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# A Review of Air Pollution from Transport Sector in China

Dr. Sarath Guttikunda New Delhi, India February 2009

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Rapid industrialization, the reliance on coal and the burning of fossil fuels and a growing population have made China the world's largest producer of greenhouse gases, surpassing the United States in 2007. Air pollution in the urban centers of China has received significant attention over the last year, primarily due the 2008 Olympic Games. A number of interventions were implemented over a wide range of sectors (domestic, industrial and transport), to achieve the target reductions in air pollution and improve the number of clean air (blue skies) days in Beijing and the other participating cities in China<sup>1 2</sup>.

The links between air pollution and health, the impacts of increasing exposure to higher ambient levels in the residential areas and along the transport corridors is well studied and documented<sup>3</sup>. In China, the cost of the impacts air pollution is estimated at 520 billion yuan,  $\sim$ 3.2 percent of the total GDP in 2003, using the willingness to pay methodology<sup>4</sup>.

In general, the stationary sources have been the main contributor to the air pollution in China; the transport sector has been the growing among all modes – personal, public, and freight. In the urban centers, the share of personal transport has increased, resulting in not only an increase in the ambient air quality, but also created serious traffic management nightmares with congestion along the major corridors<sup>5</sup>. In 2009, according to the Beijing Traffic Management Bureau, the city registered nearly 1,500 motor vehicles per day, compared to 1,350 per day in 2008, leading to serious traffic pressures and safety risks<sup>6</sup>.

During the two months (before and during the Olympic Games 2008), when traffic restrictions were in place, the levels of nitrogen dioxide -- a gas resulting from fossil fuel combustion (primarily in cars, trucks, and power plants) -- plunged nearly 50 percent. Likewise, levels of carbon monoxide fell about 20 percent. This was evident from the satellite images during this period. The level of impact of the traffic restrictions is yet to be quantified, as it was only one of the measures that lead to blue skies during the Games. However, it is important to note that, after the authorities lifted the traffic restrictions, the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> UN news center, "Beijing Olympics raises bar on eco-friendly sporting events", on February 18<sup>th</sup>, 2009 http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=29935&Cr=sport&Cr1=environment

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> UNEP's independent environmental assessment of Beijing Olympics Games 2008, http://www.unep.org/sport\_env/Activities/BeijingReport08/

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Health Effects of Outdoor Air Pollution in Developing Countries of Asia: A Literature Review (2004) @ <u>http://pubs.healtheffects.org/view.php?id=3</u>; Mobile-Source Air Toxics: A Critical Review of the Literature on Exposure and Health Effects (2007) @ <u>http://pubs.healtheffects.org/view.php?id=282</u>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Details of the methodology, underlying uncertainties, and the results are documents in the World Bank report, "Cost of Pollution in China". <u>http://go.worldbank.org/FFCJVBTP40</u>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> A study (October, 2008) from Tianjin, China, concluded that the passenger cars, taxis, buses, trucks, and motorcycles account for 61%, 17%, 7%, 9%, and 5% of total vehicles on the road respectively. And of the total 38 million kilometers per day passenger cars, taxis, buses, and trucks, account for 64%, 18%, 11% and 8% respectively, demonstrating the growing demand for personal transport and the increasing strain on the transport infrastructure. http://belfercenter.ksg.harvard.edu/publication/18645/inuse\_vehicle\_emissions\_in\_china\_tianjin\_study.html

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Grist, "Imperial Traffic Jam", February 17<sup>th</sup>, 2009, <u>http://www.grist.org/news/2009/02/17/beijingcars/index.html</u>

levels of these pollutants (nitrogen oxides and carbon monoxide) shot right back up<sup>7</sup>. Officials recently decided to reinstitute a less stringent version of the Olympic driving restrictions, requiring most cars to stay off the road at least one day each week.



Levels of nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) plunged nearly 50 percent in and around Beijing in August 2008 after officials instituted strict traffic restrictions in preparation for the Olympic Games

Source: Science Daily @ http://www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2008/12/081216131016.htm

Ozone, which is a large component of the smog found in cities like Los Angeles, London, Delhi, and Beijing, results from the interaction of sunlight and chemicals (nitrogen oxides and hydrocarbons) found in motor vehicle exhaust. Though this is not routinely measured as a criteria pollutant, it is a known contributor to visibility problem in the morning, adversely affects breathing patterns and causes eye irritations.

