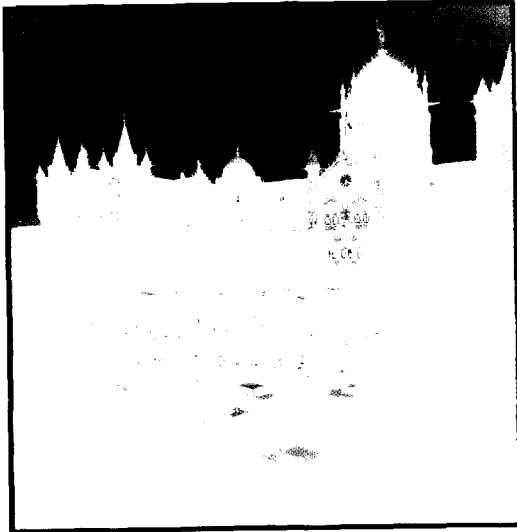




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Urban Air Quality Management Strategy in Asia

Greater Mumbai Report



*Edited by
Jitendra J. Shah
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Urban Air Quality
Management Strategy
in Asia
Greater Mumbai Report

Edited by
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**LETTER FROM THE GOVERNMENT OF MAHARASHTRA
DEPARTMENT OF ENVIRONMENT
MUMBAI, INDIA**

Many Asian cities are on the threshold of a major environmental crisis in the form of air pollution. The deteriorating air quality in cities is a result of rapid economic expansion, rise in population, increased industrial output and unprecedented growth of passenger vehicles. The impact of air pollution on public health and consequent rising health costs, damage to ecological and cultural properties, deterioration of built environment, etc. is well known.

In Mumbai (Bombay) the main contributor of air pollution is the transport sector, followed by power plants, industrial units and burning of garbage. Fuel quality and engine conditions significantly influence the level of air pollution. To arrest this growing problem, a concerted effort with public involvement is essential. Awareness of the issue, proactive policies, economically affordable standards and technologies and effective enforcement are key elements in any effective air quality management strategy. A long-term perspective shows that early adoption of policies for environmentally safer technologies can allow developing countries to resolve some of the most difficult problems of industrialization and growth at lower human and economic cost.

Mumbai (Bombay) joined the World Bank-aided Metropolitan Environmental Improvement Program (MEIP) in 1990. At the Inter-country workshop held in Hawaii in 1990, the cities facing air pollution problems sought MEIP intervention to assist in finding solutions. In response to this, Urban Air Quality Management Initiative (URBAIR) was conceived and launched in Mumbai (Bombay) in 1992.

URBAIR has assisted the Environment Department, Government of Maharashtra to develop a strategy and time-bound action plan for air quality management in Mumbai (Bombay). For the first time, it brought together the different stakeholders—sectoral agencies, private sector, NGOs, academics, research bodies and media to formulate a strategy. This group was met as a Technical Committee which deliberated over several months with support provided by a team of national and international experts. The outcome is the Action Plan that is presented here. The result is quite impressive and I believe that the Action Plan will catalyze continuous and sustained effort by all the concerned agencies which is absolutely essential to improve the ambient air quality of Mumbai (Bombay). The State Government through its various agencies will wholeheartedly participate and extend necessary support for the implementation of the plan. We will welcome the support of the international community in realizing the goals of the plan.

I would like to record our appreciation for the contributions made by various agencies in the development of the strategy and plan, especially to MEIP for facilitating the process.

Asoke Basak
Secretary to Government of Maharashtra
Environment Department
Mumbai, India

FOREWORD

In view of the potential environmental consequences of continuing growth of Asian metropolitan areas, the World Bank and United Nations Development Programme launched the Metropolitan Environmental Improvement Program (MEIP) in six Asian metropolitan areas: Beijing, Mumbai (Bombay)¹, Colombo, Jakarta, Kathmandu Valley and Metro Manila. MEIP's mission is to assist Asian urban areas address their environmental problems.

Recognizing the growing severity of air pollution caused by industrial expansion and increasing numbers of vehicles, the World Bank through MEIP started the Urban Air Quality Management Strategy (URBAIR) in 1992. The first phase of URBAIR covered four cities: Bombay, Jakarta, Kathmandu, and Metro Manila. URBAIR is an international collaborative effort involving governments, academia, international organizations, NGOs, and the private sector. The main objective of URBAIR is to assist local institutions in developing action plans which would be an integral part of the air quality management system for the metropolitan regions. The approach used to achieve this objective involves the assessment of air quality and environmental damage (on health and materials), the assessment of control options, and comparison of costs of damage and costs of control options (cost-benefit or cost-effectiveness analysis). From this, an action plan was set up containing the selected abatement measures for implementation in the short, medium, or long term.

The preparation of this city-specific report for Bombay is based on data collected and specific studies carried out by local consultants, and on workshops and fact-finding missions carried out in April and August 1993, and May 1994. The Norwegian Institute for Air Research (NILU) and Institute for Environmental Studies (IES) prepared a draft of the report before the first workshop based upon general and city-specific information available from earlier studies. A second draft was prepared before the second workshop with substantial inputs from the local consultants and assessment of air quality, damage and control options, and costs carried out by NILU and IES. The report concludes with an action plan for air pollution. NILU and IES carried out cost-benefit analysis of some selected abatement measures, showing the economic viability of many of the technical control options.

It is hoped that this report will form the basis for further analysis of air quality data, and formulation of strategies for air pollution control. Local institutions may refer to it as a preliminary strategy and use it in conjunction with the *URBAIR Guidebook* to formulate policy decisions and investment strategies.

Maritta Koch-Weser
Division Chief
Asia Environment and Natural Resources Division

¹ While the consultants and the World Bank recognize the change of name to Mumbai, the city name Bombay is used in this study to more accurately reflect the data collection and the time period during which this study was conducted.

ABSTRACT

Severe air pollution is threatening human health and the gains of economic growth in Asia's largest cities. This report aims to assist policy makers in the design and implementation of policies, monitoring and management tools to restore air quality in Mumbai (Bombay), India's financial and commercial capital.

Annual average TSP concentration has increased about 50 percent from 1981 to 1990, to reach $270 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. World Health Organization (WHO) and national guidelines for PM_{10} are frequently and substantially exceeded in Mumbai; 97 percent of the population lives in areas where the WHO air quality guideline for particulate is exceeded. Studies point to the resulting health effects—more cases of colds, chronic bronchitis, asthma and general decline in lung function. Using dose-response equations developed in the United States, this report estimates that air pollution causes 2,800 cases of excess mortality, 60 million respiratory symptom days, and 19 million restricted activity days, at a total cost of Rs.18 billion per year.

Applying the essential components of an air quality management system to the problem in Mumbai, this report suggests an action plan containing abatement measures for the short, medium and long terms. Recommended actions fall under two categories—institutional and technical. A single institution with a clear mandate and sufficient resources should be made responsible for air quality management in Mumbai. In addition, capabilities for data gathering and processing should be improved throughout the city. Technically, it is crucial that clean vehicle standards be established and strictly enforced. The switch from dirty to clean fuel, including to unleaded gasoline and low-sulfur diesel, should be completed. Another option for clean vehicles is the introduction of LPG- and CNG-powered vehicles. The use of low-smoke lubrication oil for 2-stroke engines is also an important policy measure. Gross polluters should be identified and penalized. In addition, general traffic management would reduce congestion and pollution. Awareness raising through public and private organizations including educational institutions is key to bringing about policy change on matters of air pollution.

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The city-level technical working groups and the steering committee members gave policy direction to the study team. The National Program Coordinator (NPC) of MEIP-Mumbai, G. N. Warade provided substantial contribution to the successful outcomes.

At the World Bank's Environment and Natural Resources Division, Asia Technical Department, URBAIR was managed by Jitendra Shah, Katsunori Suzuki, and Patchamuthu Illangovan, under the advice and guidance of Maritta Koch-Weser, Division Chief and David Williams, MEIP Project Manager. Colleagues from Country Departments (Robert Burns, Richard Cambridge, Harald Hansen, and Peter Nicholas) assisted with the program. Management support was provided by Sonia Kapoor, Ronald Waas, and Erika Yanick. Tanvi Nagpal and Sheldon Lippman were responsible for quality assurance, technical accuracy, and final production. Julia Lutz designed the layout.

Many international institutions (World Health Organization United States Environmental Protection Agency, United States Asia Environmental Partnership) provided valuable contribution through their participation at the workshops. Their contribution made at the workshop discussions and follow-up correspondence and discussions has been very valuable for the result of the project.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AADT	annual average daily traffic	MPCB	Maharashtra Pollution Control Board
AQG	air quality guidelines	MTBE	Methyl Tertiary Butyl Ether
AQIS	Air Quality Information System	MTNL	Mahanagar Telephone Nigam Ltd
AQMS	Air Quality Management Strategy	NEERI	National Engineering and Environmental Research Institute
BARC	Bhabha Atomic Research Centre	NGO	nongovernment organization
BEST	Bombay Electric Supply & Transport Undertaking	NH₃	ammonia
BIS	Bureau of Indian Standards	NO_x	nitrogen oxides
BMRDA	Bombay Metropolitan Region Development Authority	NPC	National Program Coordinator
CNG	compressed natural gas	ONGC	Oil & Natural Gas Commission
CO	carbon monoxide	PM	particulate matter
CDC	Centers for Disease Control	PM₁₀	particulate matter of 10 microns or less
CPCB	Central Pollution Control Board	PPM	parts per million
DOE	Department of Environment	PCRA	Petroleum Conservation Research Association
FO	fuel Oil; furnace Oil	RAD	restricted activity days
GAIL	Gas Authority of India Ltd.	RHA	respiratory hospital admissions
GDP	Gross Domestic Product	RON	research octane number
GEMS	Global Environmental Monitoring System	RPM	respirable particles
HSD	high speed diesel	RTO	Regional Transport Office
IIP	Indian Institute of Petroleum	SKO	kerosene
IIT	Indian Institute of Technology	SO₂	sulfur dioxide
IMD	India Meteorology Department	SSI	small-scale industries
LDO	light diesel oil	TSP	total suspended particles
LPG	liquid petroleum gas	UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
LSHS	low sulfur high stock	URBAIR	Urban Air Quality Management Strategy
MCGB	Municipal Council of Greater Bombay	USEPA	United States Environmental Protection Agency
MEDA	Maharashtra Energy and Development Authority	VSL	value of statistical life
MEIP	Metropolitan Environmental Improvement Program	WHO	World Health Organization
µg	micrograms (10 ⁻⁶ grams)	WLD	work-loss days
mg	milligrams (10 ⁻³ grams)	WTP	willingness to pay
MOEF	Ministry of Environment and Forests		

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

URBAIR-GREATER MUMBAI (BOMBAY). Larger and more diverse cities are a sign of Asia's increasingly dynamic economies. Yet this growth has come at a cost. Swelling urban populations and increased concentration of industry and automotive traffic in cities has resulted in severe air pollution. Emissions from automobiles and factories; domestic heating, cooking and refuse burning are threatening the well being of city dwellers, imposing not just a direct economic cost on human health but also threatening long-term productivity. Governments, businesses, and communities face the daunting yet urgent task of improving their environment and preventing further air quality deterioration.

Urban Air Quality Management Strategy or URBAIR aims to assist in the design and implementation of policies, monitoring and management tools to restore air quality in the major Asian metropolitan areas. At several workshops and working group meetings, government, industry, local researchers, non-governmental organizations, international and local experts reviewed air quality data and designed action plans. These plans take into account economic costs and benefits of air pollution abatement measures. This report focuses on the development of an air quality management system for Greater Mumbai (Bombay) and the resulting action plan.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF GREATER BOMBAY AND ITS POLLUTION PROBLEM

Greater Bombay's population grew by 38 percent from 1971 to 1981, and another 20 percent between 1981 and 1991 to reach 9.9 million. This growth was accompanied by an increase in the per capita gross domestic product. Expansion of industries, increased foundry production, and a 103 percent increase in vehicles has led to a severe air pollution problem in the city.

Annual average Total Suspended Particles (TSP) concentration has increased from about 180 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (particles per cubic meter) to approximately 270 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ between 1981 and 1990—an increase of almost 50 percent. Nitrous Oxide (NO_x) increased by about 25 percent, while sulfur dioxide (SO_2) concentrations declined due to increased use of natural gas and low-sulfur coal. The average lead (Pb) concentrations doubled from 1980 to 1987. In general, SO_2 and NO_2 pollution is not as serious an issue as TSP and PM_{10} concentrations. The total annual emissions of TSP and PM_{10} are estimated at 32,000 and 16,000 tons/year. The resulting annual average ambient concentration varies from 118 to 313 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at various locations. World Health Organization's Air Quality Guideline (WHO AQG), as well as the National guideline for PM_{10} are frequently and substantially exceeded in Bombay; 97 percent of the population lives in areas where WHO AQG is exceeded. TSP exposure is mainly due to resuspension from roads caused by vehicles (40%), emissions from diesel and gasoline vehicles (14%), domestic wood and refuse burning (31%) and others (15%). Drivers, roadside residents and those who live near large

sources are most severely affected.

Studies conducted between 1976 and 1990 conclude that growing concentrations of air pollutants have led to increased cases of chronic bronchitis, colds, and general decline in lung functions. A 1990 study observed that incidence of different respiratory symptoms and cardiac diseases, respiratory tract infections, and skin allergies was 5 to 10 percent higher in communities near factories in Chembur. Similarly, a study of two high density traffic areas in Bombay found a significant correlation between concentrations of air pollutants and frequency of colds and attacks of breathlessness. Past studies, as well as anecdotal evidence, suggest that Greater Bombay residents' health, especially in high density traffic areas or near industries, is under assault. The health impact is estimated at 2,800 cases of excess mortality, 60 million respiratory symptom days, and 19 million restricted activity days, with an estimated health damage cost of Rs18 billion, per year.

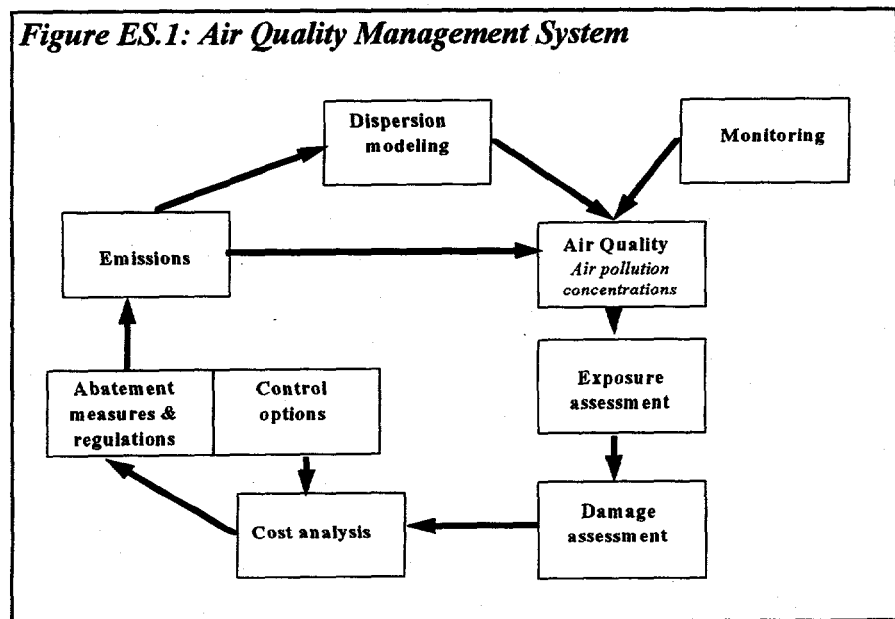
CONCEPT OF AN AIR QUALITY MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

Assessment of pollution, and its control, form two prongs of an Air Quality Management System (AQMS). These components are inputs into a cost-benefit analysis. Air quality guidelines or standards, and economic objectives and constraints also guide the cost-benefit calculation. (See Figure ES.1) An Action Plan contains the optimum set of abatement and control measures for short-, medium- and long-term enactment.

Successful AQMS requires the establishment of an integrated system for continual air quality monitoring. Such a system involves:

- An inventory of air pollution activities and emissions;
- Monitoring of air pollution and dispersion parameters;
- Calculation of air pollution concentrations by dispersion models;
- Inventory of population, building materials and planned urban development;
- Calculation of the effect of abatement/control measures; and
- Establishment/improvement of air pollution regulations.

In order to ensure that an AQMS is having the desired impact, it is necessary to carry out surveillance or monitoring. This requires the establishment of an Air Quality Information System (AQIS) to inform authorities and the general public about air quality and



assess results of abatement measures. AQIS should also provide continuous feedback to the abatement process.

ABATEMENT MEASURES AND ACTION PLAN

Measures to reduce air pollution in Bombay focus on traffic. Traffic emissions are a clear and major source of air pollution exposure. Abatement measures which address other important pollution sources including refuse and wood burning and resuspension of road dust could not be addressed due to lack of data. While pollution control in industrial areas has not been discussed at length, it must also be promoted through enforcement and regulation.

Based on abatement measures, an Action Plan was designed through a consultative process with Bombay URBAIR working groups, the Municipal Council of Greater Bombay, Maharashtra Pollution Control Board, the Transport Commissioner, and local and foreign experts. See Table ES.1 for estimated costs and benefits of these measures. Recommended actions fall under two categories: (1) technical and other measures that will reduce exposure to and damage from pollution; and (2) improvements in the database and in the regulatory and institutional basis required to establish an operative system for air quality management in Greater Bombay.

It is proposed that the following technical and policy measures be given priority:

- **Address gross polluters:** Existing smoke opacity regulations for diesel vehicles must be strictly enforced. Successful action depends on routine maintenance and adjustment of engines.
- **Clean vehicle emission standard:** Establish state-of-the-art emission standards for gasoline cars, diesel vehicles, and motorcycles. Such standards would be better enforced with the assured availability of lead-free gasoline, at prices below that of leaded gasoline.
- **Switch to unleaded gasoline:** This is an early prerequisite for clean vehicle standards. The health benefits stemming from this action would be substantial.

Table ES.1: Action Plan of abatement measures, Greater Bombay, based on cost-benefit analysis

Abatement measure	Avoided emissions tons PM ₁₀ /yr	Mortality reduction	Reduced RSD million days	Annual health benefits million Rs	Annual costs million Rs
Vehicles:					
Unleaded gasoline	*	*	*	*	250-360
Low-smoke, lub oil, 2-stroke	450	65	1.5	150	30
Inspection/maintenance	800	110	2.5	250	150-300
Gross polluters	400	50	1.2	125	*
Clean vehicle standards					
- cars and vans	400	50	1.2	125	750
- motor-, tricycles	750	100	2.4	250	600
Diesel quality	250	35	0.75	80	300
CNG replace gasoline 50%	200	25	0.6	75	*
Fuel combustion					
Cleaner fuel oil (to 2% S)	150	22	0.5	50	450

Time frame for starting the work necessary to introduce measure.

* Not quantified.

- **Use of low-smoke lubrication oil, 2-stroke:** Setting and enforcing a standard for oil quality and is important. Taxes and subsidies can be used to set the price of oil according to its quality.
- **Inspection and maintenance of vehicles:** More maintenance stations able to carry our annual or biannual inspections are needed for enforcement of clean vehicle standards. Basic legislation is already in place. The greatest potential to reduce emissions lies in diesel vehicles and initially, agencies could concentrate on these vehicles.
- **Improving diesel quality:** Indian refineries require modification in order to produce low sulfur (less than 0.2 percent) diesel. Economic instruments such as taxes and subsidies can be used to differentiate fuel price according to quality.
- **Fuel switching, gasoline to LPG/CNG in vehicles:** The tax or subsidy structure must be changed in order to make LPG/CNG the preferred fuel. The establishment of distribution and compression systems for CNG are also a key component of this action.
- **Cleaner fuel oil:** A reduction in the sulfur content of furnace oil, initially to less than 2 percent is a prerequisite.
- **Awareness raising:** Public awareness and participation are key to bringing about policy change. Widespread environmental education promotes understanding of linkages between pollution and health and encourages public involvement. Private sector participation through innovative schemes like accepting delivery only from trucks that meet government emission standards; Adopt-a-Street campaigns, and air quality monitoring displays should be encouraged. Media can also participate in awareness raising by disseminating air pollution-related data.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR STRENGTHENING AIR QUALITY MONITORING, AND INSTITUTIONS

A single coordinating institution with a clear mandate and sufficient resources must be made responsible for air quality management. In order to improve data, it is recommended that there be continuous, long-term monitoring at 5 or more general city sites (or city background sites), 1 to 3 traffic exposed sites, 1 to 5 industrial hot spots. Also, an on-line data retrieval system directly linked to a laboratory database either via modem or fax is recommended for modern surveillance.

The analysis in this report calculates health impacts based on average dose-effect relations derived from U.S. cities because of a lack of local data. Such epidemiological data for exposure calculations should be improved. It is suggested that dispersion modeling experts be identified in Bombay and their expertise used by the agencies responsible for air quality management.

Current restrictions on the use of coal, the Industrial Location Policy (1984), and the Central Action Plan (1992) to discourage non-compliance have been the most effective regulations. Restrictions on auto-rickshaws (three wheelers) and heavy commercial vehicles have had a positive effect on the air quality. It is important to ensure that institutions dealing with air quality be strengthened through clearer mandates and enforcing powers.

Clearly, environmental risks are escalating. If pollution sources are allowed to grow unchecked the economic costs of productivity lost to health problems and congestion will escalate. While working with sparse and often unreliable data, this report sets out a preliminary plan that has the potential to improve air quality and better manage the AQMS in the future.

1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

SCOPE OF THE STUDY²

This city report on air quality management for Greater Mumbai (henceforth referred to as Greater Bombay) has been produced as part of the URBAIR program. A major objective of the URBAIR program is to develop Air Quality Management Systems (AQMS) for Asian cities, and to apply such strategies in the development of Action Plans to improve urban air quality.

AQMS is based on a cost-benefit analysis of proposed actions, and measures for air pollution abatement. In general, costs relate to abatement measures while benefits include a potential reduction in the estimated costs of health damage resulting from air pollution. This study emphasizes the damage to the health of those who are exposed to air pollution. Population exposure is based on measured and calculated concentrations of air pollution through emission inventories and dispersion modeling.

A general strategy for AQMS is described in the *URBAIR Guidebook on Air Quality Management Strategy* published by MEIP. In addition to this Technical Paper, others based on city-specific analysis are produced for three MEIP cities: Kathmandu Valley, Jakarta, and Metro Manila (World Bank Technical Paper nos. 378, 379, and 380). These reports outline action plans for air quality improvement (Chapter 5), including estimates of cost-and-benefit figures. The action plans are based comprehensive lists of proposed measures and actions developed by local working groups in consultation with outside experts.

The appendices of the report contains more detailed description of the air quality data, the emissions inventory and emissions factors, population exposure calculations and local laws and regulations.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF GREATER BOMBAY

Geography. Bombay is located on India's west coast, on a peninsula originally composed of seven islets. Drainage and concentration have caused the islets to join and form the present-day Bombay Island, with the Arabian Sea to the west, and Bombay Harbor and the outlet of Thana Creek to the east. Municipal boroughs and villages of Bombay Island and Salsett Island to the north were joined in 1957 to form Greater Bombay. The Bombay Metropolitan Region (BMR)

² Except as indicated, "dollars" refers to 1992-3 U.S. dollars.

All tables and figures, except as indicated, were created by the authors for this report.

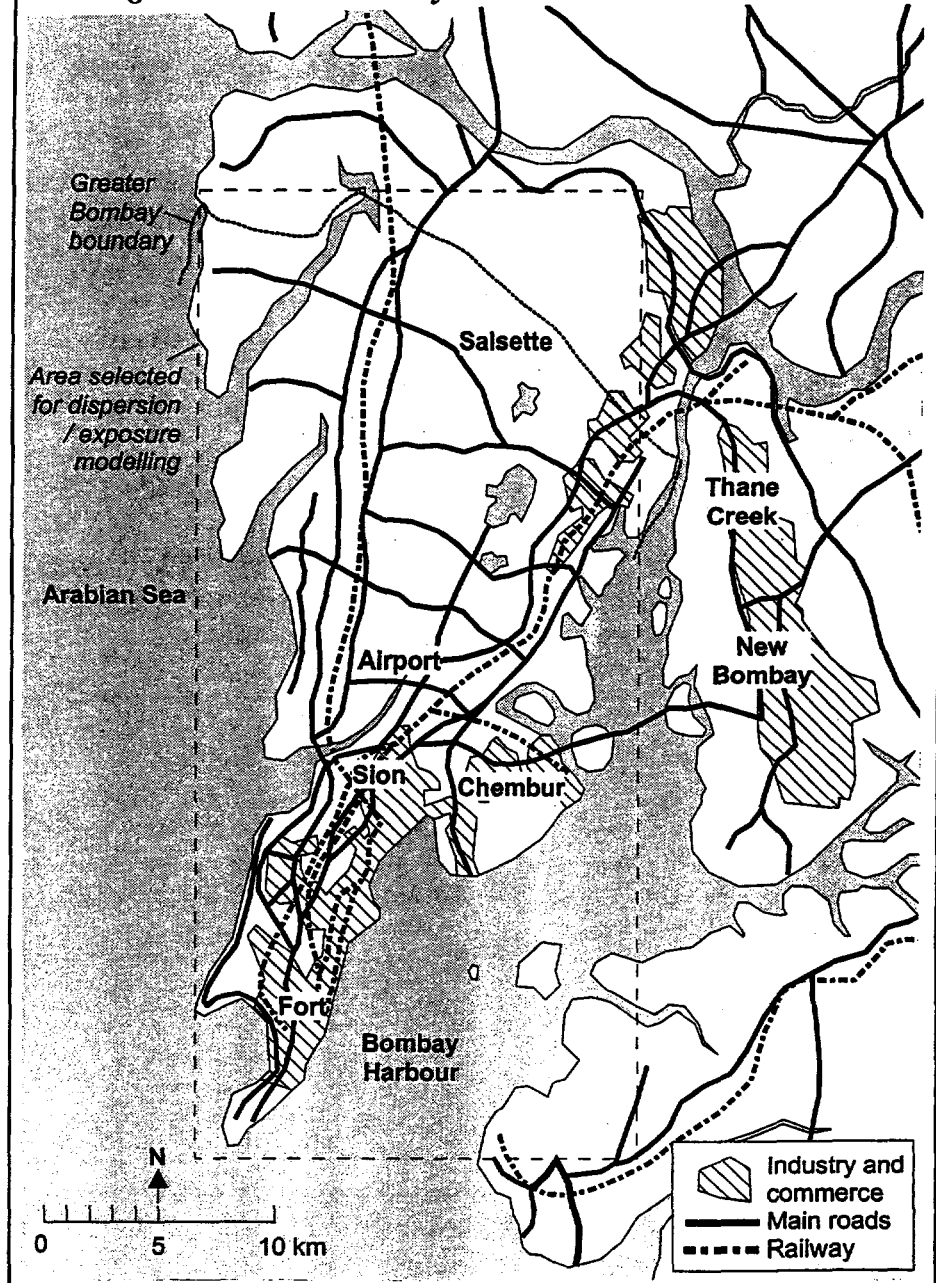
continued to expand and now includes New Bombay to the east of Thana Creek, and Bombay Harbor and other areas further to the north and east. In the mid-1980s BMR covered an area of more than 600 square kilometers (km²). Figure 1.1 shows a map of BMR. Much of Bombay is on a flat plain, one-fourth of which is below sea level. Two north-south ridges flank the flat area, the highest point being Malabar Hill to the south-west, 55 meters above sea level.

