

Supplemental Material:

Global Air Quality and Health Co-Benefits of Mitigating Near-Term Climate Change through Methane and Black Carbon Emission Controls

Susan C. Anenberg, Joel Schwartz, Drew Shindell, Markus Amann, Greg Faluvegi, Zbigniew Klimont, Greet Janssens-Maenhout, Luca Pozzoli, Rita Van Dingenen, Elisabetta Vignati, Lisa Emberson, Nicholas Z. Muller, J. Jason West, Martin Williams, Volodymyr Demkine, W. Kevin Hicks, Johan Kuylenstierna, Frank Raes, Veerabhadran Ramanathan

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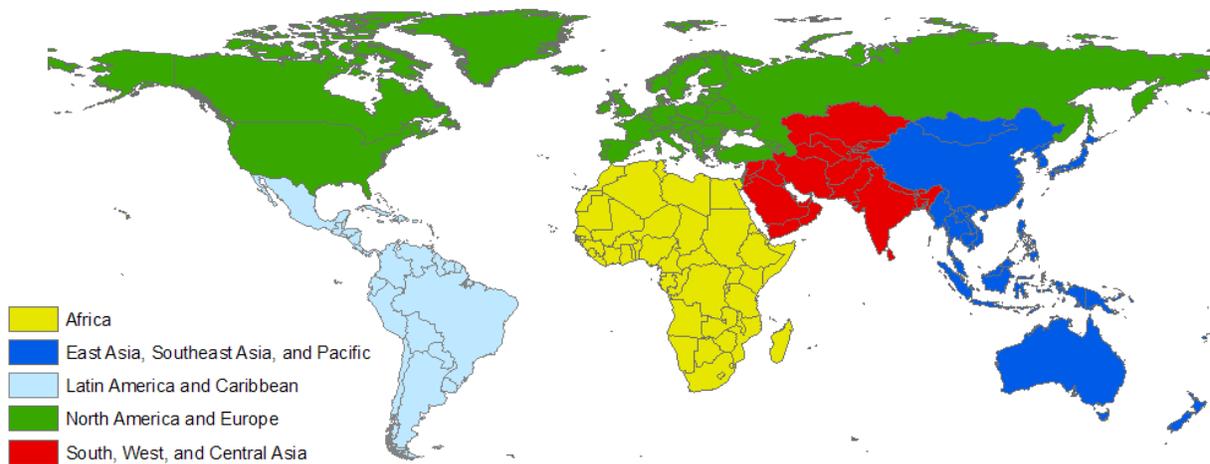
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cardiopulmonary and lung cancer and ozone respiratory mortality for the implementation of all methane and BC mitigation measures relative to the 2030 reference scenario and all methane and BC measures with CO₂ mitigation measures included in both the reference and mitigation scenarios, using concentrations simulated by the GISS model and 2030 population. Confidence intervals (95%) reflect uncertainty in the CRF only.15

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Regional definitions



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Selection of the mitigation measures

Most pollutants are not emitted in isolation, but rather in a mixture of species that have different impacts on near-term climate change, some of them heating and others cooling. In addition, most mitigation measures impact the mixture of emissions from a source rather than individual pollutants alone. The overall effect of each mitigation measure depends on the net radiative forcing resulting from changes in emissions of all species. Since the net climate effect can be warming or cooling, we identify a small portfolio of measures with the largest potential reductions in global radiative forcing in 2030. Thus, measures that would increase radiative forcing are excluded from this study.

As described in further detail by the UNEP/WMO Assessment (UNEP 2011) and Shindell et al. (2012), approximately 2000 mitigation measures in 108 world regions in the IIASA GAINS model were screened for their potential climate benefits using the GWP100 metric (see Supplemental Material, Table 1). The measures were then ranked according to their net carbon dioxide equivalence (CO₂eq) accounting for all affected pollutants (i.e., methane, CO, BC, OC, SO₂, NO_x, NMVOCs and CO₂). Results of the GWP evaluation are minimally sensitive to the time horizon since CO₂ emissions were largely unaffected and the effects for all short-lived compounds would change similarly. We found that all measures targeting methane would result in net radiative forcing benefits, while measures to reduce BC differed in estimated net positive or negative climate impacts due to impacts on co-emitted CO and other species. No attempt was made to optimize the selected measures based on health, vegetation, and crop impacts; rather, we simply quantify the health co-benefits of the measures selected for climate benefits.

Supplemental Material, Table 1. Values and sources of GWP100s for each species used for the screening of mitigation measures in the GAINS model (source: UNEP 2011). Note: The GWPs for CO and methane include the indirect effects of ozone.^a

Species	Mean value	Reference
CO₂	1	IPCC (2007)
CH₄	25	IPCC (2007)
CO	1.9	IPCC (2007)
VOC	3.4	IPCC (2007)
BC	680	Bond and Sun (2005)
SO₂	-40	Fuglestvedt et al. (2009)
OC	-69	Fuglestvedt et al. (2009)

^aGWP100 values represent the radiative forcing of a unit mass of the species given relative to that of CO₂ for a 100 year time horizon.