The particulates, a primary indicator of human health impacts, have a wide range of sources from direct fossil fuel combustion (coal, gasoline, and diesel) to indirect fugitive sources (wind erosion, dust storms, and resuspension on roads). Traditionally, coal has been (and is a) major source of the particulate pollution from industries and power plants, and the growing vehicular activity is contributing significantly.

This review note aims at understanding the role of transport in air pollution in China and the urban centers; and to better understand, quantitatively and qualitatively, the relative contribution of the transport sector in the urban centers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Science Daily, "Olympic Pollution Controls In Beijing, China, Had Big Impact On Air Pollution Levels", December 19<sup>th</sup>, 2008, @ <u>http://www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2008/12/081216131016.htm</u>

## A Brief Note on Air Pollution

The Ministry of Environmental Protection of China, publishing the "**Air Quality Index**" (AQI) for all the major urban centers<sup>8</sup>. The AQI is an "index" determined by calculating the degree of pollution in the city or at the monitoring point and includes five main pollutants - particulate matter (PM), ground-level ozone, sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), carbon monoxide (CO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>x</sub>). Each of these pollutants have an air quality standard which is used to calculate the overall AQI for the city. Simultaneously, one can also establish the limiting pollutant(s), resulting in the estimated AQI<sup>9</sup>.



Source: Room with a View, Photo Diary of Air Pollution in Beijing, China (a) http://www.asiasociety.org/beijingair/#room-with-a-view

Among the five main pollutants, the particulates (PM) are considered the most critical and the fine particulates with aerodynamic diameter 2.5 microns or less is the limiting factor. The PM pollution is a mix of primary and secondary sources. By definition, primary pollution, is a direct emission source, e.g., in the form of soot from the coal and diesel burning. The secondary pollution is due to chemical transformation of the primary emissions. The secondary PM includes sulfates from sulfur dioxide emissions, nitrates from nitrogen oxide emissions, and organic aerosols from hydrocarbon emissions<sup>10</sup>. Most of the sulfates, nitrates, and secondary organic aerosols form part of the fine particulates.

It is important to note that the health impacts of urban air pollution are not entirely dependent on the particulate pollution. The health impacts observed or estimated are also

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Air Quality Index for Urban Centers in China @ <u>http://english.mep.gov.cn/</u>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> In numbers, AQI is represented between 0 to 500 with 0 representing good air and 500 representing hazardous air. For better understanding and presentation, the AQI is broken down into six categories, each color coded with the number scale. **Good** (green) is for 0 to 50 meaning satisfactory air quality; **Moderate** (yellow) is 51 to 100 meaning acceptable air quality; **Unhealthy** for Sensitive Groups (tan) is 101 to 150 meaning sensitive individuals with sensitive skin may be affected; **Unhealthy** (red) is 151 to 200 meaning everyone may experience problems; **Very unhealthy** (pink) is 210 to 300 is a health alert, where everyone may have health problems; and **Hazardous** (purple) is over 300 and may contribute to emergency health problems and will affect most people.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> The path and the quantity of chemical transformationation depend not only on the strength of the pollutant emissions, but also on their mix. In an atmospheric chemical mechanism, the number of interlinkages can run as long as 300 equations (among the known studies).

dependent on other pollutants, such as ozone, hydrocarbons, acidity in the air due to sulfur and nitrogen compounds (due to higher coal combustion), carbon monoxide, etc. However, the PM forms the major contributor and hence the pressure to understand its sources better.

### **Understanding Transport Contribution**

Along the major roads, the contribution of the transport sector is the main culprit. However, city as a whole, it is important that a holistic picture and understanding of the sources (including the domestic and industrial) is established before a decision is made on the contribution (source apportionment).

For example, during the 2008 Olympics, the city of Beijing, did not achieve the reductions in the air pollution levels by halving the on road vehicular fleet alone. This was achieved only in conjunction with closing down a number of small and large industrial sites in and around the city.