Population. The population density of Greater Bombay averages about 16,500 persons per km² (1991), with more than three times this figure in the older central parts of Bombay. The total population was about 9.9 million in 1991.

Transportation. Bombay is India's main industrial city with many air-polluting industries located in Chembur, in

eastern Bombay. The main roads are congested most of the day, particularly the eastern and western express highways and the Thana Creek Bridge Road. Municipal and commercial activity is concentrated in the city's southern part. Commuting to and from populated areas to the north places a large burden on the road system. The capacity of the road and rail system to accommodate the increasing need for south-north commuting is much too small, leading to chronic day-time congestion. Maximum traffic flow (Annual Average Daily Traffic, AADT) at a

Figure 1.1: Bombay Metropolitan Region, and Greater Bombay, with main roads, railroads, industrial and commercial areas, and modeling area used in this study



road section is about 120,000 vehicles per day. Three suburban, surface, electric train systems provide the main public transportation, together with the municipally owned bus fleet. The former carries more than 4 million passengers per day, while the latter transports about 4.5 million people. Bombay Harbor is India's busiest, handling more than 40 percent of India's maritime trade.

The land use structure of Bombay has undergone major changes in the past decade. Massive housing developments have arisen in previously non-urban belts along the western corridor and the Bombay-Pune (eastern) rail corridor. New Bombay on the mainland, east of Thane Creek, has become a center of commercial activity. Commercial complexes have been developed in the reclamation area along Mahim Creek and Mithi River on the outskirts of the island city. A new district center—Oshiwara—has emerged in the northern suburbs. (Coopers & Lybrand and AIC, 1994)

DATA SOURCES

Previous studies. There has been no comprehensive study of the air pollution situation in Bombay, describing air quality, sources, emissions, and exposure. The Maharashtra Pollution Control Board (MPCB), the Municipal Corporation of Greater Bombay (MCGB) and the National Engineering and Environmental Research Institute (NEERI) have presented various data on air quality and emissions. The Bombay air pollution situation is briefly described by the World Health Organization and United Nations Environment Programme (WHO/UNEP, 1992) based mainly on the three Global Environmental Monitoring System (GEMS) monitoring sites in Bombay, operated by the National Environmental Engineering Research Institute (NEERI).

The MEIP study, "Environmental Management Strategy and Action Plan for Bombay Metropolitan Region," (Coopers & Lybrand and AIC, 1994) includes the air pollution sector and proposed management options, as it does for other environmental sectors. The recently reported Comprehensive Study of Bombay Metropolitan Region (Atkins, 1993) has provided essential data on the traffic activity in Greater Bombay.

URBAIR data collection. Further data on various aspects of population, pollution sources, dispersion, air quality, and health aspects were collected for URBAIR, starting in April 1993. ADITYA Environmental Services, Bombay, provided data on population, pollution sources, fuel, vehicle and traffic statistics, air quality measurements, and meteorological/dispersion conditions. Dr. A. A. Mahashur of the Environmental Pollution Research Center in Bombay contributed evidence of the health effects of air pollution on the Bombay population, and on associated health costs. (See Appendix 8 for further details.)

THE GROWTH OF BOMBAY, 1981–1991

Bombay's population grew by 38 percent from 1971 to 1981, and another 20 percent between 1981 and 1991, to reach 9.9 million. The total number of vehicles increased by about 103 percent from 1981 to 1991, leading to increased consumption of gasoline and diesel oil. Between 1985–1990, gasoline and light diesel oil consumption increased by 26 percent and 24 percent

respectively, while furnace oil use decreased significantly. The 1990 gross domestic product per capita (GDP/capita) figure for India is US\$350, and the corresponding figure for Bombay is expected to have been much higher. Over the period 1965–1990, the growth rate of GDP/ per capita was 1.9 percent, about the same as for the U.S. Over the last decade the annual increase was 3.2 percent. Figure 1.2 gives a summary of the available data regarding population, vehicles, fuel consumption and air quality, and development over the last decade.

Air quality measurements over the last decade show a definite increase in average total suspended particles (TSP) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) concentrations, while sulfur dioxide (SO₂) concentrations have decreased. This appears to correspond with the decrease in furnace oil consumption, and increase in traffic emissions. TSP concentrations (annual average, and maximum 24-hours) are much higher than WHO Air Quality Guidelines of 90 µg/m³ at many measuring sites. At certain times WHO Air Quality Guideline for SO₂ (24-hour averages) is also exceeded.

Table 1.1: Population and growth rate 1981–1991, Bombay.

	1981	1991
Island City	3,283,000	3,109,500
Western Suburbs	2,860,000	3,975,400
Eastern Suburbs	2,100,000	2,824,600
Greater Bombay	8,243,400	9,909,500
Pop. density per km ²	13,670	16,430

Table 1.2: The age distribution of the Greater Bombay population, 1991.

Age	%	Age	%
0–9	21.2	40–44	5.7
10–14	10.4	45–49	4.8
15–19	9.8	50–54	3.6
20–24	11.7	55–59	2.4
25–29	10.7	60–64	1.9
30–34	8.1	65–69	1.1
35–39	7.1	>70	1.5

POPULATION

Population data for 1981 and 1991 for Greater Bombay, the Island City, Western and Eastern Suburbs (1990) is summarized in Table 1.1. From 1980 to 1990 population grew by 20 percent. The average density in 1990 was about 16,500 inhabitants per km². The age distribution in Greater Bombay is given in Table 1.2 (1991). Almost a third of the population (31.5 percent) was under 15 years of age, and 66 percent were 15–65 years old.

VEHICLE FLEET

The vehicle fleet in Bombay is categorized by cars (passenger, taxis, and light-duty vehicles); trucks and buses; motorcycles; and auto-rickshaws (tricycles). Of the 630 million vehicles in 1991, 48 percent were cars (including taxis), 39 percent were motorcycles, and 9 percent were trucks and buses. Table 1.3 provides the fleet data from 1981 to 1991.

Table 1.3: Registered vehicle fleet data in Bombay).

	Vehicles (Unit: 1,000)					
	Cars and taxis	Utility vehicles	Trucks/ Buses	Motorcycles	Tricycles	Total
1981	180,334	3,677	41,931	78,474	4,465	308,881
1982	192,281	4,035	41,932	94,671	8,487	341,406
1983	204,228	4,393	41,933	110,868	12,510	373,932
1984	216,175	4,751	41,934	127,065	16,532	406,457
1985	228,122	5,109	41,935	143,262	20,555	438,983
1986	240,069	5,469	50,500	159,549	24,577	480,165
1987	253,215	5,646	51,515	177,577	24,577	512,530
1988	266,361	5,823	52,530	195,696	24,577	544,987
1989	279,507	6,000	53,545	213,814	24,577	577,443
1990	292,653	6,177	54,562	231,932	24,577	609,901
1991	299,289	6,501	56,086	242,008	24,577	628,461

Source: BMRDA (1990).

Figure 1.2: Bombay development 1981–1992: Population, vehicle fleet, fuel consumption and air quality

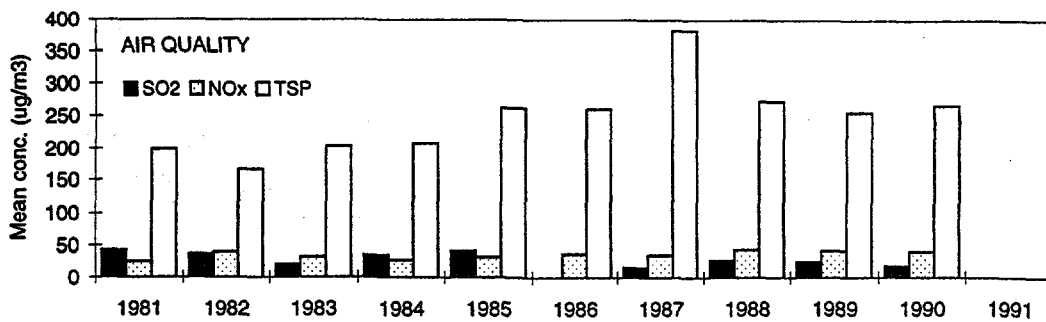
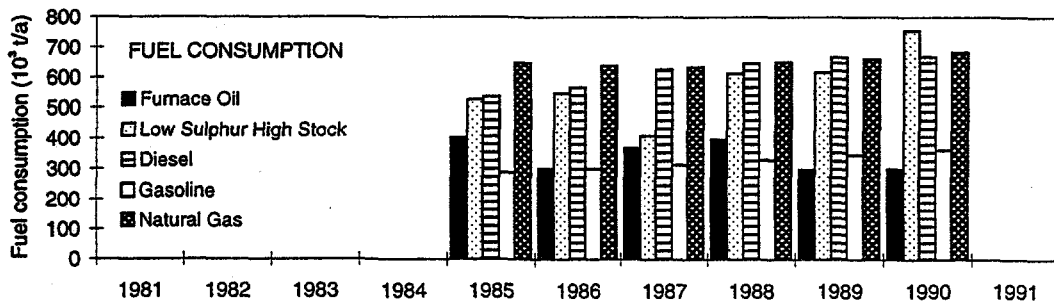
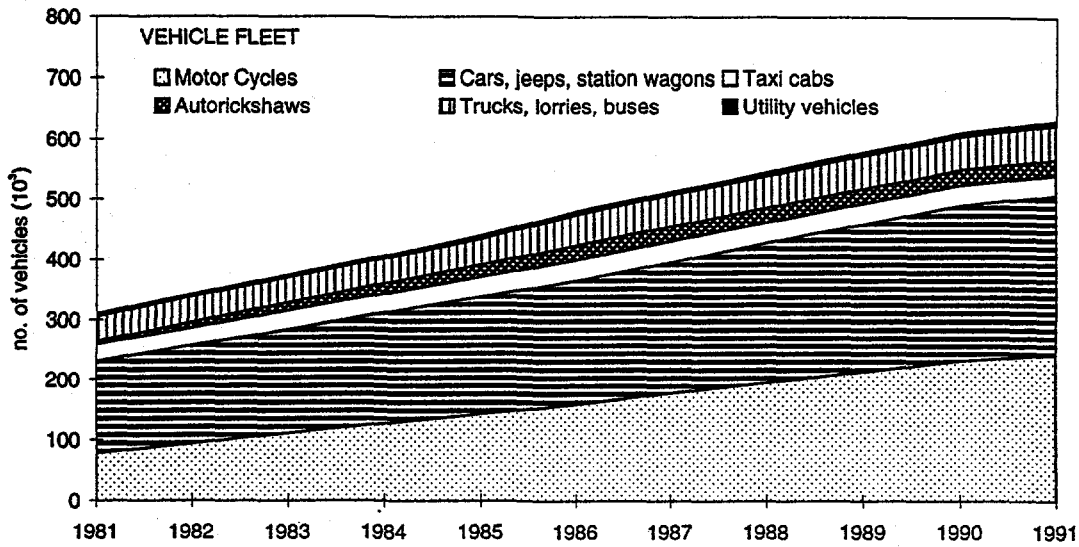
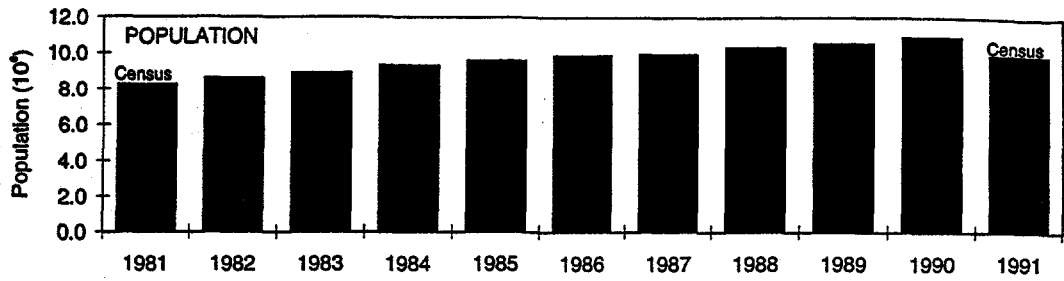


Table 1.4 shows that there was substantial growth in fleet size between 1981 and 1991. The average total annual increase was 7.3 percent, largest for tricycles and motorcycles (19 percent and 12 percent per year). The number of tricycles which had been stable between 1986 and 1991, has been on the rise since 1993.

In 1991, Bombay had 63 vehicles per 1,000 inhabitants. This includes 30 cars per 1,000 persons; 5.5 trucks/buses per 1,000; and 24 motor- and tricycles per 1,000 inhabitants. The percentage of diesel-powered cars was estimated at 20 percent.

Table 1.4: Vehicle growth rate, annual average, Bombay

	1981-1991 % growth
Passenger cars	5.2
Utility vehicles	5.9
Trucks	2.9
Motorcycles	11.8
Tricycles	19.0
Total	7.3

Source: BMRDA (1990).

ROAD AND TRANSPORT

The growth in traffic activity in four cordons: Mid-city (by Mahalakshmi), Island (by Sion); Mid-suburban (by Malad Creek-Pavai Lake); and Outer cordon (by Dahisar-Thane, i.e. Greater Bombay limits), is recorded here. See Figure 1.3.

Data for growth in traffic and transport in Greater Bombay are taken from the Traffic Survey in Greater Bombay Report (1988) conducted by the Bombay Metropolitan Region Development Authority (BMRDA, 1990).

Traffic activity and growth during 1978-1988 is shown in Table 1.5. There has been a 5-6 percent growth in the outer cordons while the growth has been small on Island and Mid-city (1.5-5 percent per annum).

Growth across the outer cordon has mainly taken place along the western routes (Western Express Highway and Sion Panvel Roads, 192 percent and 124 percent total growth during 1978-1988, respectively). At the mid-suburban cordon, the growth has been more uniform along the four main corridors, about 40-75 percent during 1978-1988.

Motorized passenger traffic has increased the most, especially across outer and mid-suburban cordons. Goods traffic has actually declined in the Mid-City, possibly because some wholesale markets have moved out of the Island City.

The main increase in passenger vehicle traffic growth (more than 200 percent increase in the outer cordon during 1978-1988) has been due to two-wheeler traffic across all cordons. Private car traffic has increased moderately (20-30 percent over the decade), while auto-rickshaw traffic has to a large extent replaced taxis in the suburbs, indicated by the very large increase in number of auto-rickshaws early in the decade. The growth rate for various vehicle categories is presented in Table 1.6.

Table 1.5: Growth in traffic activities across four cordons across Greater Bombay, 1978-1988.

Traffic Cordon	Total daily vehicle	Increase %	
		1988	1978-1988 Annual
Outer cordon	80,370	58	4.7
Mid-suburban	156,400	70	5.5
Island	195,270	15	1.4
Mid-City	229,960	20	1.8

Source: BMRDA (1990).

Table 1.6: Growth rates in Greater Bombay traffic for vehicle categories

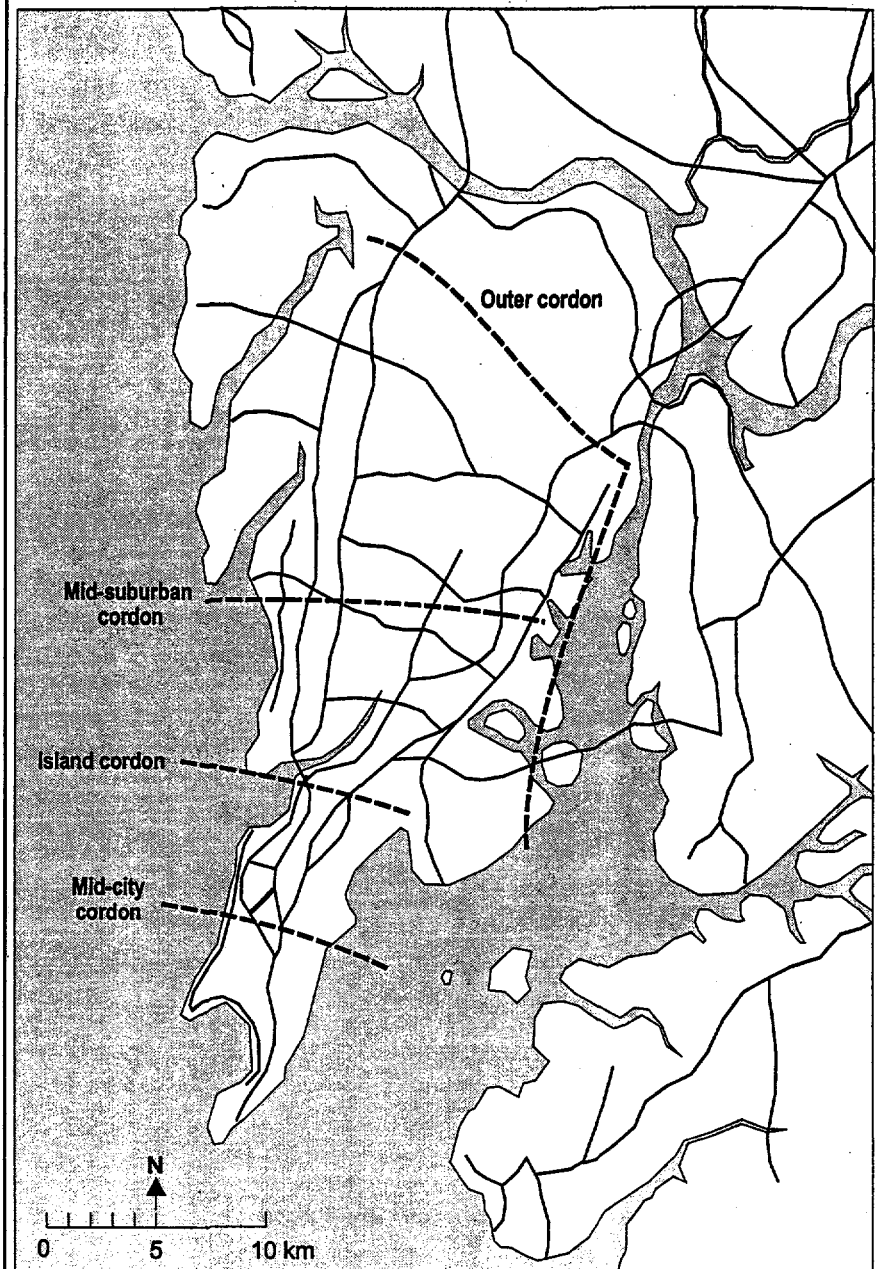
	Growth rate % per annum		
	Passenger vehicles	Goods vehicles	Cycles and other vehicles
Outer cordon	6.0	4.5	-2.8
Mid-suburban	6.8	1.5	2.7
Island	2.0	0.1	-4.4
Mid-city	3.0	-2.6	-1.85

Source: BMRDA (1990).

Increased volume has resulted in a substantial slowing down of traffic, especially on the main corridors. Along the Eastern corridor, the speeds are low (15–30 km/h) and have not changed substantially. However, the average speed along the main Western corridor has declined from 50 km/h in 1962 to 30–40 km/h in the late 1970s, and 20–30 km/h in 1990. Similarly, the average speed in the Eastern corridor has fallen from 30 km/h in 1962 to 20–25 km/h in 1979, and 15 km/h in 1990 (Deshpande et al. 1993).

The BMRDA study of the rates of increase in population, registered vehicles, and traffic flow revealed that the large population growth in the suburbs, both immediate and extended, has caused a considerable increase in traffic flow in these areas. In the Island City, however, both population growth and traffic flow have stagnated (compared to 1962–78), although the number of registered vehicles has increased substantially (Table 1.7).

Figure 1.3: Four cordons studied for growth traffic activity in Greater Bombay



Note: Solid bold lines show the main road network of BMR.

INDUSTRIAL SOURCES

Aside from being India's financial and commercial center, Bombay is also the most industrialized Indian city. There are approximately 40,000 small and big industries in the city, of which 32 have been classified as hazardous (Table 1.8). Industries in the air polluting category include textile mills, chemical, pharmaceutical engineering, and foundry units. Process emissions, and those from fuel consumption, constitute the main sources of air pollution. This study does not account for industrial fugitive emissions. Major air pollution sources include a giant fertilizer/chemical complex; two oil refineries, and a thermal power plant, all based in Chembur, a suburb on the eastern coast of the Bombay Island.

Industrial growth has been concentrated in the Tromby-Chembur and Lalbaug areas. In addition, industries have developed along Lal Bahadur Shastri Marg (Street) passing through the Central suburbs toward Thane; in the Andheri-Kurla area in Central Bombay, and along the Western Express highway leading out of Bombay. Figure 1.4 shows a map of major industrial sources in Bombay. As part of this URBAIR study, emissions data were collected for about 280 large and medium industries in Greater Bombay.

Table 1.7: Broad comparison of growth rates of population, registered vehicles and traffic flow

	Growth rates, 1978-1988 (% p.a.)		
	Population	Registered vehicles	Traffic flow
Island City	0.12	6.1	1.8 (Mid-City cordon) 1.4 (Island City cordon)
Suburbs	2.1	14.6	5.5 (Mid-suburb cordon)
Extended suburbs	8.2		4.9 (Outer cordon)
Greater Bombay	2.6	8.1	1.7

Source: BMRDA (1990).

Table 1.8: Industrial classification in Greater Bombay

Type of Industries	Number of Industries
Mechanical Workshop	3,348
Plastic and Rubber	32
Printing Press	1,075
Chemical	523
Textile	531
Pesticide	9
Miscellaneous	33,790
Thermal Power Plant	1
Total	40,369

FUEL CONSUMPTION

Over the period 1985-91, gasoline, high speed diesel (HSD) and low-sulfur high stock (LSHS) consumption increased by 26 percent, 28 percent, and 43 percent respectively. Furnace oil consumption decreased by 26 percent over the same period. The 1992-93 data indicate a further increase. In the LSHS column, the TATA power plant consumption is not fully accounted for in the data for 1985-91, as it is for 1992-93. Available fuel consumption data are presented in Table 1.9.

Figure 1.4: Position of the industrial sources in Bombay with TSP emissions, mapped in this study



Coal consumption data for the same period are not available. Consumption in 1985–86 was 2,124,000 metric tons per year, with a sulfur content of 0.5 percent and ash content of 12 percent.

AREA SOURCES

Much of the fuel is consumed in small installations and by small units. This also includes wood and coal combustion, which is not included in Table 1.9. Wood combustion is an especially significant source of suspended particle pollution. About 1,100 of Bombay's 1,400 bakeries use wood for energy, as do the crematoria. The slum population also consumes a considerable volume of wood.

Table 1.9: Fossil fuel consumption, Greater Bombay (million l/yr.)

	Furnace Oil	Low Sulfur High Stock	High Speed Diesel	Light diesel oil	Gasoline	LPG	Kerosene
1985–1986	403	527	438	99	287	201	447
1986–1987	300	549	469	99	300	202	436
1987–1988	367	408	508	118	314	204	430
1988–1989	397	612	529	118	330	213	438
1989–1990	298	616	551	115	345	213	448
1990–1991	299	755	560	108	362	214	471
1992–1993	306	1488 ¹	583	46 ²	279 ²	233 ³	480 ³

Note:

- 1 LSHS Data for 1985–91 takes account of only part of TATA Thermal Power Plant requirement and does not account for Refineries' own consumption.
- 2 Incomplete data from Refineries.
- 3 Data from Rationing Inspectorate, Dept. of Civil Supplies.

Source: (i) E.S & P Dept; MCGB (for period 1985–91).

(ii) 1992–93 Data generated under URBAIR by ADITYA.

Sources responsible for such distributed consumption are termed "area sources," of which one, vehicular traffic, is already treated above. Fuel consumption for stationary area-distributed sources, for 1990, is shown in Table 1.10.

Table 1.10: 1990 Fuel consumption for area-distributed sources (10³ metric tons/year)

	FO	LSHS	HSD	LDO	LPG	SKO	Wood
Small scale industry	123	56	40	42	7		
Domestic Bakeries/crematoria					233 ¹	387 ²	101 ³
Marine (port/bay)	100	56	6	3			160/320

Note:

- 1 Consumed by the non-slum population.
- 2 Consumed by the total population.
- 3 Consumed by the slum population.

Source: ADITYA for URBAIR.

2. AIR QUALITY ASSESSMENT

This chapter provides an estimate of the population exposure to air pollutants, and quantifies the contribution of various pollution source categories to this exposure.

This estimate of population exposure is arrived at through the following analysis:

- description of air pollution concentration measurements, and their variation in time and space;
- inventory of air pollution sources and their relative contributions;
- description of concentration distributions in the area, by means of dispersion modeling; and,
- calculation of the population exposure by combining spatial distributions of population and concentrations, and considering exposure on roads and in industrial areas.

AIR POLLUTION CONCENTRATIONS

Overview of database. Air pollution measurement programs reveal that Bombay has a substantial particle pollution problem, with frequent and widespread exceeding of TSP and PM₁₀ air quality guidelines. According to the measurements, the SO₂ pollution problem seems less pronounced, although guidelines are sometimes exceeded. NO_x concentrations are presently within WHO guidelines.

Monitoring networks and results of measurements are described in greater detail in Appendix 1. Assessments are based on data from various monitoring networks. MCGB has a network of 22 measurement stations in commercial, industrial, and residential areas. Levels of TSP, SO₂, NO_x, and Ammonia (NH₃) are measured as 8-hour averages (and a few 24-hour periods) per month. Most of the sites can be characterized as area-representative (city sites), while some are influenced by nearby traffic. At the GEMS network of three sites located south of Santa Cruz airport, and operated by NEERI, levels of TSP, SO₂, and nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) are measured a few days per month. MPCB monitors air quality from a mobile van, frequenting a number of established monitoring sites inside and outside Bombay. Rashtriya Chemicals and Fertilizer (RCF), Ltd., in Chembur, monitors air quality at several sites at its plant by continuous analyzers and also monitors meteorological data at one site. The Indian Meteorological Department (IMD) operates meteorological stations at the Santa Cruz Airport and at the Colaba Observatory.