Emission changes

The 2030 reference scenario assumes significant growth in fossil fuel use relative to 2005, leading to increases in estimated CO₂ (45%) and methane (27%) emissions (See Supplemental Material, Table 2 and Figure 2). However, abatement measures prescribed in current legislation are projected to reduce air pollutant emissions, varying by pollutant and region. While total primary PM_{2.5} emissions (includes non-carbonaceous PM_{2.5}, e.g. fly ash) remain approximately constant, BC and OC are estimated to decline by a few percent, mostly due to emission reductions in North America & Europe and Northeast Asia, Southeast Asia & Pacific, where residential coal burning is expected to decline. While projected NO_x (-3%) and SO₂ (-19%) emissions are reduced significantly in North America and Europe, emissions in other regions are expected to grow or remain constant. Asia is projected to contribute most to total PM_{2.5} (>60%), SO₂ (65%), and NO_x (>50%) emissions in 2030.

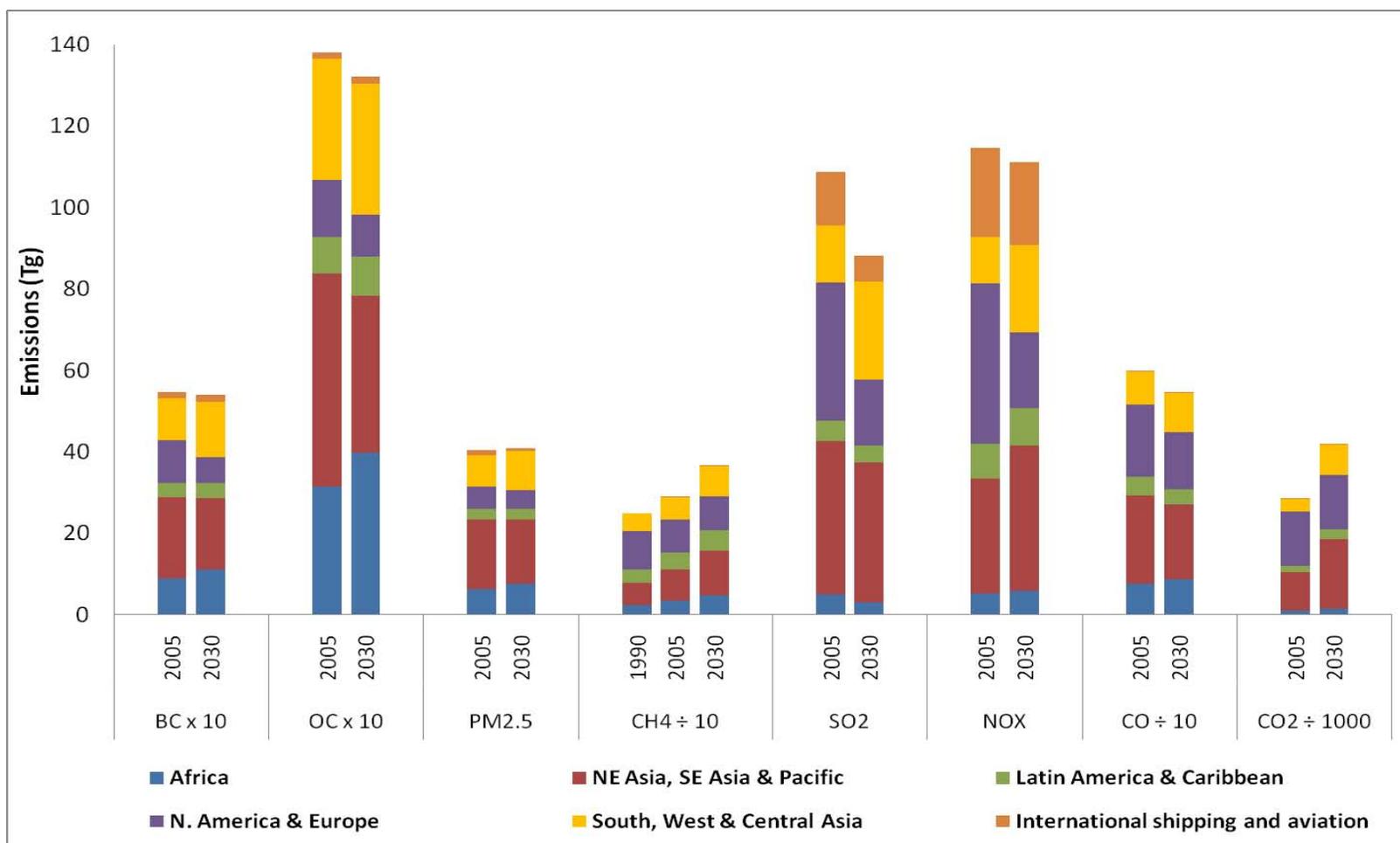
The methane measures reduce estimated global anthropogenic methane emissions by 38%, with little impact on other species (See Supplemental Material, Figure 3). BC measures together would reduce global anthropogenic BC emissions by 75%, primarily via biomass combustion controls and diesel particle filters. Measures targeting BC would also substantially reduce total primary PM_{2.5} (-50%, of which ~15% is non-carbonaceous, e.g. fly ash), OC (-79%), NO_x (-27%), and CO (-44%). Emissions of non-carbonaceous primary PM_{2.5} components, which we exclude from our PM_{2.5} definition, are projected to be reduced by ~18% of the magnitude of the BC and OC reduction. The BC measures would have little impact on SO₂ emissions since measures reducing sulfate (SO₄; which has a net cooling influence on climate) were largely excluded, as they would not deliver the climate benefit set as a goal in the assessment. Projected emissions are generally reduced most in Asia, followed by Africa. North America and Europe contribute relatively less to emission reductions, except for methane. We also examine the impacts of stabilizing greenhouse gases at 450 ppm of CO₂ equivalent, consistent with a global average temperature increase of ~2° C (IEA 2009). CO₂ measures would reduce SO₂ (-30%) and NO_x (-20%) but have little impact on the other species (~5% decline) since the major sources of CO₂ differ from those of methane and BC.