Now, the long range transport plays a critical role. The transport emissions are ground based and tend to increase the local concentrations significantly. However, the industrial sources also contribute to farther distances. For pollutants like sulfur dioxide, the transport quotient is higher than the coarse PM and this was also evident in Beijing during the games. A series of measures, based on the modeling studies, resulted in closing down of industries in the neighboring cities, to achieve the necessary air pollution reductions.

On one side, the visibility of the growing transport sector creates an atmospheric cloud that multiples its contribution. Since the people are spending more time on the roads, because of traveling or due to sitting in a congestion zone, tend to experience the most of the air pollution and thus conclude that the contribution of transport as the main culprit. However, quantifying the contribution of the transport sector is a challenge, not only for the researchers (studying the satellite evidence earlier), but also the policy makers to propose cost effective measures encompassing multiple sectors.

The following sections summarize the methodologies and results, quantifying the contribution of the transport sector to air pollution in China.

### Methodology 01: Emissions inventory Using Activity Data.

Once an emissions inventory is established, through a series of surveys, data collection, and multiplication of emission factors, for each of the sectors involved and for the indirect sources such as fugitive emissions, one could arrive at the proportions of contribution of each of the sectors to each of the pollutants.

### <u>Methodology 02</u>: Source Apportionment Using Ambient Data.

Following the ambient concentrations of PM measured at various hot spots in the city, the samples are analyzed for the chemical composition, which are then regressed through the profiles for various sources, to arrive at a series of numbers estimating the possible contribution of the known sources.

It is very IMPORTANT to understand that the two methods are different and the numbers they indicate are different, although they are talking about the same air pollution.

- 1. The emissions are not same as ambient concentrations.
- 2. The contributions estimated from emissions NEED NOT be the same as the contributions estimated via the ambient measurements.
- 3. The emissions inventory is usually for the whole of the city or the area of interest, while the later method represents the measurement area features.

None the less, both the top-down (ambient) and bottom-up (emissions) methods are very important (and essential) to understand the strength of the sources and their potential to control.

### **Transport Sector to Air Emissions**

Significant efforts have been made during recent years to improve the quality of emission data for important air pollutants such as  $SO_2$ ,  $NO_x$ , CO, VOC's, and particulates. New emission inventories for Asia were developed in support of the TRACE-P, ACE-Asia, and INTEX-B field experiments in the Asia-Pacific region, using the energy consumption data (CGRER<sup>11</sup> and David Streets, personal communication).

For integrated support, emissions inventory includes gaseous and particulate pollutants, compiled by region, by fuels and by economic sectors; including natural emission sources such as volcanoes and forest fires. Different methodologies were applied in estimating emissions from anthropogenic and natural sources. **Table 1** presents country level emissions for each of the gaseous and particulate species for China for year 2006.

Table 1: Estimated emissions inventory for China for year 2006, ktons/year <sup>12</sup>					
Pollutant	Power	Industry	Residential	Transport	Total
SO <sub>2</sub>	18,333	9,725	2,837	123	31,019
NO <sub>x</sub>	9,796	5,371	1,165	5,096	21,428
CO	2,361	74,935	55,883	33,708	166,888
VOC	960	8,055	7,600	6,629	23,246
$PM_{10}$	2,475	10,436	4,883	427	18,223
$PM_{2.5}$	1,473	6,923	4,461	398	13,265
BC	35	575	1,002	198	1,811
OC	5.6	505	2,605	101	3,217

Figure 3 presents contribution of transport sector to total anthropogenic emissions of  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$  emissions inventory for year 2000. This is presented for year 2000 to provide an indicative analysis by province in China. Table 2 presents percentage contributions by sector for year 2006.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Center for Global and Regional Environmental Research, USA

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> This emission inventory was prepared by Qiang Zhang and David G. Streets, Decision and Information Sciences Division, Argonne National Laboratory, for the INTEX-B project of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA); in collaboration with He Kebin, Chen Dan, and Lei Yu of Tsinghua University in Beijing.