TSP air quality guidelines. The TSP Air Quality Guidelines applicable to Bombay are shown in Table 2.1 (also see Appendix 2 for details on WHO guidelines).

The annual average TSP values at all stations fall below the Indian (Bombay) air quality guidelines. The long- and short-term WHO guidelines are, however, exceeded at all stations. Although Indian (Bombay) guidelines are not exceeded, it should be noted that the Bombay

guideline for TSP is considerably less stringent than those of WHO, as is apparent from the above Table. Considering the fact that TSP readings at MCGB are all recorded at heights ranging from 4–10 meters (on roof tops of buildings), these values are very high.

The sites with highest TSP concentrations are Maravali and Chembur Naka (both in Chembur), Sion, Parel, and Mulund. Maravali station has recorded very high 24-hour average TSP values (in the range 400–500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) during dry seasons, while Chembur, Sion, Parel, and Mulund stations have recorded values between 250–400 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. These monitoring stations are located in industrial areas, and along highly trafficked roads.

Figure 2.1 shows annual average TSP concentrations at the 18 MCGB sites monitored in 1992-93. Figure 2.2 shows the monthly average at the Parel site. The annual average was 265 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, while the maximum monthly average of two to four 24-hourly values, was about 400 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

The average TSP concentration in Bombay has increased considerably since 1980, from about 200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to about 250 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in 1991. The year 1987 was exceptional with an annual average TSP concentration close to 400 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

Data from Parel Station (Figure 2.2) show the typical annual variation observed at all MCGB sites in Bombay. The concentration is much higher in the dry season (November–April) than during the monsoon (July–September). Dry season TSP could be higher by as much as a factor of three. This reflects one or more of the following effects: increased washout of particles during the monsoon; decreased resuspension from the ground during the monsoon; and/or increased wind speed and turbulence causing dispersion during the monsoon. Extremely high TSP concentrations, up to 3,170 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, were measured at the Mahim Junction. Recorded maximum values exceed the WHO air quality guideline by a factor of up to 10, and the Bombay air quality guideline by a factor of 6. From the available evidence it can be concluded that TSP is a major air pollution problem in most of Bombay. It is worst near streets and industrial areas, and during the dry season. Measurements for TSP, SO_2 , NO_2 , and carbon monoxide (CO), taken at street junctions are presented in Table 2.2.

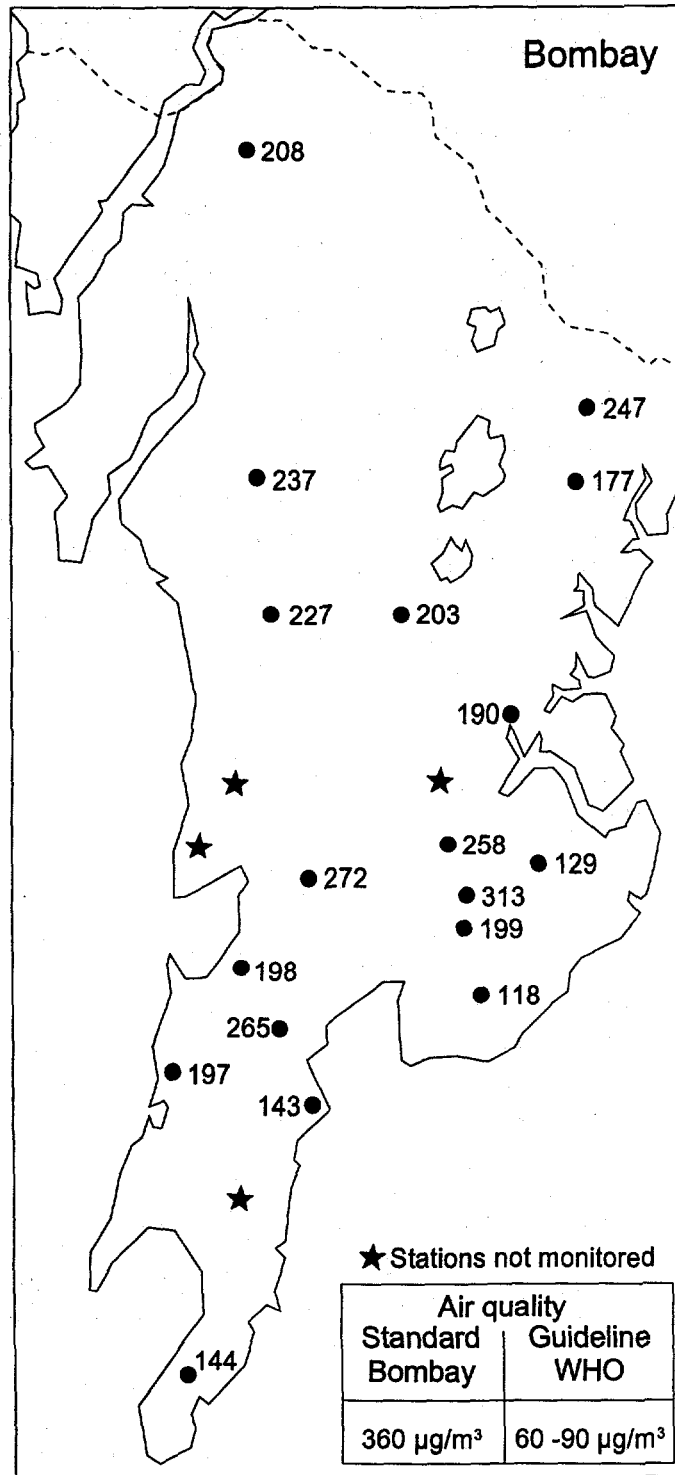
Table 2.1: TSP air quality guidelines applicable to Bombay

	WHO ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Indian (Bombay) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
Long-term (annual average):	60–90	360*
Short-term (24 hour average):	150–230	500**

Source: National Ambient Air Quality Standards for Industrial and Mixed Use Areas, see S.O. 384(E) under Air Pollution Control Act, Government of India 1981.
For WHO guidelines see WHO/UNEP (1992).

Note: * Annual average mean of minimum 104 (24 hourly) measurements in a year.
** Should be met 98 percent of the time in a year. Should not be exceeded on two consecutive days.

Figure 2.1: Mean TSP concentrations at MCGB stations in the period June 1992–May 1993 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)



Note: For site location, see Figure 1, Appendix 1.

PM₁₀ air quality guidelines.

The PM₁₀ air quality guidelines applicable to Bombay, as well as the WHO standard, are given in Table 2.3.

PM₁₀ has not recently been measured in Bombay. However, a 1982–1983, respirable particles, human exposure study (WHO, 1984) is summarized in Table 2.4

The results of this study indicate that concentrations of, and exposure to, PM₁₀ in Bombay in 1982 were much higher than the WHO air quality guideline, with

Figure 2.2: Monthly average TSP concentrations at the MCGB Parel site for 1987-1988 and 1992-1993 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)

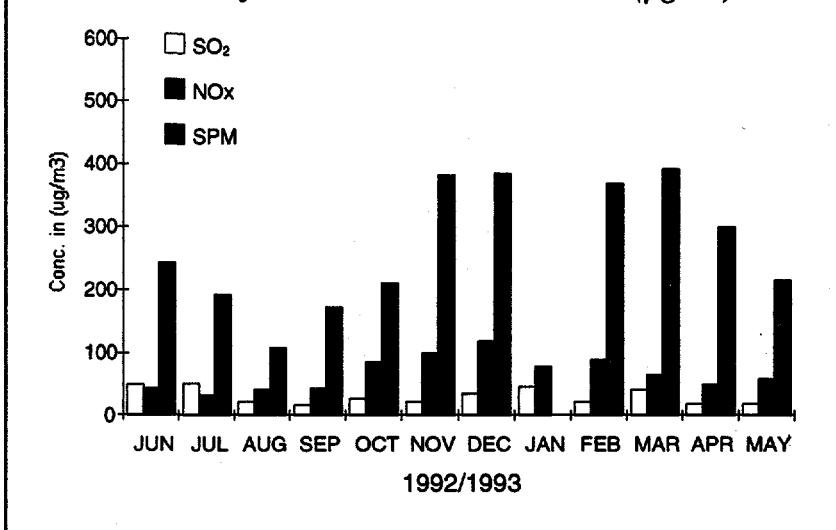


Table 2.2: Results of ambient air monitoring ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) at different traffic junctions in Bombay.

Site	Monitoring Period	SO ₂			NO ₂		
		# samples	AVG	MAX.	# samples	AVG	MAX.
1. V.T.	2.12.91	12	89	127	12	175	296
	-6.12.91						
2. Nana Chowk	9.12.91	12	60	104	12	124	162
	-13.12.91						
3. Maheshwari Udyan	20.01.92	12	117	162	12	156	210
	-24.01.92						
4. Mahim	24.03.92	8	43	120	8	90	107
	-26.03.92						
5. Worli Naka	22.04.92	9	38	80	9	56	83
	-25.04.92						
6. Sion Circle	27.04.92	9	90	125	9	117	167
	-30.04.92						
		TSP			CO - PPM		
		# samples	AVG	MAX.	# samples	AVG	MAX.
1. V.T.	2.12.91	12	651	1,072	15	11.1	13.3
	-6.12.91						
2. Nana Chowk	9.12.91	12	480	555	23	6.5	7
	-13.12.91						
3. Maheshwari Udyan	20.01.92	12	1,309	1,653	39	7.5	9.7
	-24.01.92						
4. Mahim	24.03.92	8	1,144	3,170	31	6.2	15.6
	-26.03.92						
5. Worli Naka	22.04.92	9	542	668	30	5.1	9.6
	-25.04.92						
6. Sion Circle	27.04.92	9	708	1,094	30	5.8	9.7
	-30.04.92						

Source: Correspondence with MCGB.

maximum values as high as 6 times the guideline. Although long-term concentrations were below the Bombay air quality guideline, short-term (24-hour) concentrations frequently exceeded the present standard.

Lead. Lead measurements at the 22 MCGB sites (1980–1987) indicate that it is a significant pollutant in Bombay. Annual average levels ranged from 0.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to 1.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. These exceed the WHO guideline annual average (0.5–1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, long-term) and the Bombay guideline (1.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, annual average and 1.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 24-hour average), at all locations.

From 1980 to 1987, average lead concentration in the air nearly doubled. Considering the frequency of measurements, these very high "monthly" averages are likely to represent single, 24-hour values. The Eastern Suburban zone was the most exposed area with monthly average concentrations as high as 17.9 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, recorded at the Mulund Site in October 1984. Lead concentrations in the Central Bombay area were also high, with the highest monthly average of 8.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ measured at Dadar in January 1985.

The Indian standard for maximum lead content of gasoline is 0.56 grams per liter in regular gasoline (Research Octane Number 87 or RON 87) and 0.80 grams per liter in premium gasoline (RON 93). In Bombay, most gasoline sold in the last 8–9 years has about 0.18–0.19 grams per liter. About 30 percent of the gasoline consumed has a high lead content, although it complies with the Indian standard.

SO_2 and SO_4 . Indian (Bombay) and WHO air quality guidelines for SO_2 are given in Table 2.5. The annual average SO_2 concentration in Bombay (MCGB sites) has decreased since the 1980 average of about 45 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, to about 25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in 1992/93. This decrease is also apparent at the GEMS sites. Extremely high sulfate concentrations in particles were measured during the respirable particle study in 1982 (WHO, 1984) with average concentrations in the range 20–30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and maximum 24-hour concentrations as high as 88 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Contribution from sea aerosol may at times make considerable additions to these concentrations.

Table 2.3: PM_{10} standards applicable to Bombay

	WHO ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Indian (Bombay) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
Long-term (annual average):	-	120*
Short-term (24 hour average):	70	150**

Source: National Ambient Air Quality Standards for Industrial and Mixed Use Areas. Refer to S.O. 384(E) under Air Pollution Control Act, 1981, Government of India. For WHO Guidelines, see WHO/UNEP (1992).

* Annual average mean of minimum 104 (24 hourly) measurements in a year.

** Should be met 98 percent of the time in a year. Should not be exceeded on two consecutive days.

Table 2.4: Respirable particle concentrations measured in Bombay, 1982 (average and maximum 24-hour concentration)

	Winter	Summer	Monsoon
Person: personal monitor	127/434	67/188	58/138
Indoor: in the person's home	118/327	65/231	62/131
Outdoor: outside the person's home	117/251	65/225	51/106
Monitoring site: measurements at the nearest fixed monitoring site	112/204	53/100	44/122

Note: Each average number represents about 100 samples.

Table 2.5: Bombay air quality guidelines for SO_2 and SO_4

	Indian (Bombay)	WHO
Long-term (annual) average	80 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
Short-term (24-hour) average	120 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	125 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

Source: S.O. 384(E) under Air Pollution Control Act, 1981, Government of India, and WHO/UNEP (1992).

The summary of measurements in 1992/1993, shown in Figure 2.3, indicates that long-term average SO_2 concentrations are fairly low, and less than the WHO and Bombay guidelines at all sites. The maximum 24-hour values probably exceed the air quality guidelines at some sites, although only occasionally. The Pararosaniline (TCM) colorimetric method is used in these measurements.

NO_x . Bombay air quality standards and WHO Guidelines for NO_x are not directly comparable since the WHO guideline specifies NO_2 , while the Bombay standard specifies NO_x as NO_2 (i.e. $\text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$, measured as NO_2 .) Even so, the Bombay NO_x standard is stricter than the WHO NO_2 guidelines. The guidelines for NO_2 and NO_x are given in Table 2.6.

The annual average summary of NO_x measurements in 1992–93 is shown in Figure 2.4. The highest concentration, $83 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at Sion, barely exceeds the Bombay standards. The other stations are well below the standard. The highest 24-hour average concentrations most probably exceeds that standard ($120 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). The annual average NO_x concentration, averaged over all stations in Bombay, has increased from about $25 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in 1981 to about $40 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in 1990, and $46 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in 1993. The summary of NO_x concentrations at MCGB stations in the period June 1992–May 1993 is shown in Figure 2.4.

Table 2.6: Bombay air quality guidelines for NO_x

	Indian (Bombay) NO_x as NO_2	WHO NO_2
Long term (annual) average	$80 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	
Short term (24 hour) average	$120 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	$150 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

Source: S.O. 384(E) under Air Pollution Control Act, 1981, Government of India, and WHO/UNEP (1992).

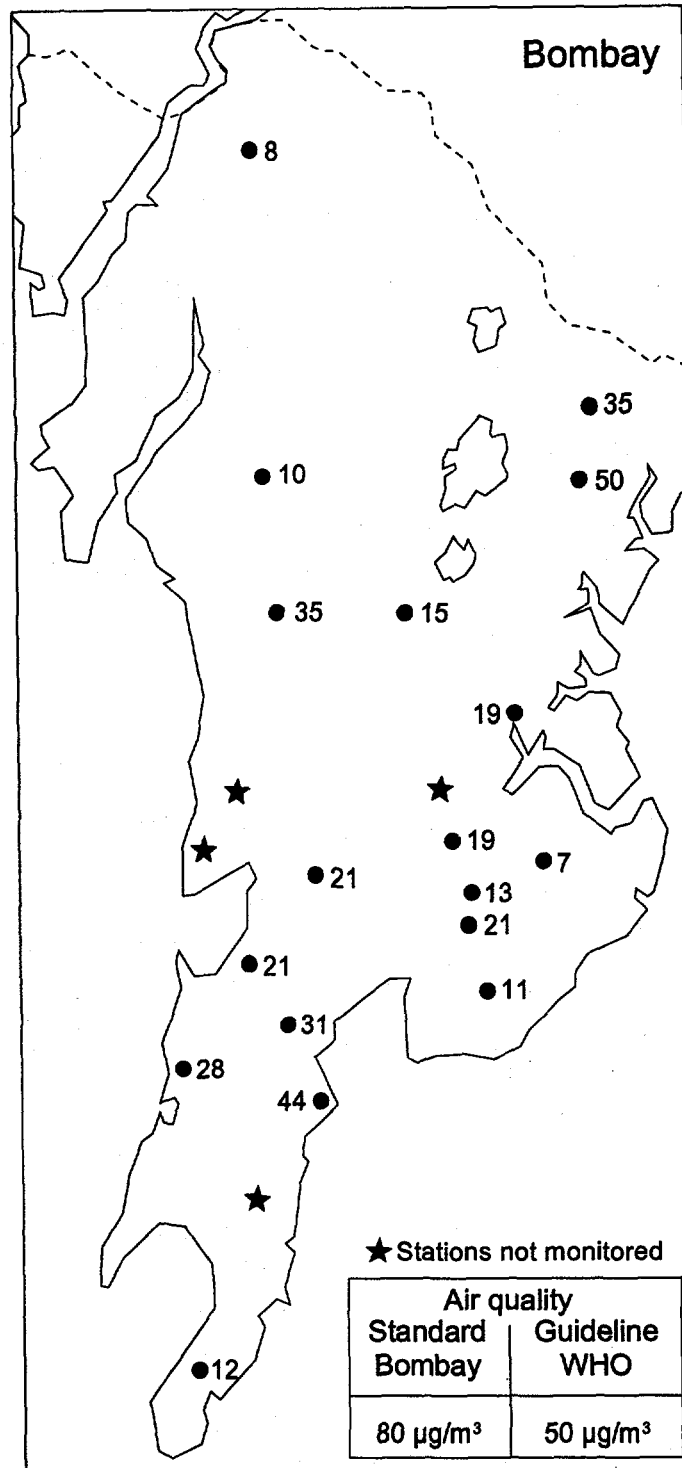
AIR POLLUTANT EMISSIONS IN GREATER BOMBAY

Total emissions. A comprehensive emission inventory was developed for Bombay as part of the URBAIR project. The local URBAIR consultant collected the necessary input data, according to the project description (Appendix 8). The traffic emission distribution was developed on the basis of road and traffic data included in the Comprehensive Transport Plan for Bombay (Atkins, 1993).

Appendix 4 describes the development of the emission inventory. The results of the emission inventory are presented in Table 2.7. These are based on the emission factor data given in Table 2.8, and the fuel consumption data in Table 2.9. Traffic activity data are described in detail in Appendix 4. Emission factors for particles are described in Appendix 5. Appendix 7 contains the emission spreadsheet calculations.

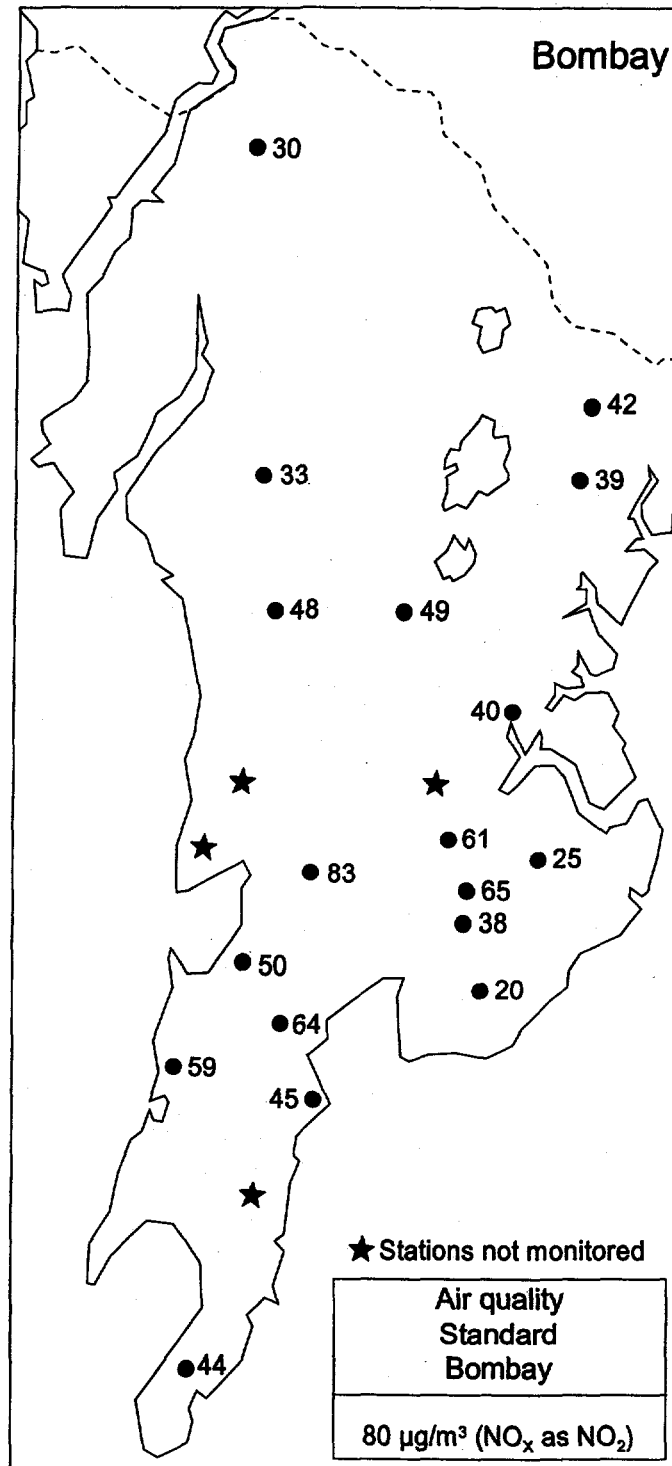
The inventory covers the main source categories. Figure 2.5 shows the main source contributions. Emission factors recommended by WHO (1993), and United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA, 1986) have generally been used, as in the other URBAIR cities (Manila, Jakarta, Kathmandu). Indian emission factors are available for some of the sources, such as vehicles, and for fuel combustion as suggested by the URBAIR Bombay working group on air quality (see Appendix 5). The working groups decided to use the WHO/EPA factors in this first phase of URBAIR. Accepted Indian factors should be used in subsequent analysis processes.

Figure 2.3: Mean annual SO₂ concentrations at MCGB sites for 1992–1993 (µg/m³)



Source: Communication with MCGB scientists.
 Note: For site location see Figure 1, Appendix 1.

Figure 2.4: Annual average NO_x concentrations at MCGB stations in the period June 1992–May 1993 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)



Source: Communication with MCGB scientists.
Note: For site location see Figure 1, Appendix 1.

Table 2.7: Total annual emission in Greater Bombay, 1992-1993 (tons/yr)

Emission sources	TSP	PM ₁₀	SO ₂	NO _x	Hours of operation
Transport sector					
<i>Vehicle exhaust</i>					
Gasoline Cars	492	492	160	6,643	12
MC/TC	737	737	250	179	12
Diesel Cars	765	765	395	1,783	12
Buses	445	445	566	2,891	12
Trucks	1,234	1,234	2,120	8,024	12
Sum vehicle exhaust	3,673	3,673	3,490	19,520	12
<i>Resuspension from roads</i>	10,200	2,550	-	-	12
Energy/industry sector					
<i>Power plant</i>	~1,500	~1500	~26,000	~11,200	24
<i>Other fuel combustion</i>					
Industrial LSHS	140 ^a	84	11,920 ^a	1,690	24
FO	1,652 ^a	1,399	24,480 ^a	2,140	24
LDO	12 ¹	6	1,510 ^a	120	24
Diesel	12 ¹	6	800 ^a	115	24
LPG	0,5	0,5	-	20	24
Sum industrial	1,817	1,496	38,710	4,085	
<i>Domestic/commercial^c</i>					
Wood	4,395	2,198	59	410	12 (day)
Kerosene (SKO)	23	23	1,628	258	10 (day)
LPG	14	14	0,7	676	10 (day)
Sum domestic	4,432	2,235	1,688	1,344	
<i>Industrial processes^b</i>					
Stone crushers	6,053				12 (day)
<i>Other</i>					
Refuse burning Domestic	3,700	3,700			
Dumps	408	408	26	153	12 (3 PM-3 AM)
<i>Construction</i>					
<i>Marine (docks)</i>					
FO	540	459	8,000	750	24
LSHS	16	8	1 120	425	24
Diesel	2	1	120	45	24
LDO	1	1	110	25	24
Sum marine	560	469	9,350	1 245	
Total	32,343	16,031	79,264	37,547	

a) Uncontrolled.

b) Process emissions are less important than fuel combustion emissions in Bombay.

c) Domestic coal/dung combustion not included, due to lack of volume data.

Table 2.8: Emission factors used for URBAIR, Bombay, 1992

	TSP	PM ₁₀ /TSP	SO ₂	NO _x	%S max.
Fuel combustion (kg/t)					
Coal, bituminous, power plant					
- uncontrolled	5A ^a		19.5S ^a	10.5	
- cyclone	1.25A	0.95	19.5S	10.5	
- ESP	0.36A		19.5S	10.5	
Residual oil (OF): ind./comm.	1.25S+0.38	0.85	20S	7.0	4
Distillate oil: ind./comm.	0.28	0.5	20S	2.84	LSHS: 1
(LSHS, HSD, LDO): residential	0.36 → 1.6 ^b	0.5	20S	2.6	HSD: 1 LDO: 1.8
LPG: ind./dom.	0.06	1.0	0.007	2.9	0.02
Kerosene: dom.	0.06	1.0	17S	2.5	0.25
Natural gas: utility	0.06	1.0	20S	11.3 · f	
- ind./dom.	0.06		20S	2.5	
Wood: dom.	15	0.5	0.2	1.4	
Refuse burning: domestic	37	1.0	0.5	3.0	
- dumps	8				
Coal: domestic	10				
Dung: domestic	10				
Road vehicles (g/km)					
Gasoline: Cars	0.2	1.0		2.7	87:0.25
- Trucks, light duty	0.33	1.0			83:0.20
- Buses and trucks, heavy duty	0.68	1.0			
- MC/TC	0.5	1.0		0.1	
Diesel: Cars	0.6	1.0		1.4	1.0
- Trucks, light duty	0.9	1.0			
- Buses and trucks, heavy duty	2.0			13	

a) A: Ash content, in %; S: sulfur content, in %

b) Well → poorly maintained furnaces

Note: For additional information on the compilation of emission factors, see Appendix 5.

Emissions from the TATA power plant have been calculated based on the fuel consumption figures of Table 2.5, and assuming ESP emission control. The emissions do not contribute much to ground level exposure due to their tall stacks (278 meters).

Dockside emissions are primarily a result of petroleum products sold to ships. It is not known how much of this petroleum is actually burned in the docks. Emissions also come from ships waiting in the bay for dock space. These emissions are substantial and contribute to the extra urban background concentrations, particularly SO₂ and SPM. They are calculated from ship counts and waiting time.