Supplemental Material, Table 2. Global anthropogenic emissions used in this study for the 2005 and 2030 reference cases, Tg a⁻¹. Source: GAINS model^a, EDGAR v4.1, and Lamarque et al. (2010) for international shipping and aviation (RCP8.5 scenario)

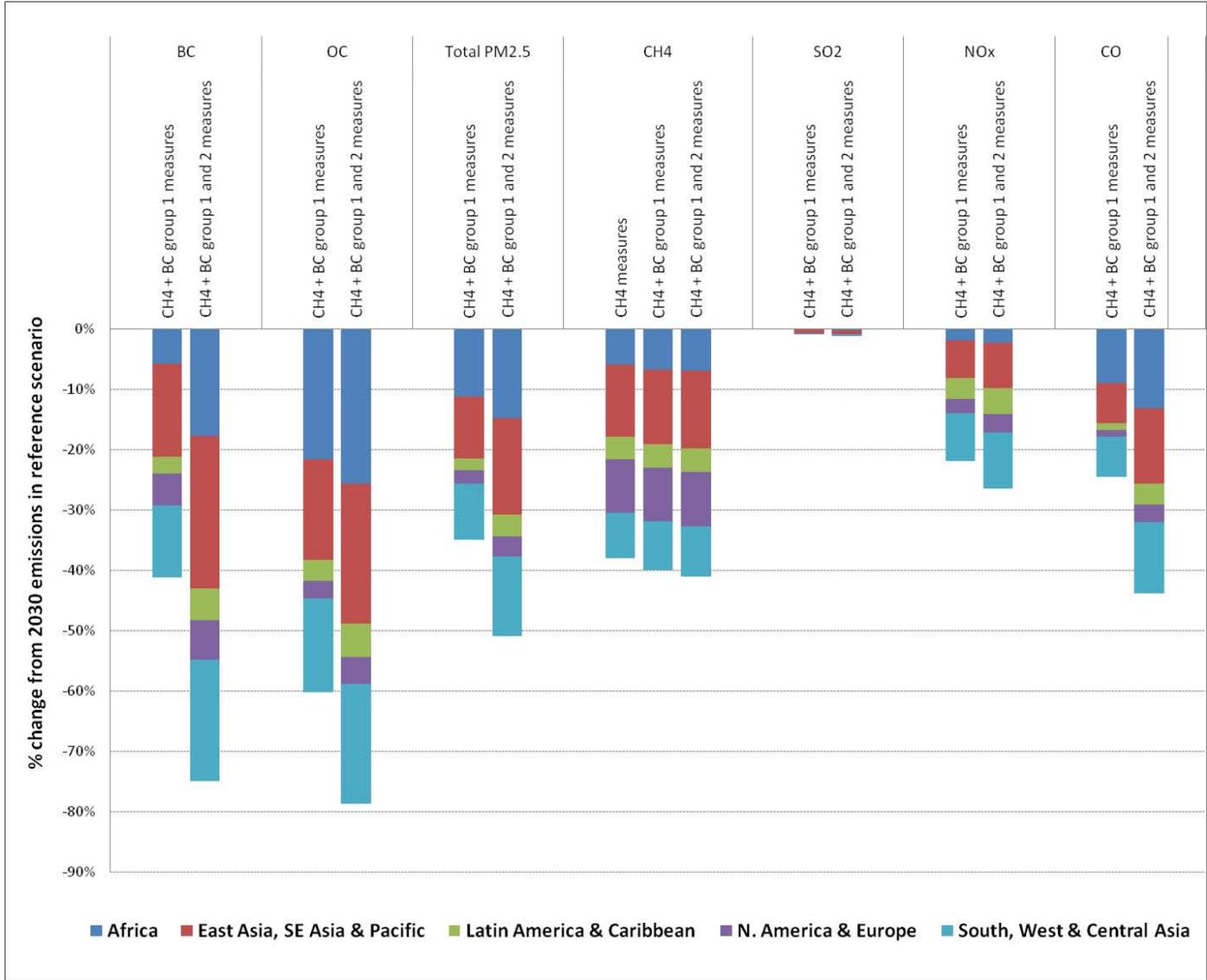
Species	Year	Region					Global
		Africa	NE Asia, SE Asia & Pacific	Latin America & Caribbean	N. America & Europe	South, West & Central Asia	
BC	2005	0.89	1.99	0.35	1.04	1.04	5.46
	2030	1.11	1.76	0.37	0.62	1.37	5.40
OC	2005	3.14	5.23	0.90	1.40	2.98	13.80
	2030	3.98	3.86	0.95	1.05	3.20	13.21
Total PM _{2.5}	2005	6.24	17.04	2.75	5.34	7.68	40.44
	2030	7.70	15.64	2.58	4.57	9.65	40.81
SO ₂	2005	4.86	37.84	5.04	33.77	14.07	108.64
	2030	3.03	34.39	4.04	16.18	24.18	88.15
NO _x ^b	2005	5.08	28.43	8.52	39.43	11.29	114.73
	2030	5.84	35.69	9.11	18.74	21.37	111.19
CH ₄	2005	34.40	76.58	40.95	82.18	53.79	288.36
	2030	47.77	108.21	52.23	83.21	73.51	365.46
CO	2005	75.69	217.67	45.25	176.96	81.89	598.74
	2030	87.27	182.46	39.18	138.32	96.18	544.95
CO ₂	2005	1.04	9.40	1.46	13.36	3.22	29.91
	2030	1.48	17.04	2.32	13.47	7.35	43.41