For SO<sub>2</sub>, ~60% of total fossil emissions come from China due to high amount of coal consumption, mainly from the power generation sector. In general, power and industry dominate the SO<sub>2</sub> emissions. The transportation sector contributes very little to SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in China.

Note that the numbers presented are average estimates based on provincial and national level activity data and when the same numbers are discussed at a city level, the percentage contributions tend to differ, where the diesel consumption in the bus and truck industry accounts for a significant portion.

Pollutant	Power	Industry	Residential	Transport	Total
SO <sub>2</sub>	59%	31%	9%	0%	100%
NO <sub>x</sub>	46%	25%	5%	24%	100%
CO	1%	45%	33%	20%	100%
VOC	4%	35%	33%	29%	100%
$PM_{10}$	14%	57%	27%	2%	100%
$PM_{2.5}$	11%	52%	34%	3%	100%
BC	2%	32%	55%	11%	100%
OC	0%	16%	81%	3%	100%

#### Table 2: Percentage contributions by sector (at national level)

Unlike,  $SO_2$ , transportation sector dominants for  $NO_x$ , CO, and VOC emissions from due to increasing number of automobiles, especially in the urban areas. These three pollutants generate secondary pollutants such as ozone and other smog products contributing significantly to regional haze problems in urban centers. In **Figure 3**, the percentage contribution of transport along the coastal provinces is high, mainly due to the

concentration of the megacities, such as Beijing, Shanghai<sup>13</sup>, and Hong Kong<sup>14 15</sup>, which are experiencing increasing levels of air pollution, related to vehicular activity.

The black carbon (BC) emissions, a direct indicator of the diesel exhaust, are estimated at  $\sim 11\%$  from the transport sector.

While discussing the percentage contribution of the sectors, it is important to note the geographical placement of these sectors. For example, the black carbon emissions are dominated by the domestic sector, mainly due to the use of biomass for cooking and heating, which is predominantly in the rural areas of China. Thus, while at the national level, the percentage contribution of transport sector may seem only ~11%, but at the city level, this will be higher due to diesel consumption, where the domestic sector (biomass burning) fares less. Figure 4 illustrates the importance of the scale, while analyzing the emission inventories at coarser and finer scales around Shanghai (proxy to population).



 <sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> BBC, "Can Shanghai turn green and grow?", May 27<sup>th</sup>, 2007, <u>http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/business/6683103.stm</u>
 <sup>14</sup> AFP, "Health concerns as Hong Kong pollution levels rise", January 22<sup>nd</sup>, 2009;

AFP, "Hong Kong air pollution worst since records began", January 2<sup>th</sup>, 2009

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Civic Exchange, "Hong Kong's Silent Epidemic - Public Opinion Survey on Air Pollution, Environment and Public Health 2008", January 2009, <u>http://www.civic-exchange.org/eng/publication\_ec.aspx</u>

According to Cai, et al., 2007, in 2005, the Beijing–Tianjin–Hebei region, the Yangtze River Delta, and the Pearl River Delta covering only 2.3%, 2.2%, and 1.9%, of national area respectively, generated about 10%, 19%, and 12%, respectively, of the national total transport emissions inventory.



Source: Cai, et al., « Estimation of vehicular emission inventories in China from 1980 to 2005 »Atmospheric Environnent, 2007 (a) <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2007.08.019</u>

Cai, et al., 2007, estimated the vehicular emissions inventory in China for the period of 1980 to 2005, using the statistics from the national bureaus and average national survey data for the activity levels. **Figure 5** presents a comparison of the gridded  $PM_{10}$  and  $NO_x$  emissions for years 1995 and 2005, highlighting the urban hotspots and the importance of the transport sector in the cities. Also presented in this study is the spatial analysis by regions, concluding that ~75% of the national total transport emissions are concentrated in developed regions of China's southeastern, northern and central areas covering only ~35% of China's territory, while the remaining emissions were distributed over the southwestern, northwestern and northeastern regions covering ~65% of the territory<sup>16</sup>. **Table 3** presents a summary of the transport emissions inventory estimated by Cai, et al., 2007, for years 1980 to 2005.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> For details on the GIS based spatial distribution methodology refer the article @ <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2007.08.019</u>