No specific data on industrial process emissions are available. Emissions from large/medium industries have been collected on a separate file which contains data from about 280 large/medium plants in Bombay. Process and fuel combustion emissions have not been separated. Also, the emission data for some of the plants are based on actual emission measurements, and may not be representative.

TSP. Total annual TSP emissions are estimated at about 32,400 tons per year for 1992–1993. Road traffic, particularly resuspension of road dust, wood burning, domestic refuse burning, and

furnace oil use in industry are the largest sources of TSP emissions. Because these sources exhaust emissions at low heights, they contribute significantly to population exposure.

In some areas, stone crushers expose nearby populations to TSP. Emissions from stone crushers are assumed to be uncontrolled and have been worked out separately. The emission figure for domestic refuse burning refers to commonly burned street litter and leaves, although little is known about the magnitude of the practice. A first gross estimate of one kilogram per household per week was used. The

emission factor is highly uncertain. Based on WHO (1993) and NILU experiments (Semb, 1986), an emission factor of 37 grams per kilograms (g/kg) has been used. For burning at municipal refuse dumps, 8 g/kg has been used with reference to WHO (1993). An emission figure has not been developed for construction in Bombay due to lack of data, even though the experience of other Asian cities such as Manila leads us to believe that TSP emissions from construction tend to be substantial (Larssen et al., 1995).

Table 2.10 lists USEPA suggested emission factors (EPA AP 42) for road dust resuspension.

These factors are valid for dry road conditions. Much of the traffic activity takes place on roads with annual average daily traffic (AADT) greater than 50,000. Assuming the traffic activity share on these road are 5

percent (local), 25 percent (collector), 30 percent (major), and 40 percent (freeway/expressway), and that the roads are wet 50 percent of the time, EPA emission factors give an average factor of a little more than 2 grams per kilometer. A recent evaluation of road emission rates supports, in general, the EPA emission factors for paved roads, although the study concludes that more investigation is needed (Claiborn et al., 1995). We select 2 grams per kilometer as an average resuspension emission factor.

Table 2.9: Fuel consumption data for Greater Bombay, 1992-1993 (April-March)

Category	Fuel type	10 ³ metric tons/year	
TATA Power Plant	LSHS	927	
	Coal	298	
	Gas	496	
Industrial	LSHS	499	279 in Petrochem. industry 164 in large/medium industry 56 in small scale industry
	FO	306	183 in large/medium industry 123 in small scale industry
	LDO	42	
	Diesel (HSD)	40	
	LPG	7	
	Domestic	Wood	289
SKO		480	
LPG		233	
Marine (port/bay)	FO	100	
	LSHS	56	
	Diesel	6	
	LDO	3	

Note: For mobile sector fuel consumption and traffic activity, see Appendix 4.

Table 2.10: USEPA suggested road dust resuspension emission factors

Road class	AADT	Emission factor in g/km
Local streets	<500	15.00
Collector streets	500-10,000	10.00
Major streets	10,000-50,000	4.40
Freeways/expressways	>50 000	0.35

Source: USEPA (1986).

PM₁₀. Total PM₁₀ emissions are calculated at about 16,000 tons per annum for 1992–1993. Refuse burning, resuspension, vehicle exhaust from diesel trucks, and fuel oil combustion in industry were the dominant PM₁₀ sources. Source distribution is shown in Figure 2.5.

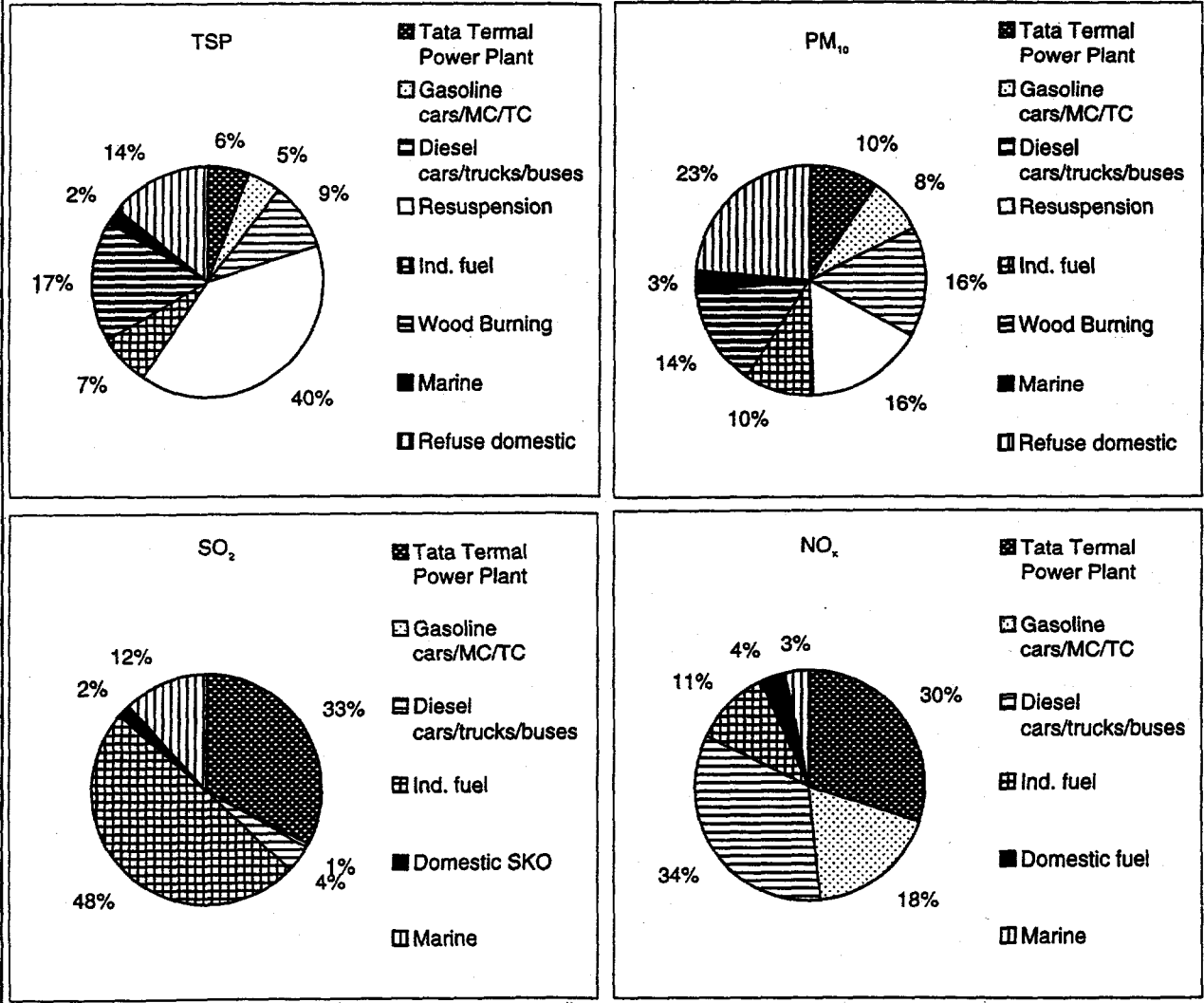
SO₂. Emissions of SO₂ are calculated on the basis of the maximum sulfur contents of fuel as shown in Table 2.11.

Total SO₂ emissions are roughly 79,000 tons per annum. Industries, fuel oil, LSHS, and the TATA power plant are the main contributors. The actual sulfur content of fuels, and thus actual SO₂ emissions, may be lower.

Table 2.11: Typical fuel sulfur content

Fuel type	Sulfur content (%)
Fuel Oil (FO)	4.0
Light diesel oil (LDO)	1.8
Distillate (LSHS, HSD)	1.0
Motor diesel	1.0
Kerosene	0.25
Gasoline: 87 RON	0.25
93 RON	0.20

Figure 2.5: Source contributions to emissions of TSP and PM₁₀, Greater Bombay, 1992

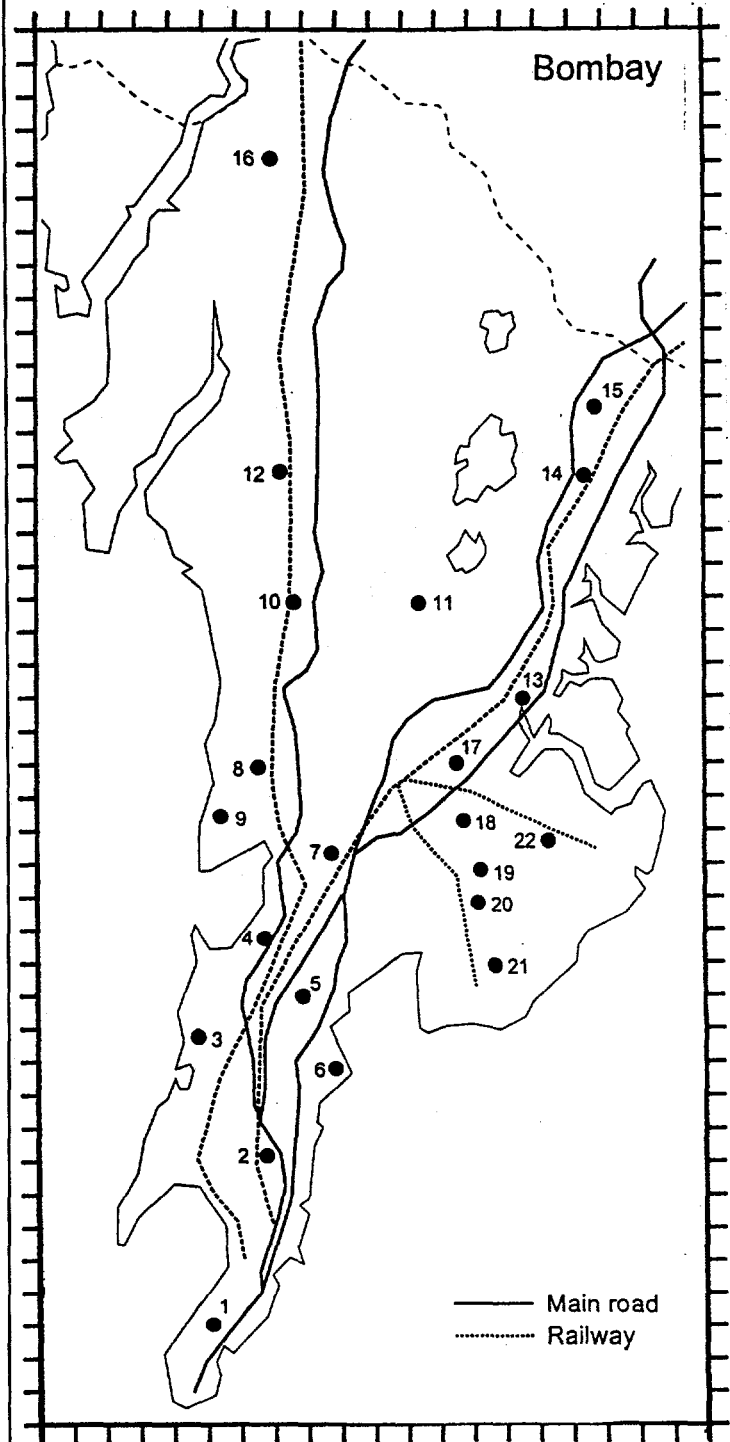


NO_x. Total annual NO_x emissions are calculated at 37,000 tons per annum with vehicle exhaust, especially from diesel trucks and gasoline cars, and the TATA power plant being the main causes.

Spatial emission distribution. A base-line situation for air pollution exposure was established as a basis for a cost-benefit or cost-effectiveness analysis of abatement measures for Greater Bombay. In addition, spatial concentration fields over the urban area were demarcated. To model the spatial distributions, a grid-formed particle emission survey was designed to measure high particle concentrations—the main air pollution problem in Bombay. The calculated total emissions were distributed over a square kilometer (km²) grid net of 42 by 20 km², covering the area shown in Figure 2.6.

Point source emissions were distributed according to their actual location. Fuel consumption in small industries, and in households, were distributed in relation to the population (See Appendix 4). Traffic emissions on the main road network were based on the locations of various corridors. The remaining diesel and gasoline used was distributed among the non-slum population distribution.

Figure 2.6: Exposure modeling area, Greater Bombay



Note: 42x20 km² grid net. Numbers correspond to MCGB monitoring sites. See Figure 1, Appendix 1 for site locations.

DISPERSION MODEL CALCULATIONS FOR GREATER BOMBAY

Dispersion conditions

General description of topography, climate and dispersion. Bombay has a mean elevation of 11 meters above sea level, and it consists of several islands on the Konkan coast. The city has a tropical savanna climate, with monthly mean humidity ranging between 57–87 percent. The annual average temperature is 25.3°C, rising to a maximum of 34.5°C in June and minimum of 14.3°C in January. Average annual precipitation is 2,078 millimeters with 34 percent (709 millimeters) falling in the month of July.

In the winter the predominant local wind direction is northerly, while in the summer monsoon season, north-westerly winds predominate. A sea breeze is usual during the day, with mean wind speeds between 1.5–2 meters per second. Nights, between the hours of 22:00 and 06:00, are calm. The mixing depth varies between 30 meters and 3,000 meters (NEERI, 1991).

Studies have shown that active monsoon conditions are associated with a lowering of the mixing layer height, an absence of inversion/stable layers, and decreased convective instability in the lower layers of the monsoon atmospheric boundary. The reverse is observed on monsoon break days. In weak and break monsoon conditions there is a subsidence and feeding of dry air from the sky. In moderate to active monsoon conditions, the moisture reaches higher levels due to synoptic scale convergence.

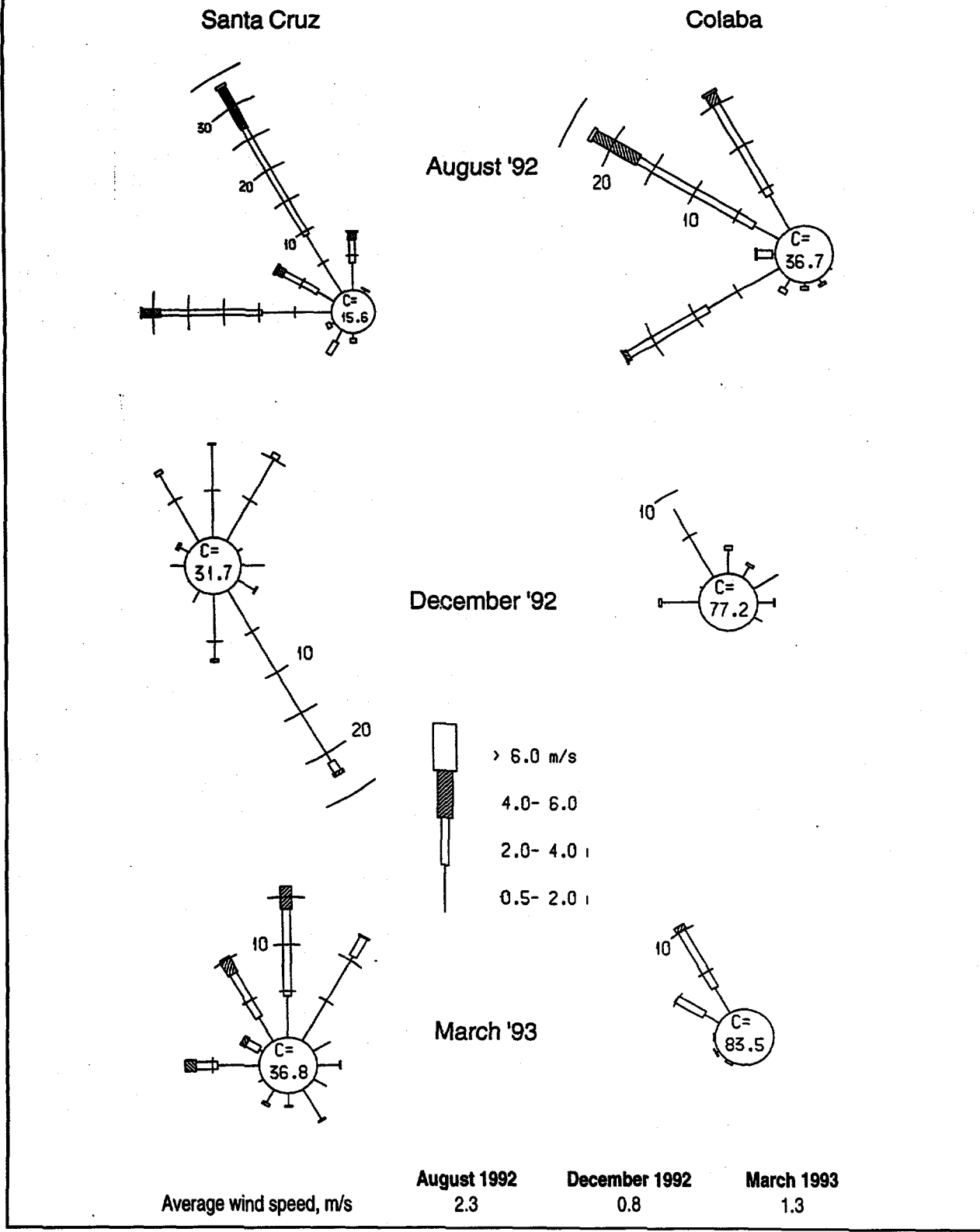
High pollution concentrations in Bombay usually occur in the winter when adverse meteorological situations, and weak and break monsoon conditions dominate. In the early mornings the inversion layer is lowest (closest to the ground), and leads to poor vertical mixing of pollutants. In the daytime when there is high insulation, a sea breeze blows inland. This wind direction may cause stagnation of the airmass when the monsoon winds run in the opposite direction. Such a condition can usually be seen on winter days and early summer mornings.

Dispersion conditions. Dispersion of air pollution emissions is dominated by wind conditions and the vertical stability of the atmosphere. Wind statistics from the meteorological stations at the Santa Cruz airport and Colaba Observatory, at Bombay's southern tip, have been obtained from the Indian Meteorological Department (IMD).

Winds are generally calmer at Colaba than at Santa Cruz indicating that the wind counter has a high starting velocity, or that it is shielded by nearby vegetation or buildings. During the monsoon (August), winds are fairly strong and the dominating directions at Santa Cruz are from west and northwest. At Colaba, the wind direction seems to be shifted some 30° counter-clockwise. During the winter (December) winds are very weak, and the main wind sectors are southeast and north. During the summer (March), the wind speed picks up again and the northerly sector dominates.

Figure 2.7 shows wind roses from Santa Cruz for December (winter), March (summer) and August (monsoon conditions) as recorded in 1992/1993.

Figure 2.7: Wind roses for 1992-1993, Santa Cruz Airport and Colaba



From this data, and from calculations of the stability class based on hourly observations of wind and cloud cover, a combined wind/stability matrix has been constructed. Such a matrix, representing the statistics of dispersion climatology, can be used as input to dispersion models for calculation of long-term average concentrations of pollutants. The combined matrix, based on the Santa Cruz data, is given in Table 2.12. This matrix is used for the dispersion conditions over the entire modeling area.

Table 2.12: Wind/stability frequency matrix), Santa Cruz Airport, June 1992–May 1993 (% annual)

Stability classes	Velocity classes (m/s)	Frequency of calm
I - unstable	0.3–2.0 (1.1 m/s average)	In unstable class: 10.5%
N - neutral	2.0–4.0 (2.9 m/s average)	In neutral class: 0%
SS - slightly stable	4.0–6.0 (4.8 m/s average)	In SS class: 4.2%
S - stable	>6.0 (6.8 m/s average)	In stable class: 16.7%

Note: The calm frequencies are distributed in the direction sectors within each of the stability classes of the 0.3–2 m/s velocity class, proportional to the occurrence of wind.

Dispersion model calculations, city background

Model description. The dispersion modeling work in the first phase of URBAIR concentrates on the calculation of long-term (annual) average concentrations, representing averages within square kilometer grids (city concentrations). Contributions from nearby local sources in specific receptor points (streets, industrial hot spots) must also be evaluated. The model used is a multisource Gaussian model that treats area, point, and volume sources separately.

Meteorological input to the model is represented by a joint wind speed/direction/stability matrix representing the annual frequency distributions of these parameters. The dispersion conditions are assumed to be spatially uniform over the model area. For point sources, account is taken of plume rise (Briggs equations), the effects of building turbulence, and plume downwash. For area sources, the total emissions in a square kilometer grid are simulated by 100 ground level point sources equally spaced over the grid.

McElroy-Pooler classification for low-level area sources, and Brookhaven classification for point sources (stacks) were used as the dispersion parameters. The software package used in the KILDER model system was developed at NILU (Gram and Böhler, 1992).

TSP. Calculated annual average TSP concentration distributions are shown in Figure 2.8 for the following source categories:

- road traffic (vehicle exhaust);
- area sources—domestic fuel combustion (wood, SKO, LPG), fuel combustion in small industries (LSHS, LDO), stone crushers, and burning in refuse dumps;
- point sources (emission from 280 large and medium size industrial plants); and,
- resuspension from roads.

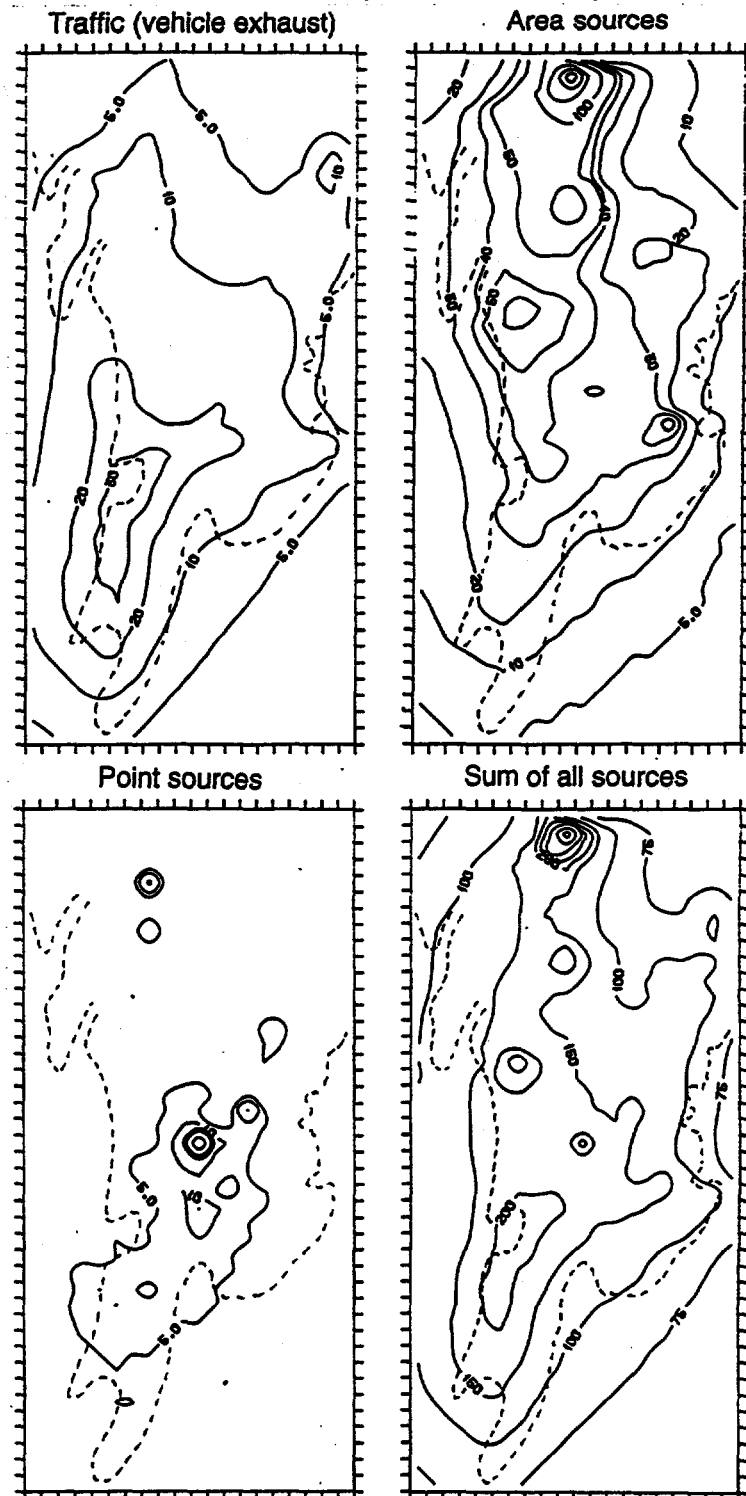
A total background concentration of 60 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ has been estimated based on measurements carried out near Vikram and Thal South of Bombay (data provided by M.G. Rao; Rashtriya Chemicals and Fertilizer, Ltd. and ADITYA). This total also includes resuspension from roads. The concentrations from resuspension are calculated to be about 2.5 times those from exhaust particles, based on emission factors. We estimate that resuspension of dust from roads is the most important source of TSP.

Domestic burning of refuse has not been added to area sources when calculating the concentrations. The rough estimate of emissions from refuse burning is about the same as from vehicle exhaust. This emission should be distributed according to the population burning refuse. Contribution from refuse burning would be about the same as from traffic, about 20–30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in the maximum zone. The concentration peaks correspond to stone crushers (in the area source distribution), and to specific industrial sources (in the point source distribution).

In Figure 2.9, measured annual TSP concentrations are plotted (from Figure 2.1). The calculated and measured values are generally of the same magnitude. Many of the sites with high measured values were seen to be situated in industrial areas, indicating possibilities of contributions from local sources. In this comparison it should be noted that TSP from refuse burning is in addition to the calculated concentrations.