^a Except global NH₃ and NMVOC emissions from solvent use for all countries except Europe, China, and India, that originate from EDGAR v4.1

^b Reported as NO₂



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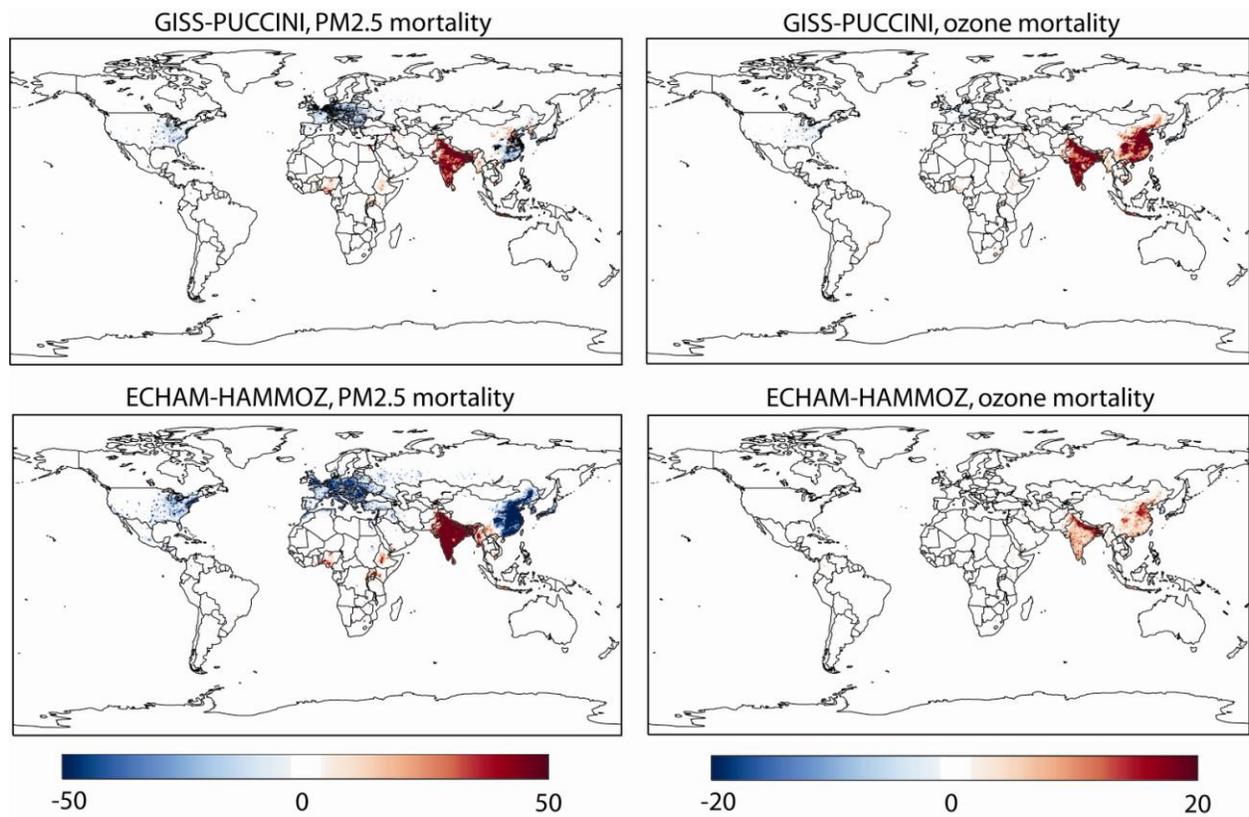


Supplemental Material, Figure 3. Percent change in emissions for the successive implementation of methane measures, methane plus BC Group 1 measures, and methane plus BC Group 1 and BC Group 2 measures, relative to the 2030 reference scenario, by region.