Table 3: Estimated transport emissions inventory for China, ktons/year							
Year	$CH_4$	CO	$CO_2$	NMVOC	NO <sub>x</sub>	$\mathbf{PM}_{10}$	SO <sub>2</sub>
1980	5	1,066	19,893	169	174	26	16
1995	128	15,122	234,663	2,326	2,091	361	198
2005	377	36,197	674,629	5,911	4,539	938	484

In 2005, the five provinces producing most vehicular emissions were Guangdong, Shandong, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, and Hebei, which cover  $\sim$ 7.4% of China's territory, and were responsible for  $\sim$ 40-45% of the national transport emissions for all the pollutants listed in **Table 2**.

The  $PM_{10}$  inventory by Cai, et al., amounts to ~938 ktons in 2005, which is comparable to the  $PM_{10}$  inventory by Streets, et al., (**Table 1**) at ~1,124 ktons in 2006, indicating an increase of ~20% in the vehicular activity. The methodology employed by the two groups may be different, but the analysis provides an indicator for comparing the growth and the importance of the transport sector in the country, by the provinces, and in the cities.

The emissions inventory presented so far is based on the anthropogenic activity in the sectors. In the urban centers, an important source which is not a direct product of fuel combustion is the road dust. The fugitive dust from the paved and unpaved roads get resuspended due to the constant vehicular movement and the cities like Shanghai and Beijing, with their increasing traffic, the quotient of fugitive dust is reportedly high in the ambient air. This problem is more severe in the spring time (dry season), due to storms settling more dust along the roads and on the buildings<sup>17</sup>.

Estimating the fugitive dust is a challenging exercise, compared to the anthropogenic emissions inventory. This is mainly due to its dependence on the level of vehicular activity which varies from corridor to corridor and day to day, types of vehicles on the road since the weight and speed of the vehicles dictate the possible resuspension, the level of silt loading on the roads which varies among roads and seasons, and the meteorological conditions which control the resuspension levels. Given the uncertainty in the estimation methodology of this source, even though these emissions are a direct result of the vehicular activity, this cannot be listed in the emission inventory. However, during the air pollution modeling and analysis procedures, this source cannot be (and is not) neglected, and calculated as an online source based on the local meteorological and terrain conditions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> BBC, dust storms hit Northern China, February 20<sup>th</sup>, 2009, <u>http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/7901227.stm</u>

## Urban Ambient Air Quality Sourced to the Transport Sector

The analysis presented so far is estimated based on the source activity levels (fuel consumption and emission factors) by the sectors, with special focus on the transportation in China. The motorization in the urban centers, where the impacts are felt the most, is rising and is expected to at least quadruple in the next 30 years (**Figure 6**).



Since health impacts are one of the criteria factors for an effective urban transport planning, more than the emissions, their contribution to the ambient levels plays a vital role. For the transport sector, because the source is ground based, their impacts are felt more at the local level for the primary pollutants (such as PM) and at the regional level for the secondary pollutants, in the form of smog and haze. Once emitted, the pollutants are well mixed in the atmosphere and advected to long distances, depending on the local meteorology, making it harder to differentiate between the sources.

A second method, briefly discussed earlier, to estimate the contribution of sources is topdown, based on the ambient measurements. Given the scale and economics of operation (monitoring and chemical analysis), this analysis is restricted to hot spots in the cities and the analysis, though limited to a few points around the city, provides a science based source apportionment. A comprehensive bottom-up approach presented in the earlier sections and a better mapping of the pollution sources can compensate for some of the differences.

This methodology has its disadvantages such as, not being able to differentiate between the diesel consumption in the generators vs. the vehicles, soil dust vs. road dust, and coal combustion in the domestic vs. industries. However, in the regulatory world, the **top-down approach is more acceptable**, primarily due to the involvement of direct pollution measurements at hot spots, analysis of the samples in the lab, and determining (statistically) the contribution of various sources to the pollution at that particular spot.