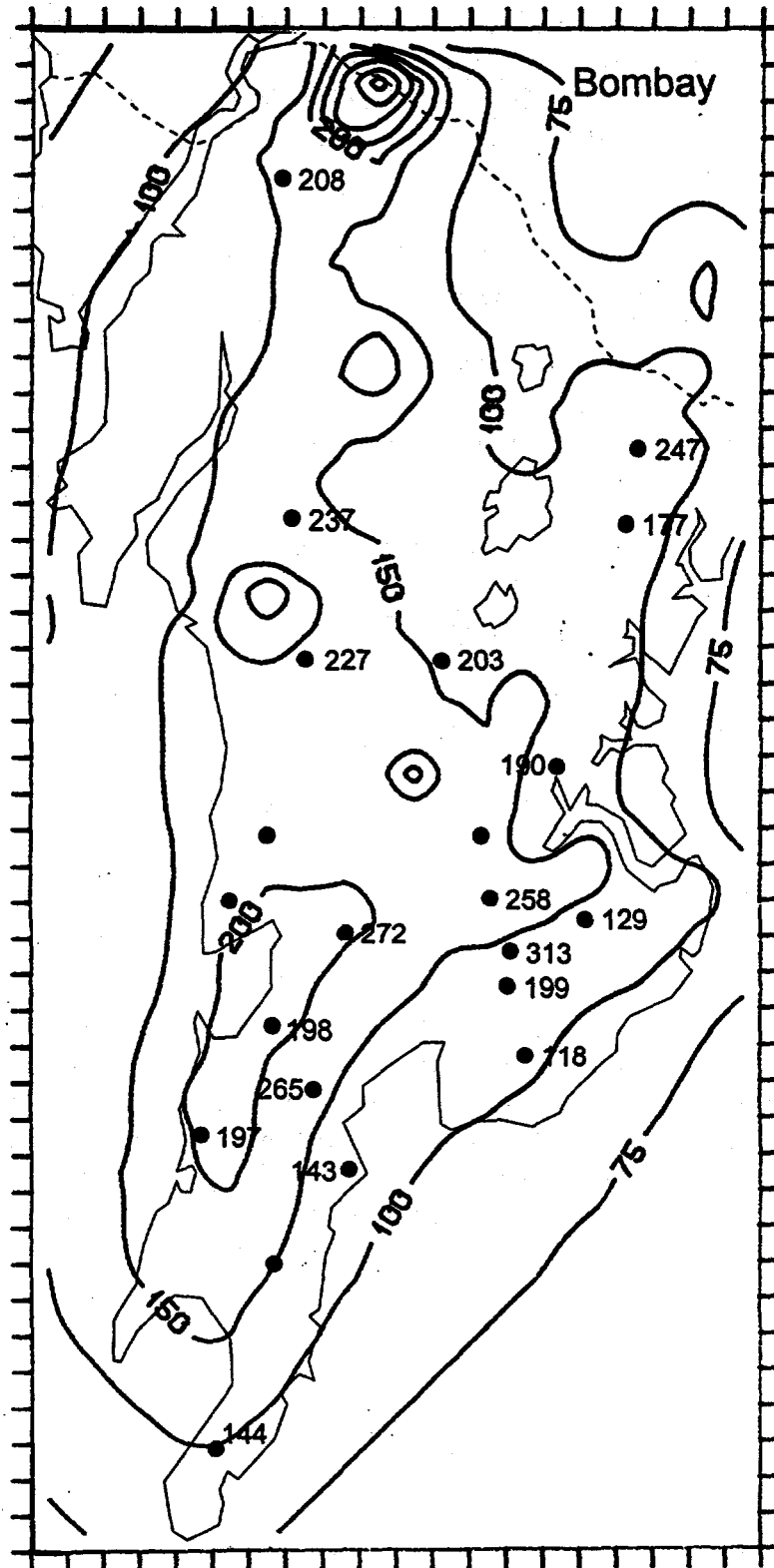
PM₁₀. Concentration distributions for *PM₁₀* have not been calculated, but can be estimated based on calculated TSP concentrations and *PM₁₀*/TSP ratios. Estimated *PM₁₀* concentration contributions in the maximum concentration distribution zone (Dadar-Sion) are tabulated in Table 2.13.

Figure 2.8: Calculated average annual TSP concentration distributions, Greater Bombay, June 1992–May 1993



Note: Calculated and measured values at MCGB and GEMS sites. See Figure 1, Appendix 1 for site locations.

Figure 2.9: Annual average TSP, Greater Bombay, June 1992–May 1993



Note: Calculated and measured values at MCGB and GEMS sites. See Figure 1, Appendix 1 for site locations.

Annual average PM_{10} concentrations of about $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ represent about 50 percent of the TSP concentrations in the Dadar-Sion area for 1992. This is slightly higher than the PM_{10} concentrations reported in Table 2.2, as measured in 1982. It can be expected that the PM_{10} concentrations have increased since 1982.

SO_2 Dadar-Parel (excluding peaks near specific industries) has the highest calculated annual average SO_2 at $70 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. This is significantly higher than the measured SO_2 concentration which ranges from $30\text{--}40 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The discrepancy can be mostly accounted for by the maximum sulfur content of fuel. Actual sulfur content is less and, therefore, the SO_2 concentrations should also be less. Figure 2.10 shows calculated SO_2 concentration distributions (annual average, June 1992–May 1993). In this case, the distribution represents the sum from traffic (vehicle exhaust), area sources (fuel combustion) and point sources with no extra-urban background added. Vehicle exhaust from traffic is the most important source for ground level SO_2 concentrations in Bombay.

NO_x Figure 2.11 shows the calculated NO_x concentration distributions from vehicle exhaust, fuel combustion in area sources, and point sources. Calculated concentrations of around $200 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ are highest in the Dadar-Sion area. Measured NO_x concentrations are about $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, roughly half the calculated concentrations (see Appendix 1). Vehicle exhaust is the most important source for ground-level NO_x concentrations.

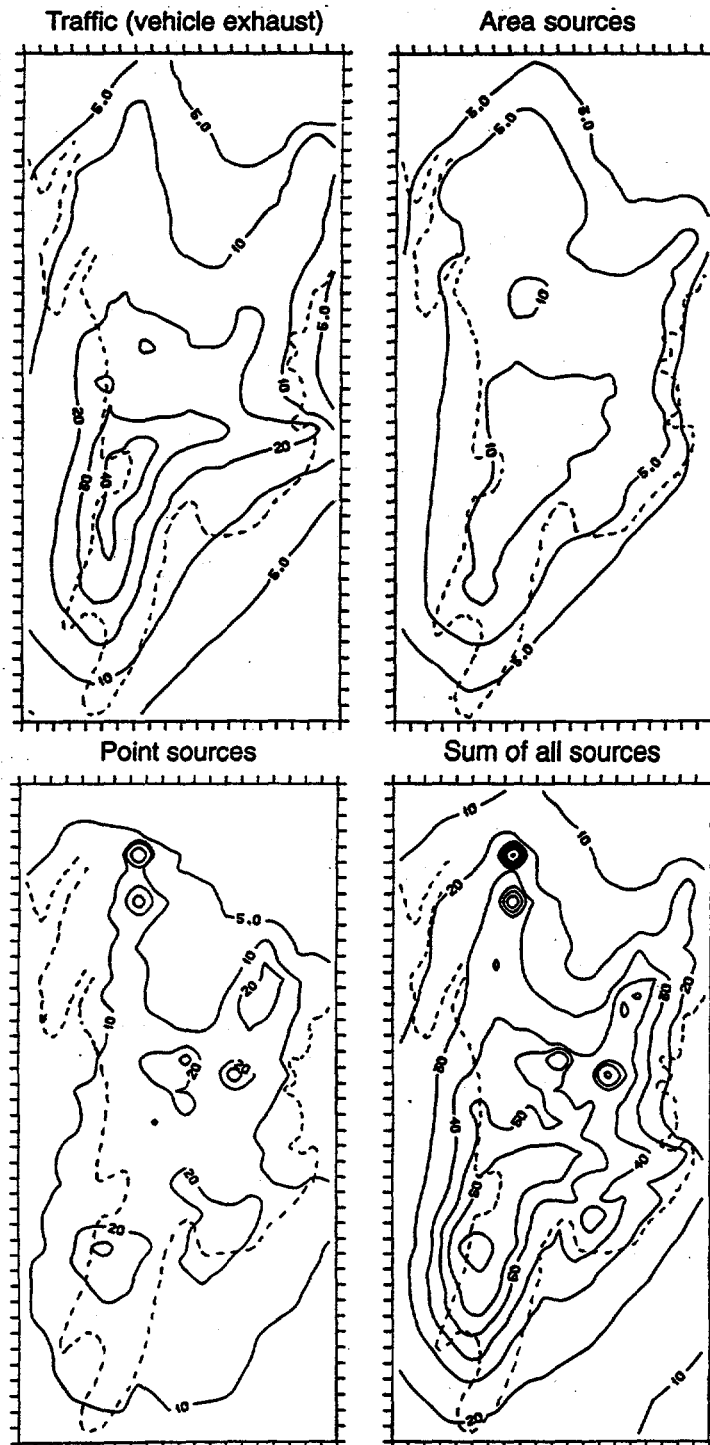
Pollution hot spots

Pollution hot spots are areas with large concentration contributions. They are generally located along main roads, and near industrial areas with significant emissions from low stacks. The calculated concentration distributions of Figures 2.8, 2.9 and 2.10 indicate industrial pollution hot spots, including stone crushers. The measurements described in Figure 2.1 and in Table 2.2 show that the highest concentrations measured are indeed in industrial zones (e.g. Maravali) and near road crossings. Such hot spot pollution areas may contribute significantly to air pollution exposure.

Table 2.13: Calculated TSP and PM_{10} concentrations

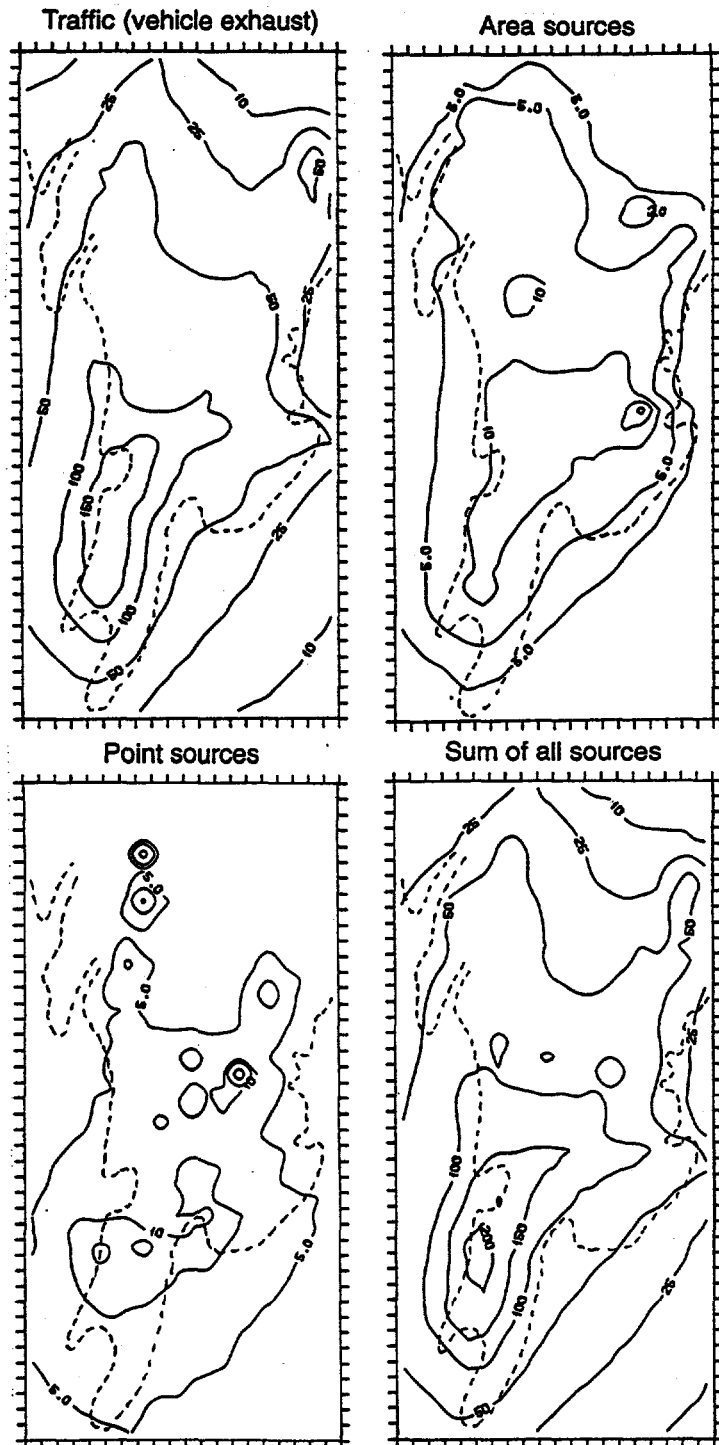
	Concentration level ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	
	TSP	PM_{10}
Vehicle exhaust	~ 30	~ 30
Resuspension	~ 80	~ 20
Area sources	~ 30	~ 15
Point sources	~ 5	~ 3
Extra-urban background	60	~ 30
Sum	~205	~100

Figure 2.10: Calculated annual average SO_2 concentration distributions, Greater Bombay, June 1992–May 1993



Note: Calculated and measured values at MCGB and GEMS sites. See Figure 1, Appendix 1 for site locations.

Figure 2.11: Calculated annual average NO_x concentration distributions, Greater Bombay, June 1992–May 1993



Note: Calculated and measured values at MCGB and GEMS sites. See Figure 1, Appendix 1 for site location.

POPULATION EXPOSURE TO AIR POLLUTION IN GREATER BOMBAY

People are generally exposed to air pollutants at home, on roads, and at work. *Population exposure* is defined as *the number of inhabitants experiencing concentrations of pollution compounds above certain concentrations*. The cumulative population exposure distribution gives the percentage of the total population exposed to concentrations above given values.

Correct mapping of pollution exposure requires data on:

- Concentration distributions and their variation with time—
 - at residences (general urban air pollution, city background);
 - along main roads;
 - near other hot spots, such as near industrial areas; and,
- Population distribution (residences and workplaces), the number of commuters and time-dependent travel habits.

The methodology used for calculating population exposure is described in Appendix 6.

Briefly, it can be described as follows:

- calculate concentration distribution from all sources (except from domestic refuse burning);
- add exposure for residents close to the main roads;
- calculate residence exposure from this concentration distribution and the km² population distribution; and,
- add exposure for commuters and drivers traveling on roads.

This method gives a rough estimate of actual population exposure in Bombay. Industrial hot spot exposure is not accounted for, except near stone crushers.

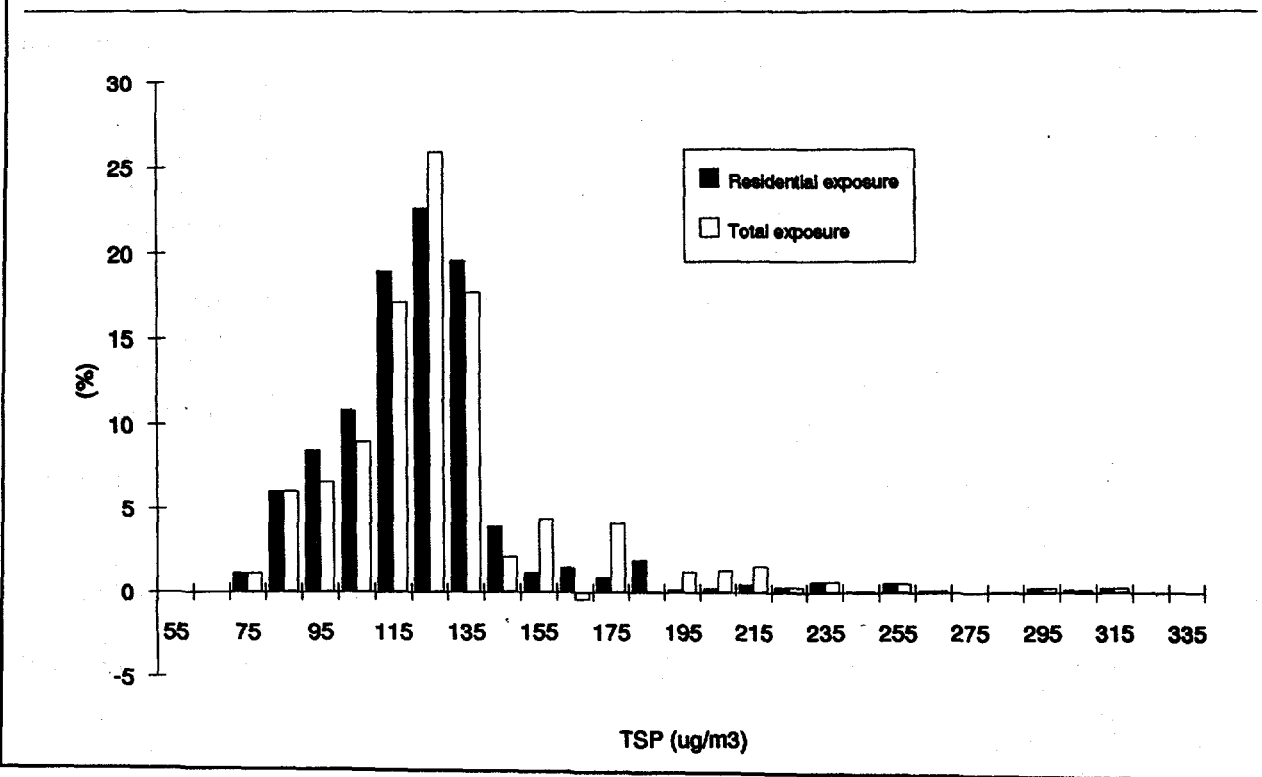
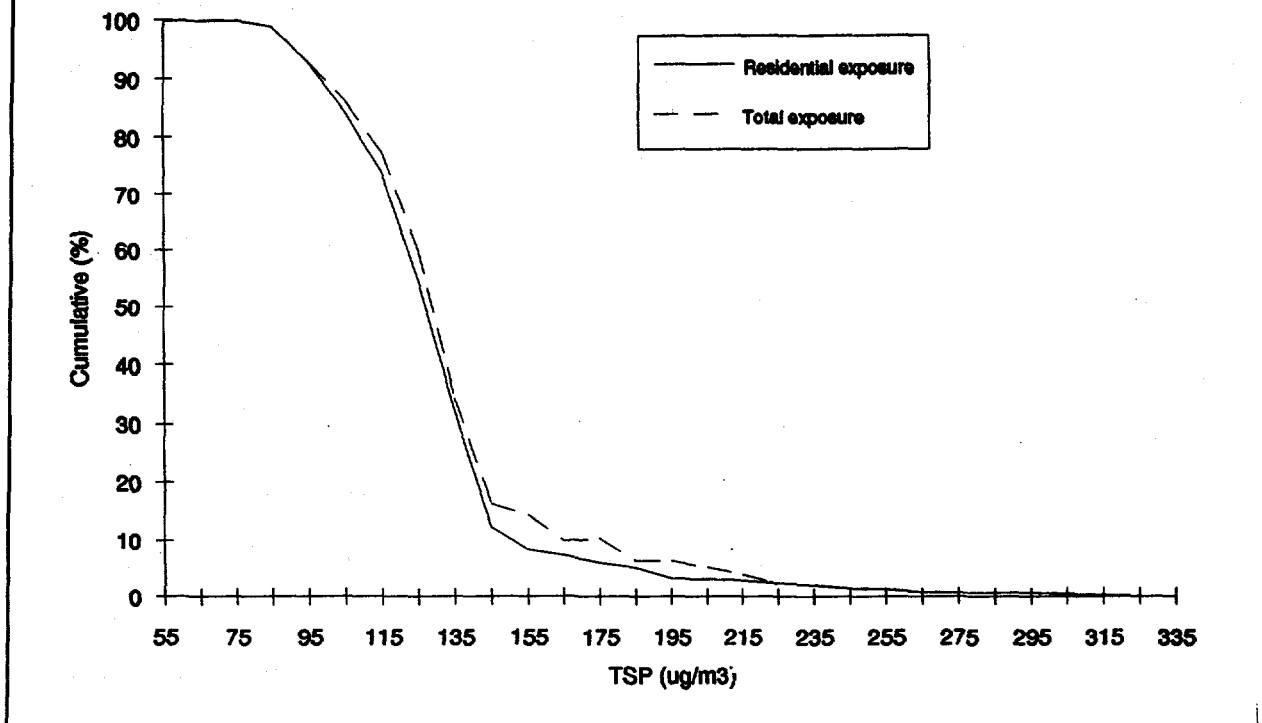
TSP. Population exposure to TSP, the major air pollution problem in Greater Bombay, is an input into health damage analysis. This is not to diminish the importance of exposure to high short-term concentrations of suspended particles and other pollution compounds in hot spots. Calculating such exposure requires a more extensive database than was available for Greater Bombay. In addition, although air quality guidelines have been set for short-term exposures, comprehensive dose-effect relationships regarding health have not yet been developed for such exposures.

The results of the population exposure calculations for annual average TSP in Greater Bombay (present conditions 1992–1993) are shown in Figure 2.12 and can be summarized as follows:

- about 97 percent of the population is exposed to TSP concentration above the WHO AQG (90 µg/m³);
- approximately 8 percent of the population is exposed to TSP more than twice the WHO AQG (180 µg/m³), including an estimated 300,000 drivers;
- most seriously exposed are roadside residents and public transport drivers, policemen and other roadside workers (estimated at 300,000 or 3 percent of the population), and residents near stone crushers.

Exposure to TSP in homes is due to resuspension from roads, domestic wood combustion and refuse burning, and exhaust from diesel vehicles.

Figure 2.12: Calculated population exposure distribution, Greater Bombay modeling area, TSP, 1992-1993, annual average



PM_{10} . Corresponding population exposure to PM_{10} can be estimated by multiplying the TSP axis in Figure 2.12 by 0.5. The long-term WHO AQG for TSP, $90 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, is exceeded to a larger extent than the corresponding PM_{10} guideline of $60 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Thus, for long-term exposure to particles, TSP is the limiting parameter.

Main sources of PM_{10} exposure at residences are diesel vehicles, domestic refuse and wood burning, and resuspension of road dust. Additional exposure in hot spot areas near industries may be significant.

SUMMARY OF THE AIR QUALITY ASSESSMENT

Greater Bombay air quality. Total annual emissions (1992–93) are the following:

- 32,343 tons TSP
- 79,264 tons SO_2
- 37,547 tons NO_x
- 16,031 tons PM_{10}

For many years, concentrations of TSP, SO_2 and NO_x have been measured regularly at more than 22 fixed locations for a few days each month. The locations are distributed among area-representative stations, street-side locations and in industrial areas. Despite its limitations, this database shows:

- TSP frequently exceeds the WHO air quality guideline at all stations;
- concentrations at street crossings are sometimes extremely high, exceeding the WHO air quality guideline by a factor of 10 or more;
- relative to their respective air quality guidelines, TSP and PM_{10} are the most important pollution parameters in Bombay; and
- it is desirable to substantially improve the air quality monitoring system of Greater Bombay.

Emission sources. Large amounts of suspended particles come from road traffic, exhaust (particularly from diesel vehicles), and resuspension of road dust. Other particle sources are domestic refuse burning (roughly estimated), wood combustion, and industrial and marine fuel oil combustion. Road traffic dominates NO_x emissions, while power plant and industrial fuel oil combustion dominate SO_2 emissions. Improvements are needed in the emissions inventory, especially with respect to industrial emissions, domestic refuse burning, resuspension, and construction. Estimated contributions from different sources are shown in Table 2.14.

Population exposure. Calculations show that about 97 percent of the population is exposed to annual average TSP

Table 2.14: Estimated contributions of emissions from different sources

	Source	Percentage
TSP	Resuspended road dust	40 (rough estimate)
	Wood combustion	17
	Diesel vehicle exhaust	9
	Domestic refuse burning	14 (rough estimate)
	Industrial fuel combustion	7
PM_{10}	Diesel vehicle exhaust	16
	Domestic wood	14
	Domestic refuse burning	23
	Resuspension from roads	16
	Gasoline vehicle exhaust	8
SO_2 :	Industrial fuel combustion	82 (incl. power plant 33%)
	Diesel vehicle exhaust	4
	Marine fuel combustion	12
NO_x	Industrial fuel combustion	41
	Gasoline vehicle exhaust	18
	Diesel vehicle exhaust	34

concentrations exceeding the WHO air quality guideline. Of this, 8 percent of the population is exposed to TSP that is double the guideline. This includes approximately 300,000 drivers, other roadside workers, roadside residents, and those who live near stone crushers.

Main sources of TSP exposure are resuspension from roads, domestic wood combustion, diesel vehicles, and domestic refuse burning. Diesel vehicles, domestic wood and refuse burning, and resuspension are the main sources of PM₁₀. Additional exposure in industrial hot spots may also be significant.

Method for calculating effects of abatement measures on population exposure. A simple procedure for calculating emissions, and population exposure has been programmed into spreadsheets to estimate the effects of various abatement measures on exposure distribution.

IMPROVING AIR QUALITY ASSESSMENT FOR GREATER BOMBAY

Shortcomings and data gaps

Air quality. The present measurement system operated by MCGB can be briefly characterized as follows:

- 24 hour (3x8 hours) samples of TSP, SO₂, NO₂ and NH₃ collected infrequently (1–4 days per month);
- PM₁₀, lead, CO and O₃ and other compounds not routinely measured;
- Monitoring on rooftops (4–12 meters above ground);
- No stations are monitored as frequently as required under the Indian AQG (at least 104 days per year); and,
- Many of the measurement sites are not clearly defined in terms of their representativeness, as:
 - city stations (commercial, industrial, and residential);
 - traffic exposed (street side) stations; and,
 - industrial hot spot stations.

It is clear that the MCGB air monitoring laboratory operates under considerable financial constraints. Although the analyses are good, financial constraints affect methodological and manpower capacities. It is important to improve air quality monitoring in Greater Bombay by including:

- at least 5 city sites, covering areas of typical, and maximum concentrations;
- 1–3 traffic exposed sites (to monitor street level pollution);
- 1–5 industrial area and hot spot sites;
- 1 background site;
- continuous monitors for PM₁₀, CO, NO_x, SO₂, O₃, depending upon the site; and,
- an online data retrieval system linked to a lab database, via telephone or modem.

Emissions. The main shortcomings of the emission inventory are:

- industrial emissions (use and combustion of fuel, process emissions);
- resuspension from roads;

- other coarse particle sources, such as construction;
- domestic refuse burning;
- consumption patterns for domestic and commercial fuel use; and
- absence of local emission factors.

Less important shortcomings regard traffic distribution data which forms the background for the car exhaust emission distribution. It is necessary to fill the data gaps and upgrade the inventory. It is necessary to fill the data gaps and upgrade the inventory.

Population exposure. Population exposure from various sources is determined by a combination of dispersion modeling and air pollution monitoring. It is vital that the population exposure distribution be reliable, since it forms the basis for assessing damage to health and the costs stemming from such damage. Further, it feeds into the cost-benefit analysis of measures to reduce exposure.

In order to make improvements to the population exposure calculations that have been developed in the first phase of URBAIR, dispersion modeling expertise in Bombay should be identified, and the use of dispersion modeling integrated into the control agencies' Air Quality Management work. Dispersion modeling expertise and appropriate models for air pollution management and control strategies should be based in Bombay.

Proposed actions to improve air quality assessment are summarized in Table 2.15.