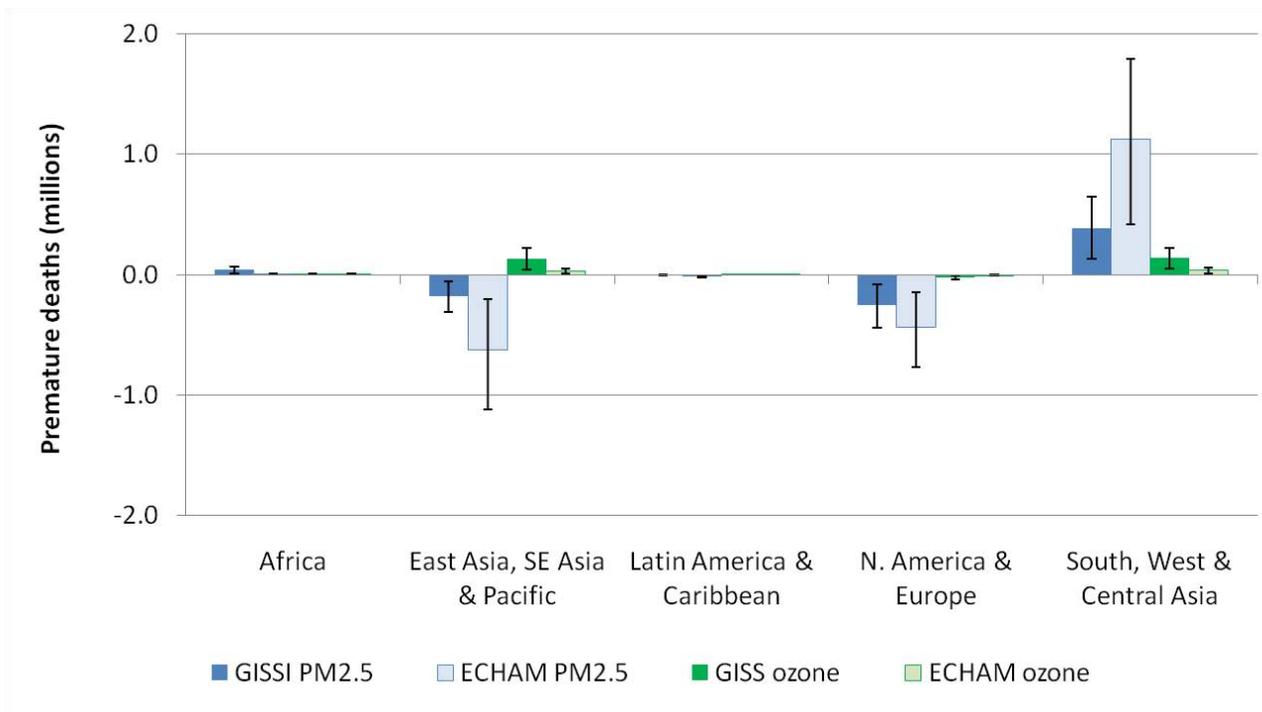
Supplemental Material, Table 3. Radiative forcing (W/m^2) for the successive implementation of methane measures, methane plus BC Group 1 measures, and methane plus BC Group 1 and BC Group 2 measures, relative to the 2030 reference, calculated by the GISS model (source: Shindell et al. 2012).

	Methane measures	Methane + BC Group 1 measures	Methane + BC Group 1 + BC Group 2 measures
Ozone	-0.10	-0.17	-0.19
Methane	-0.20	-0.20	-0.18
Aerosols - direct (BC, OC, sulfate, nitrate)	-0.01 (0.00, 0.00, -0.02, 0.00)	-0.06 (-0.10, 0.06, -0.02, 0.01)	-0.17 (-0.22, 0.07, -0.02, 0.01)
Aerosols - indirect and semi-direct	-	-0.14 ± 0.03	-0.16 ± 0.04
BC albedo (effective forcing x5)	-	-0.010 (-0.05)	-0.017 (-0.09)
<i>Net</i>	-0.32	-0.60	-0.77