Source & Details	Percentage Transport Contribution
Liu, et al., 2008, analyzed the ambient VOC concentrations in Guangzhou, for samples measured in October 2004. <i>Atmospheric Environment, 42 (2008) 6261–6274</i>	Gasoline and Diesel exhaust accounted for ~50% of the measured sample.
An, et al., 2007, conducted a modeling analysis for Beijing and the neighboring provinces, using local and national inventories. <i>Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 7 (2007) 3103–3114</i>	The study accounts ~25% and ~35% of the $PM_{10}$ and $PM_{2.5}$ to non-Beijing sources, and the rest to have a strong local transport signature.
Feng et al., 2007, conducted a PM source apportionment study for the city of Jiaozuo (Henan), for sample measured in the summer months. <i>Journal of AWMA, 57(2007) 561-575</i>	A spatial average of ~12% is associated with the vehicle exhaust and ~46% to the reentrained road dust in $PM_{10}$ .
Song et al., 2006, conducted PM2.5 source apportionment study in Beijing, using a series of receptor models. <i>Science of the Total Environment, 372 (2006) 278–286</i>	The vehicle exhaust and road dust combined for $\sim 20\%$ of the sample. Secondary sulfate and nitrate were not included in the above estimate, which are also a product of the vehicle exhaust.
Huang, et al., 2009, conducted source analysis of samples from high pollution days in Hong Kong, for the period of 1998-2005. <i>Atmospheric Environment, 43 (2009) 1196–1203</i>	Due to proximity to the urban centers in the Pearl River Delta, the coal combustion, vehicular exhaust, and residue oil combustion, showed the highest contributions associated with northwesterly wind ( $\sim$ 50%). With the transboundary pollution included, the vehicle exhaust accounted for $\sim$ 12%.
Tao, et al., 2009, studied the impact of PM <sub>2.5</sub> composition on visibility in Guangzhou, in Spring 2007. <i>Particuology, 7 (2009) 68–75</i>	Study concludes that the sulfates in $PM_{2.5}$ (~40%) from diesel and coal, are the limiting factor affecting the visibility levels in Guangzhou.
Shi, et al., 2008, investigated the impact of urbanization on the frequency of fog formation in the Anhui Province. <i>Atmospheric Environment, 42 (2008) 8484–8492</i>	The aerosol concentrations are negatively correlated with visibility related to fog, a direct indicator of industrial and vehicular activity. No specifics are provided on vehicular contribution.
Bi, et al., 2007, conducted source apportionment analysis for six cities in Northern China Urumqi, Yinchuan, Taiyuan, Anyang, Tianjin and Jinan. <i>Atmospheric Environment, 41 (2007) 903–912</i>	In all the cities, the road dust is estimated to be the largest contributor (> 40%), a direct result of increased vehicular activity (>15%). <b>Table 5</b> summaries the results for the six cities and three seasons.

### Table 4: Summary of recent source apportionment studies in the Chinese Cities

The **Table 4** presents a summary of the transport sector contributions based on recent source apportionment studies across the Chinese cities and **Table 5**, a summary of similar study conducted in six cities in Northern China for three seasons (with a mean  $PM_{10}$  concentrations of >100 µg/m<sup>3</sup>).

Year	Winter		Spring		Summer & Fall	
	VE	RD	VE	RD	VE	RD
Urumqi	10	11	7	48	15	38
Yinchuan	8	49	5	67	7	52
Taiyuan	12	30	12	35	18	23
Anyang	7	36	5	41	16	33
Tianjin	11	33	12	39	18	28
Jinan	4	30	7	54	17	40
Average	9	32	8	47	15	36

 Table 5: Estimated vehicle exhaust (VE) and road dust (RD) contributions from six cities in Northern China

In China, besides the vehicle exhaust (average 10-20 percent of the measured samples), the other source identified, and associated with the transport sector, is the road dust emissions. When dust sources are caused by sporadic or widespread activities due to wind or vehicle travel, it can often be difficult to quantify such emissions. However, this is typically a rough estimate (from the source apportionment) because it is difficult to track the number and types of vehicles on roads, conditions of the roads, and entrainment factors which are partly dependant on the local meteorological conditions. Additionally, there are no specific emission factors established that can be applied to all urban areas. In China, the sporadic dust storms, especially during the spring time and the dry summer seasons, are known contributors of the resuspension of dust, also observed in the six cities in Table 5.