Table 2.15: Proposed actions to improve air quality assessment

Actions	Time Schedule
Air Quality Monitoring	
Design and establish a modified/ improved/extended ambient air and meteorological/dispersion monitoring system - evaluate sites; number (at least 10) and locations; - select parameters (CO, NO _x , O ₃ , HC, TSP and PM ₁₀ recommended) /methods/monitors/operation schedule; - upgrade laboratory facilities, and manpower capacities.	This activity should start immediately, and a proposed schedule is as follows: Now: Finalize plan for an upgraded air quality monitoring system, including plans for laboratory upgrading. Within one year: Establish of 1–2 new modern monitoring stations; and Carry out first phase of laboratory upgrading.
Design and establish a Quality Control/Quality Assurance System	This activity should also start immediately, phased in with the improved monitoring system, and the laboratory upgrading.
Design and establish an Air Quality Information System, including - database; and - information to control agencies; lawmakers; and public.	
Emissions	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve emission inventory for Greater Bombay <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Improve industrial emissions inventory (location, process, emissions, stack data) b) Improve road and traffic data inventory c) Improve domestic emissions inventory d) Study resuspension <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - from roads - from other surfaces e) Estimate contribution from construction and refuse burning. f) Establish emission factors for Indian conditions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Priority: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - industrial emissions inventory - study of resuspension from roads - start developing an emission inventory procedure.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop an integrated and comprehensive emission inventory procedure, include emission factor review, update and quality assessment procedures. • Improve methods and capacity for emission measurements. 	
Population exposure	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assess current modeling tools/methods, and establish appropriate models for control strategy in Greater Bombay. 	

3. AIR POLLUTION: IMPACTS AND VALUATION

INTRODUCTION

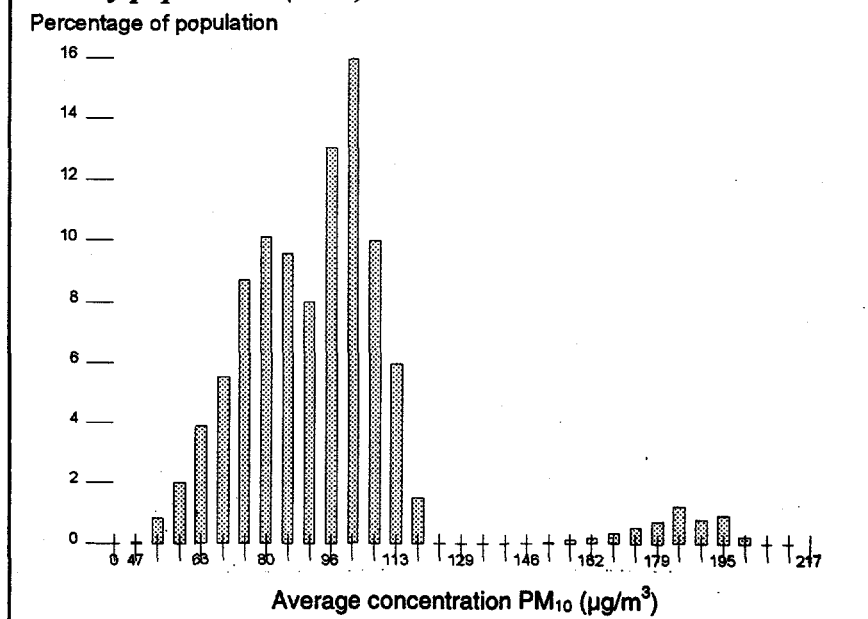
As large cities in Europe and North America industrialized, and the energy used by industries and homes increased, so did pollution. Air pollution in urban areas became a major public health concern, as exemplified by the killer fogs that claimed thousands of lives in London in 1952 and 1956 (Lave and Seskin, 1977). Economic development in Asia has had similar consequences, and air pollution problems have become endemic in Asian cities. This chapter presents an overview of major impacts of air pollution in Bombay, including a rough estimation of the monetary value of these damages. As concluded in Chapter 2, high concentrations of suspended particles and lead are the leading problems in air pollution. This chapter details the impact of PM_{10} . A frequency distribution of the PM_{10} exposure of Bombay's population is summarized in Figure 3.1.

Unfortunately, current data on lead exposure were not available.

Health impact estimates are based on research conducted in the United States (Ostro, 1994), and their methodology is described in the *URBAIR Guidebook*. Although damage to human health is not the only adverse effect of air pollution, lack of appropriate data prevented us from quantifying other impacts such as a reduction in the economic life of capital goods, tourism, crop production, and other intangible impacts.

This chapter summarizes health studies carried out in Bombay; addresses the calculated

Figure 3.1: Frequency distribution of the PM_{10} exposure of the Bombay population (1991)



impacts on health and mortality in Bombay; and calculates the costs that can be attributed to these impacts.

SUMMARY OF STUDIES BY ENVIRONMENTAL POLLUTION RESEARCH CENTER, (KEM HOSPITAL, BOMBAY)

In addition to inadequate housing and sanitation, Bombay's urban population (of which 50 percent lives in slums) is exposed to rising levels of air pollution. It has been experimentally established that air pollutants like SO₂, ozone, oxides of nitrogen, benzopyrene, and suspended particulate matter (SPM) result in incidence of respiratory diseases. High SO₂ levels have been shown to cause increased incidence of chronic bronchitis, frequent colds, and decline in lung functions. In order to determine the actual impact of pollution on health in Bombay, the Environmental Pollution Research Center (EPRC), KEM Hospital has conducted studies since 1976, correlating air pollution to morbidity.

In 1978, when automobile fuel had higher concentrations of lead and sulfur, EPRC conducted a study on 1,008 subjects (522 male and 486 female) from a residential community in Parel, in Central Bombay. Because of a coal gas factory and many textile mills, together with main arterial roads and heavy traffic, levels of pollution in Parel were very high. The incidence of respiratory symptoms (coughing and dyspnoea) was observed to be higher in this suburb than in Chembur. Chembur is surrounded by chemical and fertilizer factories, and a thermal power station, but has comparatively low vehicular traffic.

In 1990, following a decline in the sulfur content of fuel, and the closing of the coal gas factory and many textile mills, SO₂ levels in Parel dropped from 103 µg/m³ to 29 µg/m³. At the same time due to increases in vehicular traffic, NO₂ levels increased from 16 µg/m³ to 54 µg/m³, and SPM levels increased from 242 µg/m³ to 304 µg/m³. Different studies conducted in this area suggested that although frequent colds, headaches and eye irritation were less common, cough, dyspnoea and hypertension had increased. Similarly, while the prevalence of bronchitis had decreased, cardiac disease had increased.

Table 3.1 shows SO₂, NO₂ and SPM mean levels in different years in Parel, along with the mortality rate due to respiratory diseases, heart diseases and cancer.

- A 1988 cross sectional study examined symptom and disease patterns in four localities:
- 421 subjects (194 male and 227 females) of a community located about 2 kilometers from a large fertilizer factory (Tolaram Nagar);
- 397 subjects (185 males and 212 females) of a locality with comparatively low pollution (Telecom township); and

Table 3.1: Pollution trend and mortality rates in Parel

Pollutants	Pollution trends (µg/m ³)			
	1978	1982	1986	1990
SO ₂	102	62	37	29
NO ₂	16	41	52	54
SPM	242	219	326	304
Mortality rate	Affected Population (100,000)			
Respiratory diseases	117.0	109.6	129.1	113.7
Heart diseases	156.7	263.2	164.5	170.7
Cancer	51.8	48.2	35.5	40.8

- 297 subjects (131 males and 166 females) of Parel (central suburb); and 430 subjects (209 males and 221 females) of Dadar (central suburb).

It was observed that coughs and dyspnoea were higher in Tolaram and Parel compared to Dadar and Telecom. Also, bronchitis, tuberculosis, cardiac diseases, and restrictive lung diseases were more prevalent among subjects of Parel and Tolaram Nagar as compared to the other two localities.

A 1978 study in Chembur examined 586 males and 536 females living near fertilizer and chemical factories and thermal power stations. Automobile traffic added to the pollution in this area. To check for the effect of increased pollution, a cross-sectional study was conducted in 1990 on:

- 409 subjects (161 males and 248 females) of a community near the fertilizer factory;
- 342 subjects (144 males and 198 females) of a community about 2 kilometers away from the factory; and,
- 341 subjects (167 males and 174 females) in another community devoid of industrial pollution.

The results showed that the incidence of respiratory symptoms like coughs and dyspnoea had increased by 8 to 13 percent. Further, the incidence of bronchitis (4.5 to 7.6 percent), cardiac diseases (4.3 to 6.7 percent), and other chest disorders (0.1 to 4.4 percent) had also risen between 1978 and 1990 (Table 3.2). It was also observed that different respiratory symptoms and cardiac diseases, respiratory tract infection, and skin allergy were about 5 to 10 percent higher among people of the communities near the factory. The lung functions of study subjects in both these communities were about 5 to 8 percent lower than the subjects of the control community.

In 1990, an awareness survey was conducted in communities near the chemical and fertilizer factories of Chembur. More than 95 percent of the population complained of strong smells that caused discomfort. The incidence of symptoms declined as distance from the chemical factories increased. For example, 80 percent of the sample complained of headache and eye irritation in Maharashtra State Electricity Board (MSEB) colony, just about 100 meters away from the Oswal Agro chemical factory; 73 percent reported similar symptoms in Railway Colony, about 500 meters away from the Rashtriya Chemicals and Fertilizer, Ltd. factory; as did 50 percent in Tolaram Nagar about 2 kilometers away from the Rashtriya Chemicals and Fertilizer, Ltd. factory.

In 1980–1981, a similar study of food and water was carried out in two middle-class communities in central Bombay. A community of 552 subjects near a wholesale vegetable market with fairly dirty ground conditions and bad ventilation was compared to 671 subjects in a comparatively clean location. The results suggested that contamination of the food supply was due to unhygienic handling, and water supply contamination was due to sanitary effluent. The prevalence of respiratory diseases was about 3 to 4 percent higher in communities near the market, compared to the control site.

From 1986 to 1988, a three-year prospective study was conducted of two high-density traffic areas of Bombay (King Circle and Peddar Road) with 383 subjects (164 males and 219 females) from King Circle, and 473 subjects (241 males and 232 females) from Peddar Road. Observed mean levels of CO were 9 to 18 PPM, reaching a maximum of 63 PPM in these two areas, contributing to a high incidence of coughs, bronchitis, and cardio-respiratory disorders. A significant correlation was also observed between SPM levels, the frequency of colds, attacks of breathlessness, and NO₂ and SPM levels. The prevalence of cardiac diseases had increased in these localities (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Summary of EPRC studies along with air pollutant levels

Locality	Year	Pollutant Levels			Symptoms			Disorder Prevalence			
		SO ₂	NO ₂	SPM	Cough	Colds	Dyspnoea	Bronchitis	TB	Cardiac	Other chest
Chembur n=1122	1978	51	12	196	3.0	21.9	5.9	4.5	0.2	4.3	0.1
Chembur n=751	1990	12	53	372	16.2	10.9	13.1	7.6	0.5	6.7	4.4
n=341 Telecom (control)	1990	18	40	231	7.4	5.6	7.6	1.2	0.3	2.1	6.5
Parel n=1008	1978	103	16	242	5.4	17.3	7.9	4.5	0.9	6.8	1.0
Parel n=757	1979	90	25	264	6.1	7.6	6.4	5.0	0.3	7.6	*
Parel n=676	1980	*	*	*	11.6	7.5	6.5	*	*	*	*
Parel n=349	1986	37	52	326	6.9	29.0	17.0	2.1	0.9	4.0	4.6
Parel n=297	1987	29	53	339	12.1	13.5	12.5	3.3	1.3	10.1	6.7
Parel n=297	1988	38	59	323	5.7	22.0	14.7	4.1	0.0	11.0	5.3
Parel n=492	1991	29	54	304	7.9	11.6	10.8	2.4	0.6	4.1	*
Peddar Road n=473	1986		*		11.0	14.0	13.0	5.7	2.3	5.6	9.1
Peddar Road n=291	1987		11		8.0	12.0	9.0	3.0	1.0	7.0	5.0
Peddar Road n=236	1988		*		5.1	9.7	9.8	3.0	1.7	7.2	3.0
		CO (PPM)									
King Circle n=383	1986		*		9.9	16.0	17.0	4.1	0.8	7.0	5.5
King Circle n=283	1987		13.3		7.0	12.0	9.0	2.0	1.0	11.0	1.0
King Circle n=210	1988		*		8.1	17.6	10.4	3.3	0.9	8.6	1.9
Quarries		SPM (µg/m³)									
Amboli n=506	1988		2,016		24.0	*	22.6	1.5	0.9	1.1	
Kandivli n=587	1991		618		8.5	9.7	7.2	2.6	0.3	1.5	
Check Posts											
Dahisar n=211	1991				14.2	6.6	7.6	6.2	*	1.9	
BPH n=198	1991				8.6	7.1	8.6	2.5	*	9.1	
		SO₂	NO₂	SPM							
Navy Nagar n=413	1990	6	11	107	8.7	6.3	8.5	2.2	0.4	2.4	

In 1988, 507 subjects (144 males and 203 females) who lived near Amboli quarry where mean SPM level is $2,016 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, were studied. A similar study involving 587 subjects (246 males and 341 females) was conducted in 1991 near Kandivili quarry where the mean SPM level is $618 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. It was observed that the people living near these two quarries were more affected than the quarry workers. Although the incidence of respiratory symptoms like cough and dyspnoea were higher among workers, the lung functions of residents were about 5 to 15 percent lower than workers. About 10 percent of radiographs of workers showed either vascular markings or nodular shadows.

Dahisar and BPH employees were examined in 1992 to look for the effect of CO gas on carboxyhemoglobin. The study included 211 male employees from Dahisar and 198 male employees from BPH. In addition, another study examined 45 traffic police and 75 vendors working at six traffic junctions in Bombay. The mean COHb levels of non-smokers at Dahisar and BPH check posts was 1.7 percent, and that of traffic police was 2.3 percent. Among check post employees, occupational history showed significant correlation with COHb levels. The traffic junction study showed a significant correlation between ambient CO levels and COHb levels.

Table 3.2 summarizes EPRC studies, along with pollutant levels, incidence of different respiratory symptoms, and prevalence of respiratory diseases. A similar type of study was conducted in Navy Nagar, a comparatively clean area devoid of vehicular or industrial pollution. Table 3.2 shows that, compared to residents of Navy Nagar, the incidence of various respiratory symptoms is higher in communities near quarries, and among traffic police, employees of check posts, and the residential Chembur population near chemical factories. Furthermore, the prevalence of bronchitis and cardiac diseases was significantly higher among traffic police, compared to other localities. Similarly, people living near fertilizer factories or heavy traffic had a higher incidence of bronchitis and cardiac diseases compared to the control area, Navy Nagar.

Table 3.3 shows that lung function levels of Telecom (the control area of Chembur) subjects were higher than Chembur subjects who lived near the fertilizer and other chemical factories. There was no difference observed in lung functions of Parel subjects over the years. Overall, however, Parel residents had significantly worse lung function than that of Navy Nagar subjects (the Bombay control area). Peddar Road and King Circle subjects showed significant deterioration in lung function levels (by 200 to 500 milliliter) in a 1988 study, compared to a 1986 study. Also, BPH and Dahisar check post employees showed low lung function levels compared to Navy Nagar.

Table 3.3: Gender distribution of age and summary of lung function levels

Locality	Year	Sex	Age Groups (%)				FVC		FEV1	
			1-10	11-20	20-44	45+	7-19	>19	7-19	>19
Chembur	1978	Male	20.5	24.5	34.9	20.1	2.19±0.73	3.20±0.76	1.98±0.64	2.66±0.61
		Female	17.5	24.7	44.2	13.6	1.71±0.51	2.04±0.46	1.61±0.45	1.84±0.62
	1990	Male	22.0	27.2	28.5	40.6	2.64±1.09	3.24±0.88	2.40±1.02	2.82±0.63
		Female	15.0	18.4	44.8	21.7	2.11±0.59	2.08±0.64	1.97±0.58	1.86±0.63
Telecom (control)	1990	Male	17.4	38.3	26.3	18.0	2.71±1.04	3.31±0.73	2.56±0.97	3.05±0.69
		Female	13.8	27.6	42.0	16.7	2.04±0.59	2.12±0.52	1.94±0.57	1.95±0.54
Parel	1978	Male	20.5	24.5	34.9	20.1	2.11±0.75	3.13±0.60	1.94±0.66	2.62±0.57
		Female	17.5	24.7	44.2	13.6	1.73±0.84	2.02±0.52	1.73±0.81	1.77±0.45
	1986	Male	14.2	25.9	37.7	22.2	*	3.39±1.10	*	2.87±0.95
		Female	8.1	15.1	47.8	29.0	*	2.59±0.40	*	1.90±0.40
	1991	Male	17.6	29.2	33.8	19.4	2.45±0.89	3.05±0.72	2.27±0.86	2.63±0.63
		Female	14.5	18.1	39.9	27.5	1.94±0.46	2.00±0.43	1.80±0.44	1.77±0.44
Peddar Road	1986	Male	16.6	18.3	45.6	19.5	*	3.36±0.57	*	2.84±0.53
		Female	15.5	15.1	42.2	27.2	*	2.27±0.40	*	1.96±0.36
	1988	Male	17.2	28.0	30.1	24.7	2.56±1.02	2.84±0.57	*	2.61±0.57
		Female	11.9	22.4	37.1	28.7	1.82±0.49	1.83±0.37	*	1.74±0.34
King's Circle	1986	Male	14.6	20.7	34.8	29.9	*	3.34±0.65	*	2.88±0.55
		Female	15.5	11.9	40.8	32.4	*	2.25±0.72	*	1.62±0.45
	1988	Male	17.1	29.3	26.8	26.8	2.75±0.81	2.45±0.45	*	2.23±0.46
		Female	11.7	18.8	38.3	31.3	2.13±0.64	1.96±0.36	*	1.78±0.35
Kandivli	1988	Male	7.7	41.5	42.3	8.5	2.67±0.57	3.41±0.79	2.45±0.53	2.97±0.77
		Female	2.9	29.3	55.7	12.0	1.78±0.42	2.20±0.52	1.64±0.40	1.95±0.49
Navy Nagar	1990	Male	11.3	40.5	36.9	11.3	2.87±0.91	3.78±0.58	2.69±0.89	3.39±0.56
		Female	4.7	21.5	64.9	8.9	2.22±0.65	2.49±0.86	2.12±0.59	2.23±0.84
Locality			Age Groups (%)				FVC		FEV1	
Check Posts	Year	Sex	15-25	26-35	36-45	45+	Non-smoker	Smoker	Non-smoker	Smoker
Dahisar	1991	Male	13.3	37.4	37.4	11.8	3.20±0.64	3.22±0.78	2.28±0.60	2.76±0.65

MORTALITY

Health impacts are divided into mortality (excess deaths) and morbidity (excess illness). Mortality and morbidity numbers are derived from air quality data using dose-effect relationships. In principle, such relations are found by statistically comparing death rates and morbidity in urban areas, with different air quality. Appropriate dose-effect relations have been estimated by Ostro (1994). Admittedly, these dose-effect relations are derived from studies of U.S. cities and it is speculative to apply them to Bombay. However, until specific dose-effect relations for tropical conditions are derived, Ostro's relations are useful for preliminary estimates. Further, while it is clear that indoor air pollution such as that caused by cooking, can also damage health, this analysis was limited to outdoor air pollution.

Mortality due to PM₁₀. The relationship between air quality and mortality, where P equals the number of people exposed to a specific concentration; c equals the crude rate mortality (0.0076 in Bombay); and PM_{10} stands for its annual average concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), can be represented as follows:

$$\text{Excess death} = 0.00112 \times ([PM_{10}] - 41) \times P \times c$$

The PM_{10} benchmark is 41. Above this benchmark, mortality increases corresponding to the WHO guideline of $75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ TSP (PM_{10} /TSP ratio of 0.55) on a yearly basis (section 2.1). From this relation and the data presented in Chapter 2 (also Figure 4.1), it was estimated that the excess mortality due to PM_{10} (and TSP) was about 2,765 cases and of an exposed population of 9.8 million.

MORBIDITY

Inhaling particles can lead to chronic bronchitis, restricted activity days, respiratory diseases that require hospitalization, emergency room visits, bronchitis, asthma attacks and respiratory symptoms days. The estimated impact of PM_{10} on health in Bombay is illustrated in Table 3.4.

The following dose-effect relationships for impact estimation are described in the *URBAIR Guidebook*.

- Change in yearly cases of *chronic bronchitis* per 100,000 persons is estimated at 6.12 per $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ PM_{10} . The total number of yearly cases of chronic bronchitis per 100,000 persons is thus $6.12 \times ([PM_{10}] - 41)$.
- Change in *restricted activity days* per person, per year, per $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ PM_{10} is estimated at 0.0575. If the WHO standard is used, the change is $0.0575 \times ([PM_{10}] - 41)$.

Table 3.4: Estimated impact of PM_{10} air pollution on health in Bombay, 1991

Type of health impact	Number of cases (thousands)
Chronic bronchitis	20
Restricted activity days	18,680
Emergency room visits	76
Bronchitis in children	190
Asthma	741
Respiratory symptom days	60 (millions)
Respiratory hospital admissions	4

- Change in *respiratory hospital diseases* per 100,000 persons is estimated at 1.2 per $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ PM_{10} . Using the WHO standards, respiratory hospital diseases per 100,000 persons are estimated at $1.2 \times \{[\text{PM}_{10}] - 41\}$.
- Number of *emergency room visits* per 100,000 persons is estimated at 23.54 per $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ PM_{10} , and the total number per 100,000 persons at $23.54 \times ([\text{PM}_{10}] - 41)$.
- Change in the annual risk of *bronchitis* in children below 18 years is estimated at $0.00169 \times ([\text{PM}_{10}] - 41)$. Approximately 35 percent of the total population is under 18 years of age. The change in daily *asthma attacks* per asthmatic person is estimated at $0.0326 \times ([\text{PM}_{10}] - 41)$. The number of asthmatic persons is estimated at 7 percent of the population.
- *Respiratory symptoms days* per person, per year, are estimated at $0.183 \times ([\text{PM}_{10}] - 41)$.

VALUATION OF HEALTH IMPACTS

Mortality. Placing a monetary value on mortality is admittedly debatable. Many argue that such a valuation cannot be made ethically. By deleting mortality, however, we would seriously underestimate the total damage that air pollution causes.

A case (single instance) of mortality can be valued in two ways. The first is based on "willingness to pay," the other on "income potential." The "willingness to pay" approach is described in detail in the *URBAIR Guidebook*. In the United States a value of about US\$3 million per statistical life is often used. Although such a valuation is not readily transferable from one country to another, an approximation can be derived by correcting the U.S. figure by a factor of purchasing power parity in India, divided by the purchasing power in the United States. This factor is $970/21,900 = 0.044$ (Dichanov, 1994). At an exchange rate of Rs 1 = US\$0.032, this results in a value of Rs 4.25 million per statistical life in India.

The second approach is based on income lost due to mortality. The value of a statistical life (VSL) is then estimated as the discounted value of expected future income at the average age. If the average age of population is 24 years and the life expectancy at birth is 62 years, the VSL formula is:

$$VSL = \sum_{t=0}^{38} w / (1+d)^t$$

In the formula, w = average annual income, and d = the discount rate (Shin et al., 1992). In this approach, the value of persons without a salary (e.g. housewives) is taken to be the same as the value of those with a salary. If we estimate the daily wage in Bombay at Rs 75 per day (average, chief wage earner) and assume 200 working days in a year, using $d = 5$ percent as the discount rate, the value of a statistical life is $VSL = \text{Rs } 250,000$. For comparison, the highest compensation in the Bhopal case amounted to Rs 200,000. Considering both approaches to the valuation of premature death, the cost figure associated with increased mortality due to PM_{10} air pollution in 1990 ranges from Rs 0.7 billion to Rs 12 billion.

Morbidity. A summary of the valuation of illness is presented in Table 3.5. It presents estimated health cost figures and the evolving total costs, by combining the figures for mortality and illness.

Restricted activity days. Ostro's (1992) calculation of 20 percent work loss (valued at average wage), and 80 percent lower productivity (valued at one-third of average wage) was

used. The average wage is about Rs 60 per day. The estimate is thus: $0.2 \times 60 + 0.8 \times 20 = \text{Rs } 28$.

Emergency room visit. Private hospitals charge Rs 100 to 150 for an emergency room visit. This includes the doctor's bill, and medication. To this is added the cost of the loss of one work day (Rs 60), cost of transport (2 x Rs 50), resulting in a total of Rs 260 to 310.

Respiratory symptoms day. No surveys on willingness to pay to prevent a respiratory symptom day have been carried out in India. Therefore it is difficult to make a reliable valuation. Considering the valuation in Jakarta (US\$2), India's lower per capita income, and the restricted activity days valuation above, an estimate of Rs 20 seems appropriate.

Cases of *bronchitis in children* may be high because doctors often don't want to use the more ominous word "asthma". The duration of bronchitis averages 13.2 days, and is valued at respiratory symptoms day (Rs 20). Ostro's figure of 2 days of a parent's restricted activity, valued at Rs 28 per day, was used. The total loss is calculated as follows: $13.2 \times 20 + 2 \times 28 = \text{Rs } 320$.

A severe *asthma* attack lasts on average 9.1 days. The daily hospital fee in private hospitals is about Rs 1,000; to this we add 9.1 lost working days. The total for a severe attack is thus $9.1 \times (1,060) = \text{Rs } 9,646$. For a milder attack, the same figure as for an emergency room visit (Rs 260 to 310) could be used. For still milder attacks only the medication costs apply; aerosols and tablets cost approximately Rs 200. Depending on the severity, the cost of an asthma attack can range from Rs 200 to Rs 9,646. Considering that milder attacks are more frequent, the average valuation is estimated at Rs 1,000 per attack.

Respiratory hospital admission. The valuation is the same as for a severe asthma attack (Rs 9,646).

Chronic bronchitis becomes more serious as people age. Elderly people and younger smokers are especially vulnerable to chronic bronchitis. The average age at which people become chronically ill with bronchitis is 35 years. Average life expectancy at birth is 62 years. It is estimated that the number of work loss days per year is about 50. Work days lost are valued at Rs 60 per day,

Table 3.5: Valuation of health impacts

Type of health impact	Specific costs Rs	Total costs million Rs
Effects of PM₁₀		
Mortality	4.25 million (US WTP)	11,753
	250,000 (lost salary)	691
Restricted activity day	28	523
Emergency room visit	260–310	22
Bronchitis (children)	320	61
Asthma attacks	1,000	741
Respiratory symptoms day	20	1,189
Hospital admission	9,646	38
Chronic Bronchitis	161,000	3,201
Total Cost		18,219

resulting in Rs 46,000 if discounted at 5 percent. To this we add the costs of hospital visits, which are estimated at 0.5 times per year. Such a visit would average 13.1 days at a fee of Rs 1,000 per day. Discounted at 5 percent, total hospital costs amount to Rs 100,000. Finally, yearly expenditure on medication is about Rs 1,000—totaling a discounted amount of Rs 15,200 over 27 years. The valuation of a case of chronic bronchitis is thus Rs 46,000 + Rs 100,000 + Rs 15,000 = Rs 161,000.