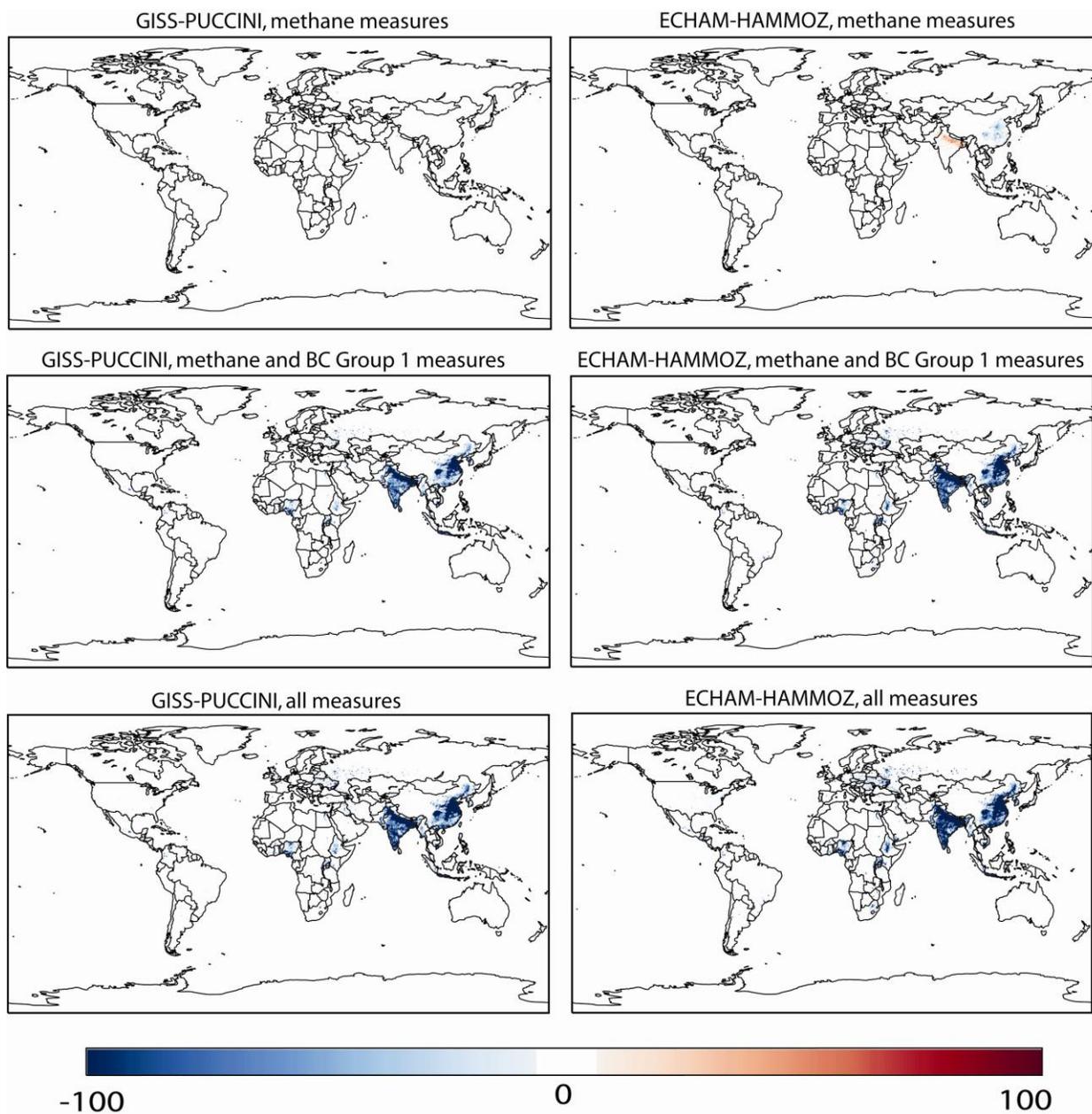
Additional results



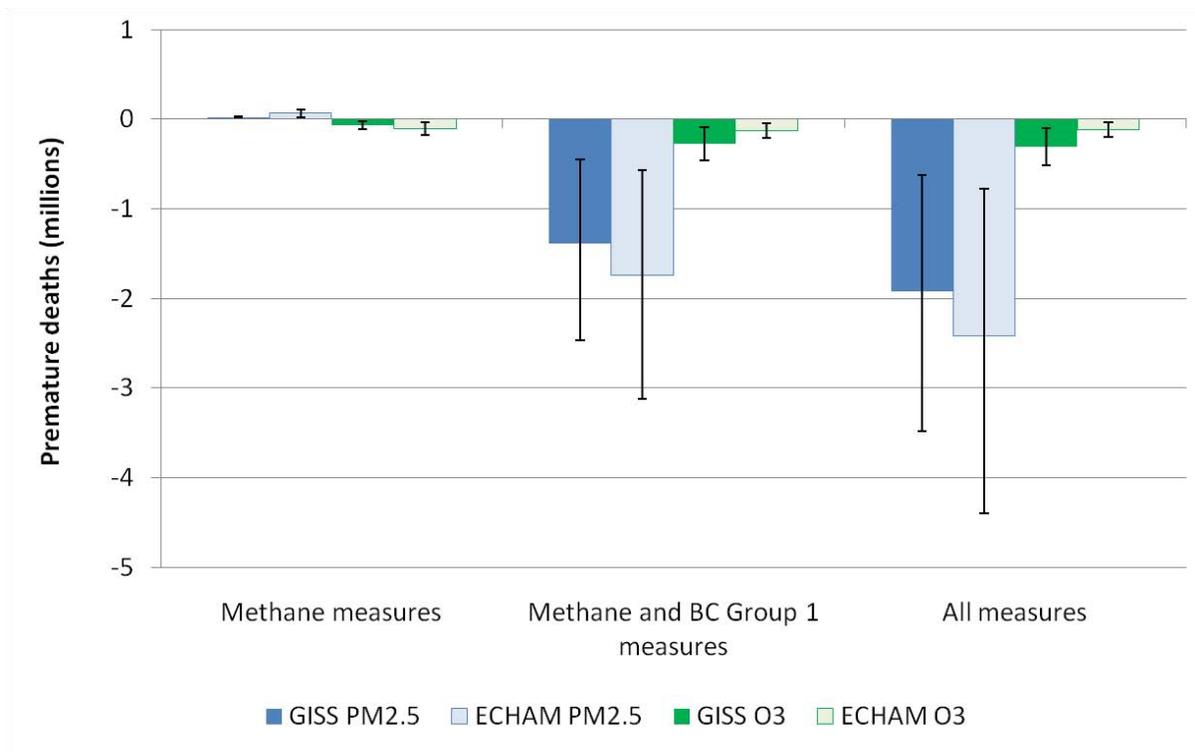
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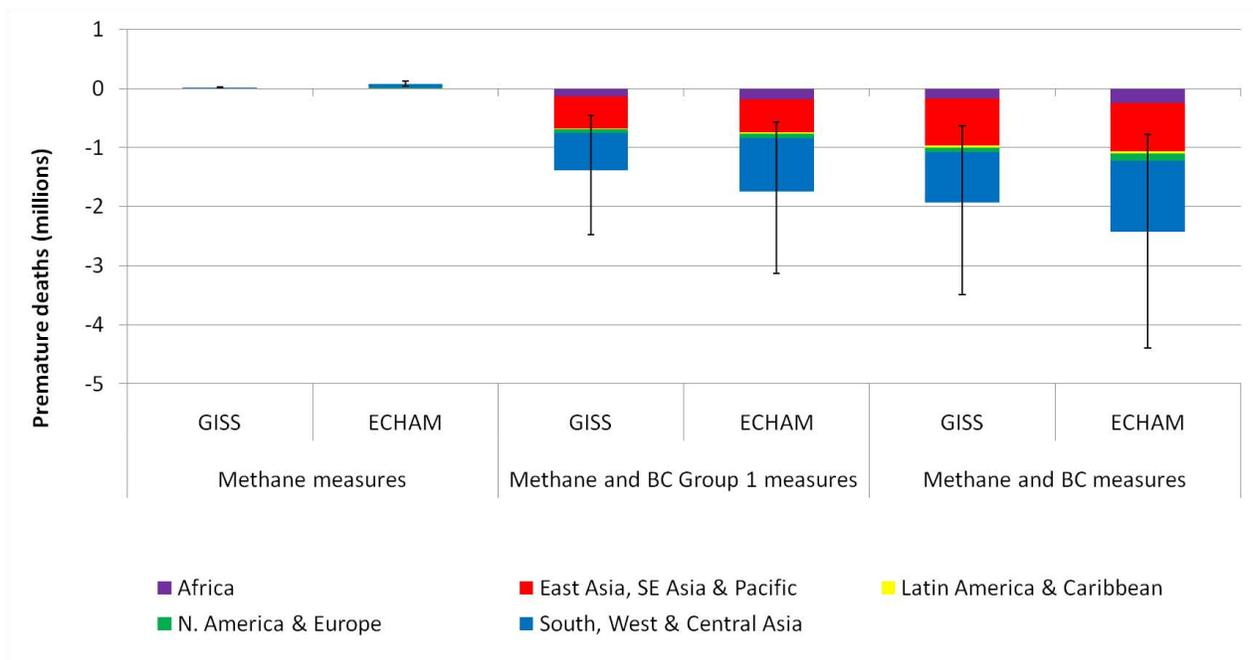
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