Given the mix of air pollution sources in the Chinese cities, the role of transportation, though crucial for policy makers, is difficult to quantify. Among the anthropogenic sources, transport sector comes second only to the coal consumption in the industrial sector. At the same time, the long range transport of the industrial emissions tend to diminish their role in the ambient air quality (in the vicinity of the source), while **the transport sector, along with its indirect effect on the dust generation, plays a bigger role**.

### Vehicular Mix and Air Emissions in China

It is important to keep in mind the scales of analysis between the two methods discussed so far and what they represent. For the particulate pollution, while discussing the emissions inventory, the provincial and national level analysis underestimates the total impact of the transport sector on ambient air quality, whereas the source apportionment studies starting with the ambient measurements at particular urban hotspots also tend to underestimate the transport sector contributions due to the mix and lack of capacity to fully distinguish between the anthropogenic and natural sources<sup>18</sup>.



**Figure 7** presents a summary of estimated and projected emissions from the transport sector for China and other Asian countries. In general, due to introduction of stringent emission standards and possible promotion of the public transportation systems in China, the transport sector  $PM_{10}$  emissions are expected to drop, while the  $NO_x$  and  $CO_2$  is expected to increase. For all the pollutants, the heavy commercial vehicles (HCV) dominate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> China Environmental Health Project, Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars, "Transboundary Air Pollution—Will China Choke On Its Success?", February 2<sup>nd</sup>, 2007,

<sup>@</sup> http://www.wilsoncenter.org/index.cfm?topic\_id=1421&fuseaction=topics.item&news\_id=218780

# In Conclusion

#### PM<sub>10</sub> Ambient Concentration

 $PM_{10}$  is the criteria air quality indicator for most of the urban centers and their concentration is a result of both primary (direct emissions) and secondary pollution (chemical transformation.

### PM<sub>2.5</sub> IS NOT MEASURED

According to the health studies, the  $PM_{2.5}$  is the most harmful. However, the routine  $PM_{2.5}$  measurements are limited in the urban centers. The significant portion of the  $PM_{2.5}$  is secondary, which is dependent of the  $SO_2$ ,  $NO_x$ , and VOC emissions and meteorology.

### NO ROADSIDE MONITORS

The PM concentrations along the road side will be high due to ground level source of the vehicles and road dust. The monitors placed on buildings (common practice) understate impact of average PM levels in the city and related human health exposure levels.

### HUMAN EXPOSURE IMPACT

The diesel soot and carcinogenic hydrocarbons are more concentrated along the roadside, increasing the acute exposure times due to higher driving and congestion times, and hence increasing the chronic respiratory illnesses and other health risks. The industrial coal combustion still dominates the measured  $PM_{10}$  concentrations with a direct transport share of 10~15 percent. The fugitive road dust accounts for ~30 percent (see Annex)

The share in  $PM_{2.5}$  is uncertain, depending on the mix of emissions and secondary contributions, which tend to estimate the transport shares disproportionately.

A lack of roadside monitoring not only underestimate the city averages linked to exposure levels, but also underestimate the share of the transport sector to measured PM concentrations.

The transport sector, though contributing ~10-15% of the measured  $PM_{10}$  (average), their share to human health risks is higher.

**CONCLUSION:** Coal based industries are still a major contributor to PM emissions and concentrations in China and the transport sector is a growing contributor at the urban level. While the coal based interventions might effective in reducing the air pollution on a large scale, the measures in the transport sector would be helpful in reducing the exposure times.

China is showing a shift in its policy towards more environmentally friendly management with a number of regulations already in place, some of which were successfully piloted in Beijing during the 2008 Olympic Games. The existing policies to reduce transport-related air pollutants suggest that they will reduce most of the emissions including PM and  $O_3$ . The challenge is in scale-up of the strategies and to improve the quality of the air quality monitoring network to include  $PM_{2.5}$  at the urban hotspots.