CONCLUSIONS

Air pollution damages human health, vegetation and crops, buildings and monuments, ecosystems and tourism. Assessing these impacts is hampered by incomplete and missing data. Nevertheless, the mortality and morbidity resulting from excess concentrations of PM₁₀ have been estimated using dose-effect relationships derived for U.S. cities. The lack of data for airborne lead prevented an estimate of its health impact, which includes increased mortality, IQ point loss in children, hypertension, and coronary heart disease.

It is difficult to estimate the monetary value of a lost life. The value of a statistical life is Rs 250,000; a figure estimated by the human capital approach (earnings lost due to premature death) is used in this analysis. Costs of morbidity (illness) are relatively more reliable. They consist of foregone wages, and medical treatment costs. This valuation of damage to human health tends to underestimate the suffering due to illness or premature death.

Table 3.6 provides preliminary information for calculating the benefits of measures to reduce emissions. Benefits of the emission reduction are estimated by potential health costs avoided by the absolute emission reduction. The table shows also "marginal" benefits from addressing each category of emissions. It appears that addressing emissions from industry is the most effective in terms of benefits per ton of emission reduced. This relates to the high estimated PM₁₀

Table 3.6: Reduction of emissions and related benefits. Situation 1991, 9.8 million inhabitants in Bombay modeling area

Source category	Emissions (tons)	Mortality (cases)	Respiratory symptom days (million)	Health costs (Rs million)	"Marginal" benefits (Rs million per ton)
All source reference		2,765	60	6,467	
Industry	706				
Domestic	6,443				
Traffic	6,286				
Reduction of industry sources		Avoided	Avoided	Avoided	Avoided
25%	176.5	64	1.4	151	0.85
50%	353.0	121	2.6	284	
Reduction of domestic sources					
25%	1610.75	466	10	1091	0.34
50%	3221.50	971	21	2271	
Reduction of traffic sources					
25%	1571.50	216	4.6	505	0.67
50%	3143.0	421	9	985	

Note: Mortality valued according to the lost salary method (see Table 3.5).

concentrations near stone crushers. However, considering industry's limited share of total emissions, the scope for improving Bombay's air quality by addressing industrial emissions is small. Not taking into account costs of measures, and only considering the health benefits, domestic emissions followed by traffic emissions should be targeted first.

4. ABATEMENT MEASURES: EFFECTIVENESS AND COSTS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines measures for reducing air pollution in Bombay, and for drafting an action plan that would translate these measures into practice. Information is organized by pollution source category: traffic, large point source power plants, fuel combustion other than in power plants, industrial/commercial sources, and refuse burning and domestic emissions. For the main source categories, characteristics of appropriate measures are described:

- *effectiveness* in terms of both emission reduction and reduced impacts in the year 1990 (using Table 3.6). On average, 1.35 excess deaths are avoided by reducing 10 tons of PM₁₀. The reference data include: mortality (2,765 due to PM₁₀), number of respiratory symptom days (60 million in 1990), and total health costs (Rs6.5 billion);
- *costs* (mostly annual costs at the societal level);
- *benefits* estimated by interpolating figures from the Table 3.6;
- *policy instruments* that might be used to implement measures; and
- *term for emissions reduction*: short-term (less than 2 years), mid-term (2–5 years), or long term (more than 5 years).

Identifying measures to address traffic emission, for example, is straightforward because the major causes of air pollution are commonly known. Policy measures that are especially cost efficient include: an inspection and maintenance scheme, and the introduction of unleaded gasoline and low-smoke lubricating oil. Other measures with less clear cost-benefit ratios (due to lack of data or methodological problems) are: improving automotive diesel fuel quality; clean car standards; increased consumption of natural gas for automotive and stationary use; and improving the public transportation system.

A similar list of measures addressing pollution sources, other than traffic, was not possible due to lack of information. In particular, refuse burning and cooking with wood, appear to be more important to PM₁₀ exposure in Bombay than traffic sources (Table 3.4). The list of measures is derived from the information presented by the local URBAIR working group, the *URBAIR Guidebook*, and from earlier plans (see Chapters 3 and 6) addressing problems in Bombay.

TRAFFIC

This section describes the effectiveness of abatement measures for reducing emissions and, to the extent possible, the benefits of measures such as:

- introducing unleaded gasoline;
- implementing a scheme for inspection and maintenance;
- addressing excessively polluting vehicles;
- improving diesel fuel quality;
- improving quality of lubricating oil in two-stroke engines;
- switching fuel (gasoline to or LPG/CNG) in the transportation sector, induced by price shifts;
- adopting clean vehicle emission standards; and
- other measures.

Introducing unleaded gasoline

Unleaded gasoline addresses the ambient lead problem and is a prerequisite for introducing strict emission standards, and for the use of an exhaust catalyst (see summary in Table 4.1). An

Table 4.1: Introducing low lead and unleaded fuel

Effectiveness:	Depending on rate of introduction.
Costs:	Costs at refinery Rs 0.7 to 1 per liter unleaded fuel (corresponding with Rs 250–360 million—1990).
Benefits:	Unknown in Bombay; Unleaded fuel required when catalytic-exhaust gas control is introduced; Need to control of benzene and aromatics, to not offset benefits.
Instruments/institutions:	
Term:	Two to five years.
Target groups:	Oil and gasoline industry.
Note: Sales of gasoline in 1990 were 362 millions liters (Table 1.9), corresponding with Rs. 250–360 million.	

"intermediate" approach is to reduce the permitted lead content of gasoline. Current plans call for reducing the maximum lead content to 0.15 grams per liter. The present level is 0.18 to 0.19 grams per liter for gasoline supplied from Bombay refineries, about 70 percent of the total supply. The remainder has a lead content of 0.56 to 0.80 grams per liter.

Assuming simultaneous introduction of vehicles with catalytic converters, unleaded gasoline would require a separate fuel distribution system that does not mix leaded with unleaded fuel. Retailers usually sell both fuels. Older engines may require leaded fuel because of the lubrication required for their valve seats, or because of its higher RON-number. Unleaded gasoline is widely available in many countries, so technical obstacles should not be a major constraint.

Removing the lead compound in gasoline may require reformulation in order to maintain ignition properties (octane number). This can be done by increasing the aromatics content or adding oxygenated compounds such as MTBE (methyl-tertiary-butyl-ether). Aromatics include benzene, a carcinogenic compound. This is an environmental concern, both due to the evaporation of gasoline (at production, storage and handling) and from the possible increase in benzene in exhaust gases (Tims et al, 1981, Tims, 1983). A limit on the amount of benzene and total aromatics in gasoline is necessary. A decision on the scale of the limit requires data on benzene as it relates to current air quality (AIAM, 1994). Experience in other countries indicates

that this issue can be resolved. It should be noted that catalytic devices effectively destroy benzene in exhaust, so any net outcome in airborne benzene will probably be small. Unleaded gasoline with a high RON-number is usually produced by adding MTBE, which may be imported or produced in India.

Effectiveness. Reduction in emissions is proportionate to the eventual market shares of unleaded and low-lead gasoline and, in case of low-lead gasoline, also to the lead content.

Costs of the measure. Reduced-lead gasoline must be reformulated in order to retain the RON number. The lead is replaced by oxygenated compounds; MTBE is a preferred substitute. These changes increase production costs by Rs 0.7–Rs 1 per liter of gasoline, depending on the local market for refinery products, the required gasoline specifications, and the costs of MTBE (Turner et al, 1993).

Policy instruments and target groups. Lowering the maximum allowed lead content of gasoline is the first step. In countries where gasoline is taxed, unleaded gasoline may be taxed less and leaded fuel taxed more so that the fiscal authority's net yield does not change. The oil industry and gasoline distribution firms will have to produce unleaded gasoline. The oil industry is the main actor in the process (AIAM, 1994).

Term. Since it is relatively simple to produce, unleaded fuel can be commonly available within 5 years.

Improving diesel quality

Diesel's ignition and combustion properties are important parameters for PM₁₀ emissions from diesel engines (Hutcheson and van Paassen, 1990, Tharby et al, 1992). Its volatility (boiling range), viscosity, and cetane number (an indicator of its ignition properties) determine these properties and, consequently, PM₁₀ emissions. A minimum cetane number of 42 is

required in Bombay for automotive purposes. In the United States, Western Europe, and Japan the corresponding quality varies from 48 to 50. Another factor is the presence of detergents and dispersants in diesel fuels. These additives keep injection systems clean and have discernible efficiency effects (Parkes, 1988). The Indian automobile manufacturing industry advocates an improvement in fuel quality (AIAM, 1994). See summary in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Improving diesel fuel quality

Effectiveness:	250 tons PM ₁₀ (1990).
Costs:	Rs 0.3 per liter (about Rs 300 million annually).
Benefits:	Less mortality, 35; less RSD, 0.75 million; avoided health costs Rs 80 million; reduction of SO ₂ emissions.
Instruments/institution:	Energy authorities.
Terms:	Two–five years.
Target groups:	Petroleum industry.

Effectiveness. It is assumed that an improvement in fuel properties, as expressed by an increase in the cetane number² and the addition of detergents, results in a 10 percent or about 230 ton reduction (1990) in PM₁₀ emissions (AIAM, 1994, Mehta et al, 1993). A reduction in the sulfur content of fuel would not result in a proportional decline in SO₂ emissions, it would also lead to a fall in PM₁₀ emissions. This is because a part of the PM₁₀ particle consists of sulfates.

Costs. The cost of improving diesel fuel, in particular increasing the cetane number, is determined by the oil-product market, the refinery structure (capacity for producing light fuels/visbreaking/hydrotreating etc.), and Government. The latter eventually determines the at-the-pump-price for fuels.

The cost of reducing the sulfur content of diesel fuel stems from the extensive desulfurization that must occur at the refinery. The costs for a reduction from 0.7 percent to 0.2 percent sulfur are about Rs 0.3 per liter. Combustion of sulfur in diesel fuel also leads to the formation of corrosive sulfuric acid. Therefore, reducing the sulfur content also lowers the costs of vehicle maintenance and repair.

Policy instruments and target groups. Improving the quality of diesel fuel should be a part of India's energy policy. The oil industry should take the necessary steps to expand its capacity for producing better quality diesel fuel.

Term. The typical period for adjusting refineries (such as extension of visbreaking capacity) is about 3 to 5 years.

Introduction of low-smoke lubricating oil for two-stroke, mixed-lubrication engines

Bombay traffic has a large share of motorcycles and autorickshaws, both equipped with two-stroke mixed-lubrication engines. These vehicles cause about a third (2,700 tons) of PM₁₀ emissions from traffic exhaust. A substantial fraction of the particles emitted by these vehicles are micro-droplets of unburned lubrication oil. According to Shell Oil Company (private communication, 1993) the lubricating oil used in most Southeast Asian countries is cheap and has poor combustion qualities. See summary in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Low-smoke lubricating oil for two-stroke, mixed-lubrication engines

Effectiveness:	450 tons PM ₁₀ (1990).
Costs:	Rs 30 million.
Benefits:	Less mortality, 65; less RSD, 1.5 million; avoided health costs, Rs 150 million.
Instruments/institution:	
Term:	Two years.
Target groups:	Petroleum industry.

² The physico-chemical properties—as expressed in the cetane number—of diesel fuel influence the magnitude of the TSP emissions of diesel-powered vehicles. The relation between these properties (such as volatility and viscosity) and the production of TSP in a diesel motor is not straightforward; the characteristics of the diesel motor, its load and its injection timing plan are other important parameters.

Effectiveness. It can be assumed that a better-quality lubrication oil will decrease emissions by half (1,350 tons reduction).

Costs. Annually, 1,000 cubic tons of poor quality lubricating oil is consumed. Introducing better oil is estimated to double the expenditure on lubricating oil. A rough estimate of the total costs of low-smoke oil is Rs 30 million.

Policy instruments and target groups. A standard should be set for the quality of lubricating oil. The oil industry and lubricating oil importers are the main target groups.

Implementation of an inspection and maintenance scheme

Effectiveness. Maladjusted fuel injection systems or carburetors, and worn-out motor parts present a threat to traffic safety, increase fuel consumption and thus costs, and lead to traffic emissions. The semi-annual inspection and maintenance of vehicles will probably result in a substantial reduction of PM₁₀, VOC, and CO emissions. An accurate assessment of emission

reduction, associated with an inspection and maintenance scheme, requires statistical data about emission characteristics of the Bombay vehicle fleet relative to its state of maintenance. This information is not available.

The proposed inspection and maintenance scheme, would lead to 35 percent reduction in tail pipe emissions of PM₁₀, VOC, and CO. This is in line with an estimate by the Association of Indian Automobile Manufacturers (AIAM, 1994) and the World Bank estimate for Manila (Mehta, 1993). See summary in Table 4.4.

Costs of an inspection and maintenance scheme. The present capacity for vehicle-emission testing is insufficient. In order to circumvent capacity problems in government agencies, testing can be done by private firms⁴. Such a scheme, involving all vehicles, may have a total cost of approximately US\$5–10 million or Rs 150–300 million for vehicle owners (US\$2–5 or Rs 60–

Table 4.4: Implementation of an inspection and maintenance scheme

Effectiveness:	35% reduction, 800 tons PM ₁₀ .
Costs:	Rs 150–300 million. Maintenance costs are expected to be offset by improved fuel efficiency.
Benefits:	Less mortality, 110; less RSD, 2.5 million; avoided health costs, Rs 250 million; reduction of CO, VOC emissions, improvement of road safety (if roadworthiness is included in the scheme).
Term:	Two to five years.
Target groups:	The scheme could be carried out by the private sector.

⁴ Such a scheme might include the following actions:

- private firms would be licensed to carry out inspections.
- authorities would spot-check the firms to oversee inspections.
- vehicles that pass the test would get a sticker valid for a specific period, and drivers would show a test report on request.
- vehicles would be spot-checked.

150 per test⁵, 1.5 million vehicles, environmental inspection part of roadworthiness test). Better engine performance and the resulting reduction in fuel costs would offset the maintenance cost.

Term. An inspection and maintenance scheme can be implemented within 5 years.

Address the problem of excessively polluting vehicles

Almost a quarter of all vehicles are estimated to emit excessive exhaust. These vehicles are badly maintained, use worn-out engines, or have maladjusted engine controls. A program focusing on these vehicles would result in an emissions reduction equaling 400 tons of PM₁₀ (15 percent reduction in total tailpipe emissions). This measure may include a system of spot-checks of vehicles on the road, in combination with a penalty system. Awareness campaigns would enhance the feasibility of such a measure. See summary in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Address excessively polluting vehicles

Effectiveness:	400 tons PM ₁₀ .
Costs:	
Benefits:	Less mortality, 50; less RSD 1.2 million; avoided health costs, Rs 125 million.
Instrument/institution:	Motor Vehicles Act (1988) and Environment Protection Act (1986), second amendment Rule (1990), Ministry of Surface Transport and State Transport Department.
Term:	
Target groups:	Traffic authorities/Vehicle owners.

Fuel switching in the transportation sector

Using gaseous fuels such as LPG (Liquid Petroleum Gas) and CNG (Compressed Natural Gas) is an option for addressing air pollution from PM₁₀ emissions from vehicles. Liquid LPG is widely used in areas where supply is abundant and fuel taxes favor its use. The use of LPG or CNG requires adapting the engine and its controls. Such a switch will only pay off when LPG or CNG prices are lower than those of gasoline or diesel. CNG has already been introduced as an automotive fuel in Bombay. The lack of filling stations is a major impediment. See summary in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Introduction of CNG to replace 50% of gasoline consumption (1990 situation) in passenger cars

Effectiveness:	200 tons PM ₁₀ .
Costs:	Costs for vehicle owner depends on the price differential between gasoline and CNG (natural gas is cheaper).
Benefits:	Less mortality, 25; less RSD, 0.6 million; avoided health costs, Rs 75 million.
Trade-off:	Increased emissions of methane (greenhouse gas), the main constituent of natural gas.
Instruments/institution:	Department of Energy.
Term:	
Target groups:	Energy authorities.

⁵ Order of magnitude. Cost in Manila estimated at US\$3. Cost in the Netherlands (including roadworthiness) is US\$30.

LPG can be used as a clean alternative to both gasoline and diesel. Its advantage over CNG is that it can be more easily transported in tanks, and its energy density (energy per volume of fuel) is higher, resulting in better mileage. Its market price is a disadvantage.

Effectiveness. CNG is used as a fuel substitute in four-stroke gasoline cars. It can effectively reduce PM₁₀ emissions by 90 percent. If all gasoline cars had been modified to use CNG in 1990, PM₁₀ emissions would have been less by 400 tons.

Costs. Whether these investments are made depends ultimately on the price difference between CNG and gasoline. Wider use of CNG requires investments in natural gas distribution (connection filling stations with the piping grid); compressors at the filling station; and conversion kits for the vehicles.

Policy instruments and target groups. The main bottleneck for introducing CNG and LPG seems to be the lack of filling stations, which in turn relates to a limited gas distribution system. Connecting a filling station to the gas distribution grid requires large investments. A scheme for subsidies or cheap loans might facilitate this. The viability of the scheme will increase as use of natural gas in other sectors increases, thus justifying extending the distribution grid. The country's energy policy will have a bearing on this measure.

Adoption of clean vehicle emission standards

Many countries have adopted standards for permissible emissions from vehicles. These standards require that vehicles with four-stroke gasoline engines be equipped with exhaust gas control devices based on the use of three-way catalysts (closed-loop

Table 4.7: Adoption of clean vehicle standards. Gasoline passenger cars and vans

Effectiveness:	80% effectiveness per (gasoline) vehicle (for 1990 in total 400 tons).
Costs:	Rs 3,000 per vehicle (including costs of unleaded fuel). In total, Rs 750 millions annually.
Benefits:	Less mortality, 50; less RSD, 1.2 million; avoided health costs, Rs 125 million (hypothetical situation in 1990). Reductions of emissions of lead, CO, NO _x and VOC are the justification for introducing these systems, in other countries.
Instruments/institution:	
Term:	Two to five years. Tied to the renewal of the car fleet.
Target groups:	Oil industry — the first move is to make unleaded fuel available, vehicle importers, vehicle manufacturers.

systems). A few countries, including Austria and Taiwan, have also set standards for motorcycle emissions, requiring two-stroke engine-powered vehicles to be equipped with open-loop catalysts. Such devices control VOC, PM₁₀ emissions, and CO, but not NO_x. See summary in Tables 4.7 and 4.8.

Diesel-powered vehicles are also subject to regulations. The emission requirements are met by adjusting the motor design. Tailpipe emission treatment may also be used, and existing buses retrofitted with new equipment. If the last method is employed, the diesel must be of a much better quality than is presently used in Bombay (sulfur content below 0.02 percent). This type of standard is now being introduced in some parts of the world.

The catalyst technology uses unleaded gasoline, the sulfur content of which should be less than 500 PPM. Therefore, introducing such standards requires infrastructure for producing and distributing unleaded gasoline⁶.

Table 4.8: Adoption of clean vehicle standards for motorcycles and tricycles

Effectiveness:	80% effectiveness per vehicle (for 1990 in total 750 tons)
Costs:	Rs 230 per vehicle (including costs of unleaded fuel). In total, Rs 600 million
Benefits:	Less mortality, 100: less RSD 2.4 million; avoided health costs, Rs 250 million (hypothetical situation in 1990). Reductions of emissions of lead, CO, NO _x and VOC are the main justification for introduction of these systems in other countries.
Instruments/institution:	
Term:	Two to five years. The result of such measures is the renewal of the fleet.
Target groups:	Petroleum industry, vehicle importers, vehicle manufacturers.
Note: Standards include two-stroke engines, either requiring catalytic converters or four-stroke engines.	

Effectiveness.

Catalytic devices for treating exhaust gases require the use of unleaded gasoline. Thus such devices not only result in cleaner emissions but also in a reduction in lead pollution. With closed-loop catalytic treatment of exhaust gases (three-way catalysts) from gasoline-engine vehicles, emissions of NO_x, CO and VOC are reduced by about 85 percent. In addition lead emissions are reduced by 100 percent, as unleaded fuel is a prerequisite for this type of standards.

Open-loop catalytic treatment of exhaust gases from two-stroke motorcycles reduces CO, VOC, and PM₁₀ (oil mist) emissions, by as much as 90 percent. Successful use of these catalysts also requires unleaded gasoline. An alternative is using well designed and adequately maintained four-stroke engines. A similar emission reduction can be obtained by following this approach.

Costs. The cost of closed-loop catalytic treatment of exhaust gases stems from the increased purchasing costs of vehicles. In the United States, this increase averages about US\$400, ranging from US\$300 to \$500 (Wang et al, 1993). While catalytic devices have minor adverse effect on fuel economy, this cost is compensated by an increase in the life-time of replacement parts such as the exhaust system. The total annual cost per automobile is estimated at US\$100 (US\$50 depreciation per car and US\$50 extra fuel costs) or Rs 3,000.

The cost of open-loop catalytic treatment of exhaust gases of two-stroke motor cycles is related to increased equipment costs. Benefits include lower fuel cost due to improved engine operation. Taiwan adopted standards that require the use of open-loop catalytic devices which result in a US\$60 to US\$80 cost increase. This is offset by fuel savings (Binnie & Partners, 1992). Total annual cost is estimated at US\$75 or Rs 230 per vehicle (depreciation plus increased fuel costs). It is assumed that the cost of motorcycles is similar to the cost of four-stroke engines.

The higher price of unleaded gasoline, due to increased production costs and adjustments to the logistic system (modification of pump nozzles) should also be included here. A very rough estimate of the cost is Rs 3,000 annually, per car (Rs 1,500 depreciation of control system, plus a Rs 1,500 increase in fuel costs, depending on subsidies and levies on gasoline).

⁶ A single gram of lead will contaminate the catalyst and render it useless. In addition, lead destroys the oxygen sensor of the fuel injection system.

Due to methodological problems it is not possible to calculate the total cost of introducing this standard in Bombay. However, as explained above, costs can be estimated on a vehicle-by-vehicle basis.

Policy instruments and target groups. The groups involved in introducing "clean" vehicles are:

- petroleum industry, and gasoline retailers (clean cars require unleaded gasoline);
- car and motorcycle industry;
- repair shops/garages (proper skills required to maintain clean vehicles); and
- vehicle owners (must pay the price).

Term. In practice, standards are set only for new cars and motorcycles. It is expensive to equip existing vehicles with the necessary devices. Practically all vehicles currently sold on the world market are designed to be equipped with catalytic converters. This will affect the replacement rate of existing vehicles.

Other options

The United States and the European Union are discussing ways to tighten standards by:

- improving current abatement techniques;
- improving inspection and maintenance, since a small number of maladjusted and worn-out cars cause disproportionately large emissions; and
- enforcing the use of "zero-pollution" vehicles, especially electric vehicles, in downtown areas.

Diesel engines are a bottleneck in decreasing automotive air pollution. This is because treating exhaust from diesel engines is not easy.

Resuspension emission

Resuspension of road dust is clearly a high-priority issue. Unfortunately, there is a lack of quantitative information about control measures appropriate to Bombay. Further analyses should give priority to measures dealing with resuspension. In general, all methods for reducing entrainment should be evaluated and applied. Controlling resuspension of road dust may be the most cost effective way of reducing TSP exposure.

Improving traffic management

Traffic management includes a variety of measures including: traffic control by policemen or traffic lights, one-way streets, new roads, and road-pricing systems. One of the major aims of traffic management is to solve the problem of congestion. Curb-side traffic management may improve air quality⁷, but it may also increase emissions because it usually results in increased use of the transport system. In terms of exposure, traffic management leads to an improvement in the

⁷ Accelerating vehicles, a dominant feature of congested traffic, emit disproportionately large amounts of pollutants.

downtown air quality, and a reduction in road exposure. In terms of total exposure, however, the net result may be small. Improved traffic management may have other environmental benefits such as reduction of noise and congestion. More detailed analysis is needed, but traffic management seems to be a cost-effective policy.

Construction and improvement of mass-transit systems

In BMR, almost 80 percent of passenger trips are made by public transport: 44 percent by bus and 36 percent by suburban trains (Cooper & Lybrand and AIC, 1994). This compares favorably with many other Asian cities. However, the present public transport system is overstretched and inadequate to meet rising demand, resulting in a shift toward the use of private vehicles.

Assessing the costs and effectiveness of measures to improve the Bombay public transport system involves:

- describing a future system appropriate to Bombay;
- appraising the performance of a such system;
- assessing the construction costs;
- specifying the baseline (future situation without such system);
- avoiding emissions;
- calculating non-environmental benefits; and
- designing a scheme to identify costs and benefits to impute to the environmental aspects.

The costs of constructing mass-transit systems are high, and projects cannot be justified from an air pollution point of view alone. However, mass-transit systems have a variety of other benefits, including a reduction in congestion.

LARGE POINT SOURCES

Cleaner fuels in existing power plants. Under special weather conditions, power plants in Bombay may have a significant impact on concentrations. On a yearly average basis they do not contribute much to the air pollution problem. The use of cleaner fuel (low sulfur oil or coal) or natural gas might be contemplated, but the benefits relate to SO₂ or CO₂ emissions that are regional and global.

Other point sources. Furnace oil (residual fuel oil or bunker fuel) with a sulfur content of about 4 percent (by weight) contributes about 75 percent of emissions from large point sources. The obvious measure is to reduce the sulfur content. The order of magnitude of the costs to use 2 percent, instead of 4 percent sulfur fuel, is about Rs 750 million (fuel consumption 200,000 tons annually). As these point sources contribute little to ambient PM₁₀, the estimated benefits are small.

DISTRIBUTED INDUSTRIAL/COMMERCIAL SOURCES

The combustion of furnace oil by small industries is the main source of PM₁₀ emissions (source category domestic). This emission is estimated at 300 tons (see Chapter 2). Halving these emissions by using 2 percent sulfur oil would cost approximately Rs 450 million. It would, however, lead to a decline in excess mortality by 22, 0.5 million fewer RSD, and Rs 50 million less in health damage (derived from Table 4.6, reduction of domestic and distributed sources).