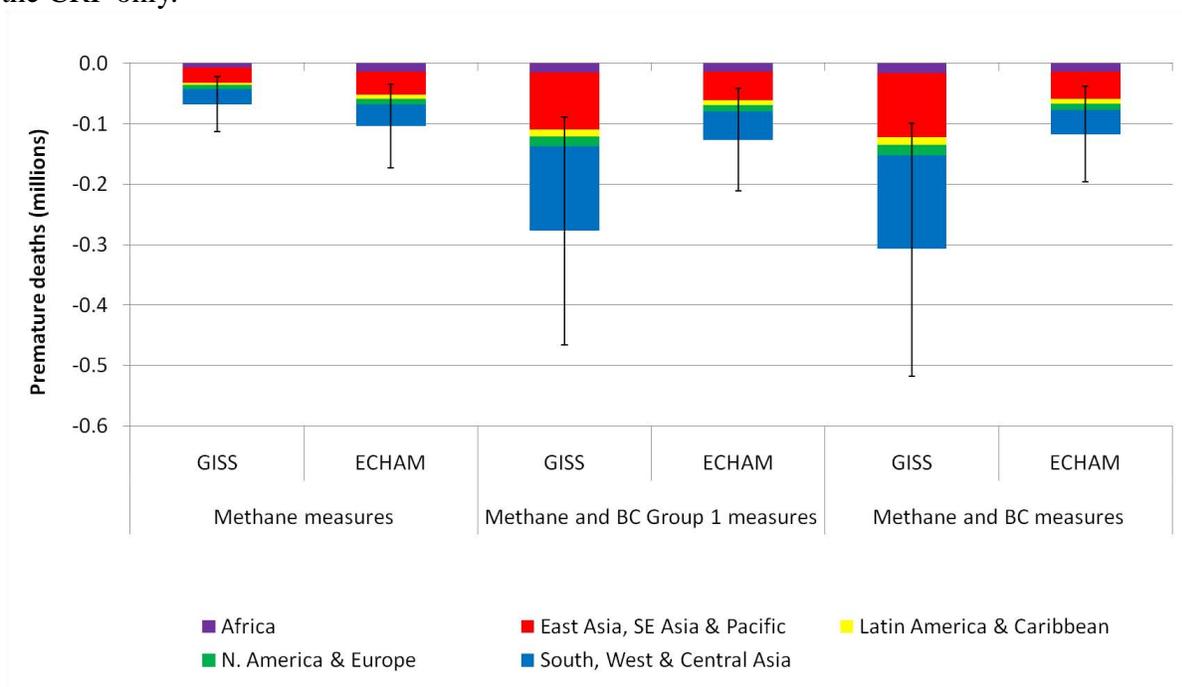
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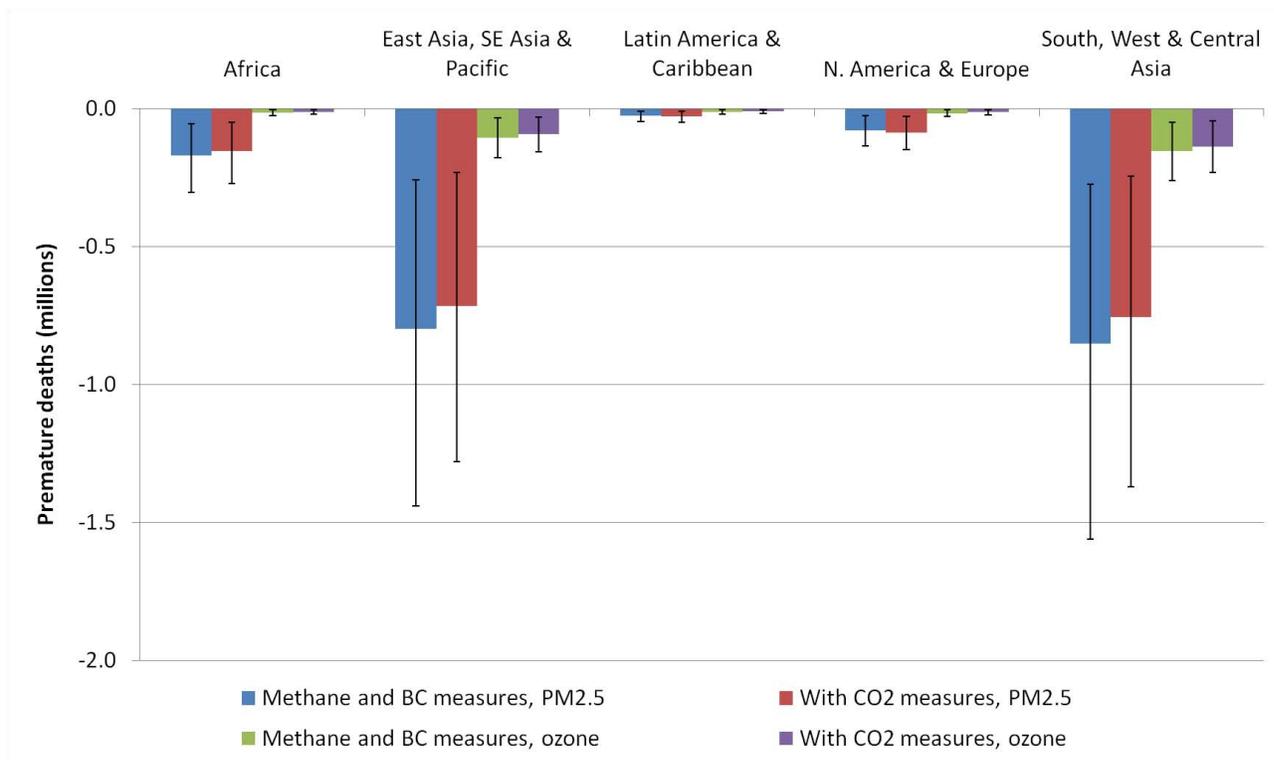
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Comparison of results with previous studies

