be ± 85.7
695 %. Other recent studies have reported uncertainty percentage ranges between $\pm 120\%$ to $\pm 128\%$
696 (Saikawa et al 2017, Kurokawa and Ohara 2019), i.e., markedly higher than in present work.
697

698 **4. Data Availability:**

699 The surface emission dataset can be accessed through the open-access data repository at
700 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7885103> (Sahu et al., 2023).

701 **5. Conclusion:**

702 This works presents a comprehensive and highly detailed inventory of $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10}
703 emissions in India in 2020. Elevated emission of $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} is a common problem across
704 India, with a regionally distinct characteristic, and is not limited to urban areas or megacities.
705 In present inventory, windblown road dust with ~ 4371.6 Gg/yr is the dominating source of
706 PM_{10} emissions, while transport and industry are the most important sources of $PM_{2.5}$. The
707 vehicle-induced dust is a very complex process involving several parameters as discussed in
708 the study where state of pavement, silt content on the road, vehicular weightage and vehicle
709 speed are the major modulating factors throughout the country. The residential is emerged as
710 the second largest sector influencing outdoor air. This residential sector with ~ 3682.41 Gg/yr
711 incorporates agricultural residue burning (~ 1286.58 Gg/yr), street vendor (~ 919.15 Gg/yr) and
712 slum (~ 675.46 Gg/yr) which are the important sources, making residential sector hit the second
713 place. The road transport sector remains the third dominating sector with ~ 1635.41 Gg/yr of
714 PM_{10} emission. The increase in vehicle fleet volume due to demand of personal vehicles and



715 the flow of the aging vehicles are the major reasons for elevated road transport emissions. The
716 spatial resolution of this study makes it suitable as input atmospheric and climate models of
717 different resolution for studies of aerosol-induced climate and environmental effects. It is a
718 promising and comprehensive piece of work developed at national scale. In addition to this,
719 the developed dataset could be useful for air quality mitigation and control strategies across
720 nation. Here we formulate a few recommendations for possible mitigation strategies: -

- 721 a) Discard of super-emitters (more than 15 yrs old vehicles) across the country and more
722 than 10 yrs in all megacities. A shifting to cleaner fuel along with advanced technology
723 with respect to vehicle type especially heavy commercial vehicles and commercial
724 vehicles could be an effective abatement to transport emissions.
- 725 b) The vehicles of the surrounding districts or suburbs must also follow similar rules to
726 control the emission load in and around the megacity.
- 727 c) Flexible working hours along with work from home culture has to be adopted in order
728 to avoid traffic congestion in cities will reduce the tailpipe emission significantly.
- 729 d) Both the paved and unpaved roads must be well-maintained and regularly checked out
730 for broken shoulders. Road shoulders if planted with grass beds to prevent scrapping of
731 the silt load and its resuspension in the form of dust.
- 732 e) The usage of improvised public transport system must be promoted as the 2W, and
733 commercial cars are the largest contributor to road dust resuspension.
- 734 f) Advanced technology based cleaner control devices must be used in the industrial
735 smoke stacks. The control must be monitored and checked for efficiency in every year
736 interval towards its maintenance.
- 737 g) Access to cleaner household energy for cooking activities, heating and lighting
738 purposes should be made cost-friendly for its maximum usage and fuel adulteration
739 must be monitored.
- 740 h) Improving the energy efficiency of residential buildings or apartments and encouraging
741 making cities go green and compact would be resourceful.
- 742 i) Use of low-emission fuels or preferably renewable energy combustion free power
743 sources such as solar, wind or hydro (co-generation of heat and power) would be
744 helpful.
- 745 j) Utilization of crop waste could be used as an alternative to replacing incomplete
746 combustion based on open burning in agricultural lands and demand for coal may
747 reduce could possibly reduce the emission load.



748 k) Recycling and reuse or re-processing of the waste materials into useful products as well
749 as improving or encouraging the biological waste treatment methods. Allowing cost
750 effective alternatives to the open burning/incineration of waste with strict emission
751 controls are vital.

752 **Author contributions:**

753 Saroj Kumar Sahu (SKS) conceived the present idea and analyzed the data and Poonam
754 Mangaraj (PM) wrote the whole paper. Gufran Beig (GB) provided useful discussion.
755 Marianne T. Lund (MTL) and Bjørn Hallvard Samset (BHS) both helped in analyzing the data
756 and suggested a conclusion. Pallavi Sahoo (PS) analyzed the data, Ashirbad Mishra (AM)
757 helped in plotting the scientific data.

758 **Competing interests:**

759 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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