Here we compare results from this study with previous estimates of the health impacts of methane concentration reductions, black carbon emission reductions, and adoption of European vehicle emission standards in developing countries. West et al. (2006) calculated 17,000 avoided cardiopulmonary deaths in 2030 due to a 20% global methane reduction. This estimate is 10% lower than our ozone-mortality response to methane measures after adjusting for the difference in methane reductions (38% vs. 20%, assuming a linear relationship between emissions and concentration), a factor of 2 higher for long-term mortality vs. short-term mortality (Anenberg et al. 2011b), differences in population (9.16 billion vs. 8.4 billion), and a low-concentration threshold of 25 ppb used by West et al. (2006) that gave 2% lower results. Anenberg et al. (2011a) calculated that halving anthropogenic BC and OC globally avoids 157,000 and 1.05 million premature deaths annually in 2002. Scaling these results by the larger emission changes in this study (69% and 79% for BC and OC) and population growth (30% higher in 2030), the adjusted estimate (BC+OC) is 4% higher than our PM_{2.5}-mortality response to all measures based on GISS simulations (40% higher using the same RR estimates from Krewski et al. 2009) and 20% lower than the ECHAM-based response. Adopting European vehicle emission standards in developing countries has been estimated to avoid 200,000 premature deaths annually in 2030 (Shindell et al. 2011), ~10% of the health benefits of all measures calculated here using the same GISS model (14% using the same GISS model and CRF from Krewski et al. 2009).

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