REFUSE BURNING AND DOMESTIC EMISSIONS

Refuse burning and domestic emissions, together with resuspension, are the main sources of air pollution in Bombay. Refuse burning can be avoided by extending the public refuse collection system. This may require an increase in municipal taxes, or overall management. Domestic emissions are caused by cooking on traditional stoves or "chullas." These stoves are a major cause of indoor air pollution and pose a special threat to the health of women and children. In addition, they are energy inefficient, have an adverse impact on the overall air quality in the city.

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter describes measures for improving Bombay's air quality, their effectiveness, costs, benefits, implementation, and the institutions and authorities that would be responsible for each of the measures. A comparison of the costs and benefits leads to the prioritization of the measures.

Identifying measures to address traffic emissions is straightforward because the major causes of air pollution are obvious. From a cost-benefit point of view the measures that should receive priority are:

- an inspection and maintenance scheme;
- introducing unleaded gasoline; and,
- introducing low-smoke lubricating oil.

Other measures for which it is difficult to tabulate cost-benefit ratios because of lack of data or methodological problems are:

- improving automotive diesel fuel quality;
- clean car standards;
- increased use of natural gas for automotive and other use; and
- improving the public transport system.

Although other sources of pollution such as domestic cooking with wood, appear to be very important, measures to deal with these are not reported due to a lack of data. Resuspension of road dust constitutes a large part of TSP and controlling it would probably be one of the most cost effective ways of reducing ambient TSP exposure.

5. ACTION PLAN

The following action plan is based on the cost-benefit analysis of various measures that reduce air pollution and the damages that result from it. This plan is based on available data, the shortcomings of which are identified throughout the text. Improving the database is necessary in order to extend the action plan to include additional measures.⁸

The “actions” fall into two categories:

- Technical and other measures that will reduce exposure and damage.
- Improving the database, and the regulatory and institutional basis for establishing an operative System for Air Quality Management in Greater Bombay.

The time frame in which the actions/measures could be implemented and will be effective, is indicated as short (less than 5 years), medium (5 to 10 years) or long-term (more than 10 years).

ACTIONS TO IMPROVE GREATER BOMBAY AIR QUALITY, AND ITS MANAGEMENT

Actions to improve air quality

Actions and measures have been formulated and proposed by the Bombay URBAIR working groups (Table 5.1), and consultants.

Technical measures, to be introduced in the short term, are prioritized in Table 5.2. For most of these measures, the estimated benefits as well as the estimated costs are substantial. Clean vehicle standards for cars and vans are the exception. Lowering the lead content of gasoline is an important measure in

Table 5.1: Measures proposed by the URBAIR working group

Vehicular pollution:	Exhaust monitoring, Expiration of PUC Certificate, Adulterated fuels, High pollution vehicles, Fuel quality polic (gasoline/diesel).	Use of CNG, Traffic flow, Pedestrian flow, Inspection/maintenance, Mass transit.
Monitoring:	Air quality monitoring, Meteorological monitoring, Health monitoring.	
Industrial pollution:	Reporting format, Emission factors, Stone crushers, Waste burning.	
Community sources:	Refuse burning, Wood burning, Dust resuspension, Decongestion.	Emission inventory, Energy demand, Organization.

⁸ It should be noted that the additional road side exposure for commuters and drivers has not been considered in the present analysis. This means that the benefits are underestimated.

Table 5.2: Action plan of abatement measures, based on cost-benefit analysis

Abatement measure	Avoided emissions (tons PM ₁₀ /yr)	Mortality reduction	Reduced RSD (million days)	Annual health benefits (million Rs)	Annual costs (million Rs)	Time frame	
						Introduction of measure ^a	Effect of measure
Vehicles							
Unleaded gasoline:	NQ	NQ	NQ	NQ	250-360	Immediate	2-5 years
Low-smoke lub. oil, 2-stroke:	450	65	1.5	150	30	Immediate	2 years
Inspection/maintenance:	800	110	2.5	250	150-300	Immediate	2-5 years
Address gross polluters:	400	50	1.2	125	NQ	Immediate	2 years
Clean vehicle standards							
Cars and vans:	400	50	1.2	125	750	Immediate	5-15 years
Motorcycles and tricycles:	750	100	2.4	240	600	Immediate	5-10 years
Improved diesel quality:	250	35	0.75	80	300	Immediate	2-5 years
CNG replace gasoline, 50%:	200	25	0.6	75	NQ	Immediate	5-10 years
Fuel combustion							
Cleaner fuel oil (FO to 2% S):	150	22	0.5	50	450	Immediate	2-5 years

a: Time frame for starting the work necessary to introduce measure.

NQ: Not quantified.

itself as it leads to a reduction in lead concentrations. In addition it is also a prerequisite for clean vehicle standards.

The success of these measures rests with enforcement. It is important to ensure that necessary technical improvements and adjustments such as workshop capacity and capability for adjusting engines, and the availability of reasonably priced spare parts can be assured.

The action plan incorporates the following measures (as discussed in Chapter 4):

- Introducing unleaded gasoline;
- Improving diesel quality;
- Introducing low-smoke lubrication oil for 2-stroke, mixed lubrication engines;
- Implementing an inspection/maintenance scheme;
- Addressing excessively polluting vehicles;
- Fuel switching in the transportation sector, gasoline to LPG or CNG in vehicles;
- Adopting clean vehicle emission standard;
- Improving diesel quality;
- Improving abatement and other propulsion techniques;
- Improving traffic management;
- Constructing, and improving mass-transit systems; and
- Using cleaner fuel oil.

Table 5.3 lists abatement measures for which cost-benefit analysis has not been performed. These could also be introduced in the short- to medium-term, and would benefit air quality.

Table 5.3: Additional measures for short- to medium-term introduction

Abatement measure/action	Time frame	
	Introduction of measure	Effect of measure
Vehicles		
Address dilution and adulteration of fuel:	Short term	Short term
Restrict life time of public UVs and buses:	Short term	Medium term
Traffic management		
Improve capacity of existing road network:	Short term	Medium term
• improve surface		
• remove obstacles		
• improve traffic signals	Short/medium term	Medium term
Extend/develop road network, Improve/eliminate bottlenecks:		
Transport demand management		
Improve existing bus and rail system:	Short term	Medium term
• improve time schedules		
• improve junctions/stations		
• make integrated plan		
Develop parking policy:	Short term	Short term
• restrictions in central area		
• parking near mass transit terminals		
• car-pooling		

Table 5.4 lists actions to improve the Air Quality Management System. These apply to:

- air quality assessment;
- assessment of damage and costs;
- the institutional and regulatory framework; and
- building social awareness.

Table 5.4: Actions to improve the air quality assessment of Greater Bombay

Air Quality Monitoring:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve the ambient air quality monitoring system; • Upgrade laboratory facilities and manpower capacities; • Establish, and improve a quality control system; and • Establish a database suitable for providing air quality information to the public/control agencies/law makers.
Emissions:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve inventory of industrial emissions; • Develop integrated, comprehensive emission inventory procedure; and • Study resuspension on roads.
Population exposure:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish appropriate dispersion modeling tools for control strategy in Greater Bombay.

The list of measures proposed by the Bombay URBAIR working group is presented in Table 5.5. Table 5.6 lists additional measures suggested by consultants that are not in the Bombay Working Groups' action plan (Table 5.5). This list includes low smoke lubrication oil for 2-stroke vehicles (already on the market in Bombay), ban of further sales of new 2-stroke motorcycles, and parking

restrictions. The MCGB, MPCB and the Transport Commissioner have presented lists of additional action items. These are presented as Annexes to Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Categorized action plan for Greater Bombay

Issue	Action Required	Lead Agency	Cost Estimate (Rs Lakhs)	Time-frame	Priority Estimate
VEHICULAR POLLUTION					
1. Exhaust Monitoring:	Stricter enforcement of existing legal provisions. Compliance to be checked: a) Four wheelers: at annual tax payment; b) Three wheelers: vigilance monitoring; c) Two wheelers: awareness campaign. At all transactions, e.g. Transfer/Hypothecation tax payment, etc.	Transport Dept.	342.81	1 year	
2. Expiration of PUC Certificate	Month of expiration of validity should be prominently displayed on each PUC certificate. This will enable the enforcement agency to detect defaulters.	Transport Dept.			
3. Adulterated Fuels	Increased vigilance to prevent sale of adulterated fuels. Set up a cell to receive complaints and take prompt action. Make public the names/ addresses of retail outlets found guilty.	Oil Cos. BIS			
4. High Polluting Vehicles	Identify high polluting vehicles (especially commercial transport vehicles such as trucks/tempo, etc.) and levy stiff penalties. Prevent entry of such vehicles into the city by asking for a PUC certificate and by posting staff at entry points.	Transport Dept./ Traffic Dept.			
5. Policy on fuel quality	Petrol: (a) Reduce content of lead in petrol to 0.15g/lt; (b) Provide lead free petrol (0.915g/lt.); (c) Use of catalytic converters to be made compulsory for all vehicles; (d) Reduce sulfur content to 0.15% as per US/European standards.	Oil Cos. BIS			
6. Use of CNG	Increase use in taxis/cars. Provide more filling stations. Increase awareness about its use.	GAIL			
7. Traffic Flow	(a) Improve traffic speed by ensuring proper repairs/ maintenance of roads. Ensure better utilization of existing road network by clearing roads and footpaths. Ensure that utility companies carryout proper resurfacing of roads whenever any digging is carried out. (b) Provide additional sets of signals at elevated locations to ensure free flow of traffic.	MCGB Traffic police			
8. Pedestrian Flow	Provide and maintain footpaths, remove hawkers and other encroachments.				

Table 5.5: Categorized action plan for Greater Bombay

Issue	Action Required	Lead Agency	Cost Estimate (Rs Lakhs)	Time-frame	Priority Estimate
9. Inspection & Maintenance	Lower time span for fitness certification of vehicles to 10 years from the present limit of 15 years. In addition to existing requirement, specify engine performance criteria and establish standard practices for fitness testing. Appoint/nominate private garages for fitness determination as authorized agencies, or initiate procedure for approval of garages to ensure quality and explore possibility of private agencies checking PUC Certificates.	Transport	91.0	1 yr.	
10. Mass Transit	Improve present Mass Transit facilities. Provide additional mode of mass transit that will effectively reduce vehicular emissions.	BMRDAM CGB/ Railways			
MONITORING					
11. Air Quality Monitoring	(a) Make daily monitoring data publicly available (b) Rationalize ambient air quality monitoring locations by reducing and/or relocating some stations to provide increased frequency of monitoring network to provide better coverage of impacted areas. The frequency of monitoring should conform to the CPCB standards (c) Optimize sampling station height and identify locations for extended monitoring through rapid surveys. Ensure better coordination among monitoring agencies and optimize resource use through sharing monitoring locations. Monitor additional parameters: HC & Pb at 2 locations. Locations to be determined through rapid surveys. Monitoring of PM ₁₀ and CO should be carried out regularly. (d) Standardize data collection/analysis methods and reporting formats. Provide for better training facilities. Establish procedures for quality assurance. Arrange for data sharing and common processing facilities. Introduce quality audit for monitoring/analysis activities.	MCGB MCGB MCGB			
12. Meteorological Monitoring	Establish meteorological monitoring stations with automatic recording facility in the city to provide data for air quality modeling at four locations (Chembur, Central Bombay, Western suburb and Central suburb) as recommended by the expert sub-committee. Procure one SODAR for conducting low level inversion studies.	MPCB Environ. Dept.			

Table 5.5: Categorized action plan for Greater Bombay

Issue	Action Required	Lead Agency	Cost Estimate (Rs Lakhs)	Time-frame	Priority Estimate
13. Health Monitoring	Strengthen present health monitoring carried out by KEM Hospital. Provide necessary equipment to other hospitals in Bombay for monitoring health effects of air pollution throughout the city of Greater Bombay. Improve and standardize maintenance of records in hospitals. Make arrangements to pool and analyze the gathered data. Evaluate indoor air quality by rapid surveys to estimate health damage.	KEM Hospital MCGB MPCB	5.0	14 mths	medium priority
INDUSTRIAL POLLUTION					
14. Reporting format	Standardize formats for industrial emission data. Standardize industry specific monitoring/analysis methods as per international procedures. Introduce compulsory quality audit.	MPCB			
15. Emission factors	Create database of fugitive/process emissions through rapid surveys of targeted industries to establish industry specific emission factors. Change to cleaner fuels.	MPCB MCGB CPCB			
16. Stone crushers	Take punitive action against units that violate environmental laws through better coordination among agencies.	MPCB			
17. Waste burning	Disallow industrial solid, hazardous waste burning by road sides or close to factory premises.				
COMMUNITY SOURCES					
18. Refuse burning	Discourage practice of refuse burning on dumps through stricter vigilance. Conduct special surveys to determine magnitude of the problem and to establish emission factors for Indian conditions.	MCGB MPCB			
19. Wood burning	Increase use of electricity in crematoria. Invite participation of social organizations for increased awareness about need of forest conservation and to influence public opinion for change in religious practices. All crematoria should be provided with efficient pyres. Encourage bakeries and other commercial establishments to switch to cleaner fuels. Provide incentives to do the same.	MCGB/ BMRDA MCGB/ BMRDA			
20. Dust resuspension	Establish contribution of road dust resuspension, road repair activity and construction debris in air pollution problem. Remove accumulated dirt from road side.	MPCB/ MCGB			

Table 5.5: Categorized action plan for Greater Bombay

Issue	Action Required	Lead Agency	Cost Estimate (Rs Lakhs)	Time-frame	Priority Estimate
21. Decongestion	Decongest business areas through entry Levy a toll tax/high parking fees, and area licensing. An entry tax should be high enough to discourage use of private vehicles in busy districts.	MCGB/ BMRDA			
22. Emission inventory	Complete and upgrade emission inventory for Bombay for SO ₂ , NO _x , TSP, HC, PM ₁₀ , etc.	MPCB/ MCGB			
23. Energy Demand	Identify energy demand and consumption patterns for domestic (slum and non-slum) and commercial sectors.	MPCB/ MCGB			
24. Organization	Designate coordinating agency for AQMS. Such an agency should coordinate the operations of concerned Govt./Semi-govt. agencies; should oversee this action plan's progress and implementation.	MPCB/ MCGB/ BMRDA/ Transport Dept.			
Signatures of concerned major agencies:	Maharashtra Pollution Control Board (MPCB) Municipal Corporation of Greater Bombay (MCGB) Environment Department Bombay Metropolitan Region Development Authority (BMRDA) Transport Department Traffic Police Bhaba Atomic Research Centre				

Table 5.5: Annex I

Action	Timeframe Estimate (months)	Concerned Departments
1. Improve traffic speed by ensuring proper repairs, and maintenance of roads, and better utilization of available roads through removal of vehicles that have broken down.	6-12	Traffic & Roads
2. Decongest business areas through entry tax/cordon pricing and area licensing. Such entry tax should be high enough to discourage use of private vehicles in busy districts.	6-12	Traffic & Roads
3. Reduce and/or relocate some stations to provide increased frequency of monitoring and extended monitoring network to provide better coverage of impacted areas.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
4. Monitor additional parameters viz. PM ₁₀ /CO Pb/0 ₃ , optimize sampling station height and identify locations for extended monitoring through rapid surveys. Ensure better coordination among monitoring agencies and optimize resource use through sharing monitoring locations.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
5. Establish meteorological stations with automatic recording facility for air quality modeling data at four locations (Chembur, Central Bombay, Western suburb, and Central suburb) as recommended by expert sub-committee. Procure one SODAR for conducting low-level inversion studies.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.

Table 5.5: Annex I

Action	Timeframe Estimate (months)	Concerned Departments
6. Standardize data collection/analysis methods and reporting formats. Provide for better training facilities. Establish procedures for quality assurance. Arrange for data sharing and common processing facilities. Introduce quality audit for monitoring/analysis activities.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
7. Strengthen present health monitoring carried out by KEM Hospital. Provide necessary equipment to other Bombay hospitals for monitoring health effects of air pollution. Improve and standardize maintenance of hospital records. Make arrangements to pool and analyze the data.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
8. Standardize reporting formats for industrial emission data. Standardize industry specific monitoring/analysis methods. Methods as per international procedure (for MPCB approved laboratories) introduce compulsory quality audit.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
9. Identify target industries to generate database of fugitive/process emissions through rapid surveys to establish industry specific emission factors.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
10. Identify energy demand for domestic and commercial establishment. Quantify consumption of fuels (Wood/Charcoal/Kerosene etc.). Generate adequate database for establishment of emission factors for Indian conditions.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
11. Discourage practice of refuse burning on dumps through stricter vigilance. Conduct special surveys to determine magnitude of this problem and to establish emission factors for Indian conditions.	6-12	Solid Waste
12. Stop unauthorized stone crushing units. Take punitive action against authorized units which violate environmental laws through better coordination among agencies.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
13. Conduct study to establish contribution of road dust resuspension in air pollution problem. Remove accumulated dirt from the roadsides regularly.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
14. Establish contribution of road repair activities and construction debris in air pollution problem.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
15. Conduct rapid surveys to evaluate indoor air quality. Such data will have direct bearing on estimation of health damage.	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.
16. Increase use of electricity in crematoria. Invite participation of social organizations for increased awareness about need of forest conservation and to influence public opinion for change in religious practices. All crematoria should be provided with efficient pyres to reduce wood consumption	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P. Eng. M&E
17. Fill data gaps by implementing the projects and actions recommended during the second phase of URBAIR to prepare a comprehensive emission inventory for Greater Bombay. Update inventory to assist authorities in planning strategy for better Air Quality Management	6-12	Dy. C.E. (C) E.S.P.

Table 5.5: Annex II

Activity	Action	Cost	Time Frame
1. Standardize data collection/analysis methods and reporting formats. Provide for better training facilities. Establish procedures for quality assurance. Arrange for data sharing common processing facilities. Introduce quality audit for monitoring/analysis activities.	(1) Standardize analysis methods for pollutants in ambient air;	50,000	3 months
	(2) Standardize data collection and reporting formats. Circulate both to Industrial Association and MPCB, approved laboratories;	MPCB-funded	
	(3) Arrange for data sharing and common processing facilities. After agency for coordinating the data collection, e.g.: MPCB has BWRDA/MPCB is selected earmarked facilities like computer hardware & software & related infrastructure will have to be developed. Data supplied to agencies (other than contributors) shall be at nominal charge for genuine use.	3 lakhs	6 months
2. Established meteorological stations with automatic recording facility in the city to provide data for air quality modeling at four locations (Chembur, Central Bombay, Western suburb, and Central suburb) as recommended by the expert subcommittee. Procure one SODAR for conducting low level inversion studies.	Site selection for establishing meteorological monitoring stations at four locations.	Capital: 20 lakhs Recurring: 1 lakh/yr. (M&R of equipment; data collection and processing). Capital: 5 lakhs Recurring: 2 lakhs/ year	
	SODAR equipment installation and operation in cooperation with experts from Met Dept./BARC Frequency of operation: Once a week.		
3. Evaluate indoor air quality by rapid surveys to estimate health damage	Project Proposal:	5 lakhs/ year	
	(1) Select about 100 families of lower income group for first year; (2) Same number of families of middle income group for second year; (3) Same number of families of higher income group for third year. Monitor 40 families/month and cover all every 3 months. Cost of monitoring of CO, RPM, PM, SO ₂ , NO _x is about Rs 1,000 per set of samples.		
4. Reporting Format	(1) Identify type of industries;	50,000	
	(2) Identify type of pollutants in each with point of emissions; (3) Standardize methods of monitoring/analysis; (4) Standardize formats for: (i) Utilities, (ii) Process emissions, (iii) Fugitive emissions. Circulate to concerned agencies.	MPCB funded	

Table 5.5: Annex II

Activity	Action	Cost	Time Frame
5. Identify target industries to generate database of fugitive/process emissions through rapid surveys to establish industry specific emission factors.	(1) Identify the type of industries & type of emissions; (2) Decide methodology to monitor the missions; (3) Survey 3-4 industries of same type with different capacities with and without control equipment and different types of control systems; (4) Related data collection and compilation per type of industry @ Rs 5,000.	5 lakhs CPCB funded	3 years
6. Take punitive action against units which violate environmental laws through better coordination amongst agencies.	(1) Preliminary survey to identify the no. of crushers; (2) Data collection for each crusher; (3) Survey area-wise of crushers; (4) Employ staff of 3 persons/crusher; Approx. 10 persons/day for one month/ward and pay Rs 40/day.	350,000	6 months

Table 5.5: Annex III

Sr. No.	Action	Cost (Rs)	Timeframe Estimate	Remarks
VEHICULAR POLLUTION				
1. Exhaust Monitoring				
Stricter enforcement of existing legal provisions.				
(1)	Four wheelers at annual tax payment	342.81 lakhs	1 year	There are 33 lakhs Motor Vehicles (MV) in Maharashtra State as of 31 March 1994. Earlier it was compulsory for MV Department to routinely check exhaust emissions, but by amendment of CMV Rules 1989 which came into effect from 28th March 1993, carrying of PUC Certificate has been made compulsory. The MV Dept. now has to check validity of PUC Certificate, and only randomly check exhaust emissions.
(2)	Three wheelers vigilance monitoring			Although there is no legal provision to make it compulsory to check the PUC Certificate at the time of acceptance of tax, this is usually done. PUC s are checked when MVs are inspected for a fitness certificate.
(3)	Two wheelers awareness campaign			There are six mobile auto pollution control squads. These squads check the PUCs of all Mvs, including three wheelers.
(4)	At all transactions e.g. transfer, hypothecation, tax payment, etc.			All offices of MV Department conduct awareness campaigns in respect of auto-pollution. Press notes are issued and banners are exhibited. Publicity is given through radio and television media. Instructions are being issued to all concerned officers to check PUC Certificate before any transaction (transfer, HPA etc.) pertaining to MV is effected in MV Dept.

Table 5.5: Annex III

Sr. No.	Action	Cost (Rs)	Timeframe Estimate	Remarks																				
				39 more mobile auto pollution control squads are needed. The details are as under:																				
				<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>PUC SQUADS</th> <th>EXISTING</th> <th>PROPOSED REMAINING</th> <th>RTO SQUADS</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>10</td> <td>2 x 10 = 20</td> <td>6</td> <td>14</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="4">AKTO/Dy.RTO OFFICES</td> </tr> <tr> <td>25</td> <td>1 x 25 = 25</td> <td>0</td> <td>25</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2">Total:</td> <td>39</td> <td></td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	PUC SQUADS	EXISTING	PROPOSED REMAINING	RTO SQUADS	10	2 x 10 = 20	6	14	AKTO/Dy.RTO OFFICES				25	1 x 25 = 25	0	25	Total:		39	
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2. Expiration of PUC Certificates	Month of expiration of validity should be prominently displayed on PUC Certificate. This will enable the enforcement agency to detect defaulters.			Transport Commission's Office has already initiated new PUC sticker scheme. Under this scheme sticker with digit of month showing validity of PUC is displayed on Motor Vehicle. These stickers are issued by Authorized Pollution testing stations along with PUC certificates. With this scheme it will be possible to check more vehicles with limited staff.																				
				<p><u>Comparative Figures</u></p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th colspan="2">Before introduction of stickers (1-5-93 to 30-11-93)</th> <th colspan="2">After introduction of stickers (1-5-94 to 30-11-94)</th> </tr> <tr> <th>Mvs. Checked</th> <th>Mvs. Detected</th> <th>Mvs. Checked</th> <th>MVs. Detected</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>108,850</td> <td>8,228</td> <td>267,778</td> <td>11,912</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Before introduction of stickers (1-5-93 to 30-11-93)		After introduction of stickers (1-5-94 to 30-11-94)		Mvs. Checked	Mvs. Detected	Mvs. Checked	MVs. Detected	108,850	8,228	267,778	11,912								
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108,850	8,228	267,778	11,912																					
3. High Polluting Vehicles	Identify high polluting vehicles (especially commercial vehicles such as truck/tempo, etc.) and levy stiff penalties. Also prevent entry of such vehicles into the city by posting staff at entry points.			As per legal provisions, in case a vehicle is found without PUC Certificate, seven days show cause notice is issued, directing the vehicle owner to produce the PUC Certificate. In case of the owner's non-response, the court imposes a penalty of Rs 1,000. For a second offence, the fine is Rs 2,000, and the vehicle cannot operate on the operate pending a PUC certificate. Non-production of valid PUC certificate at the time of checking is punishable under section 177 with fine up to Rs 100 for first offence, and up to Rs 300 for subsequent offences.																				

Table 5.5: Annex III

Sr. No.	Action	Cost (Rs)	Timeframe Estimate	Remarks
4.	Inspection and Maintenance Lower time span for fitness certification of vehicles to 10 years from the present limit of 15 years. In addition to existing requirement, specify engine performance criteria and establish standard practices for fitness testing. Appoint/nominate private garages as authorized agencies for determination of fitness, or initiate procedure for approval of garages to ensure quality.	91 lakhs	1 year	Registration certificate issued to vehicles other than transport vehicles is valid for 15 years from the date of issue. For renewal or registration, application shall be made not more than 80 days before the date of expiration of registration. (See section 30 of Motor Vehicle Act, 1988 and Rule 52 of Central Motor Vehicle Rules, 1989).

Table 5.6: Additional proposed actions and measures, introduced by the URBAIR consultants.

<p>Introduce policies to increase use of low-smoke lubrication oil in 2-stroke motorcycles.</p> <p>Ban further sales of new 2-stroke motorcycles.</p> <p>Begin Public campaign to educate owners to maintain their vehicles to reduce smoke emissions (e.g. cleaning fuel injectors, etc.), resulting in fuel cost savings.</p> <p>Reduce sulfur contents of fuel oils and motor diesel.</p> <p>Price fuels to reflect their quality.</p> <p>Restrict lifetime of public utility vehicles, and buses.</p> <p>Develop parking policy for Central and South Bombay business districts.</p> <p>Develop public awareness campaigns regarding the effects of air pollution, and individuals' responsibility and behavioral options.</p> <p>Develop the dispersion/exposure model capability and capacity by investing in local institutions and consultants.</p>

6. INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

ENVIRONMENTAL INSTITUTIONS IN BOMBAY

At the Central Government level, the main law-enforcing body is the Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB), in the Ministry of Environment and Forests. At the State level, the Maharashtra Pollution Control Board (MPCB) is responsible for monitoring and enforcing all pollution control regulations, and issuing permits for new projects and activities. Motor vehicle regulations are an exception. They are enforced by the Transport Commissioner. At the city level, responsibility for monitoring air quality is shared by the MPCB and the Municipal Corporation of Greater Bombay (MCGB), with the latter monitoring within the city limits. Figure 6.1 depicts a flowchart of environmental institutions in Bombay. Functions of various boards are described in the following section.

AIR POLLUTION LEGISLATION

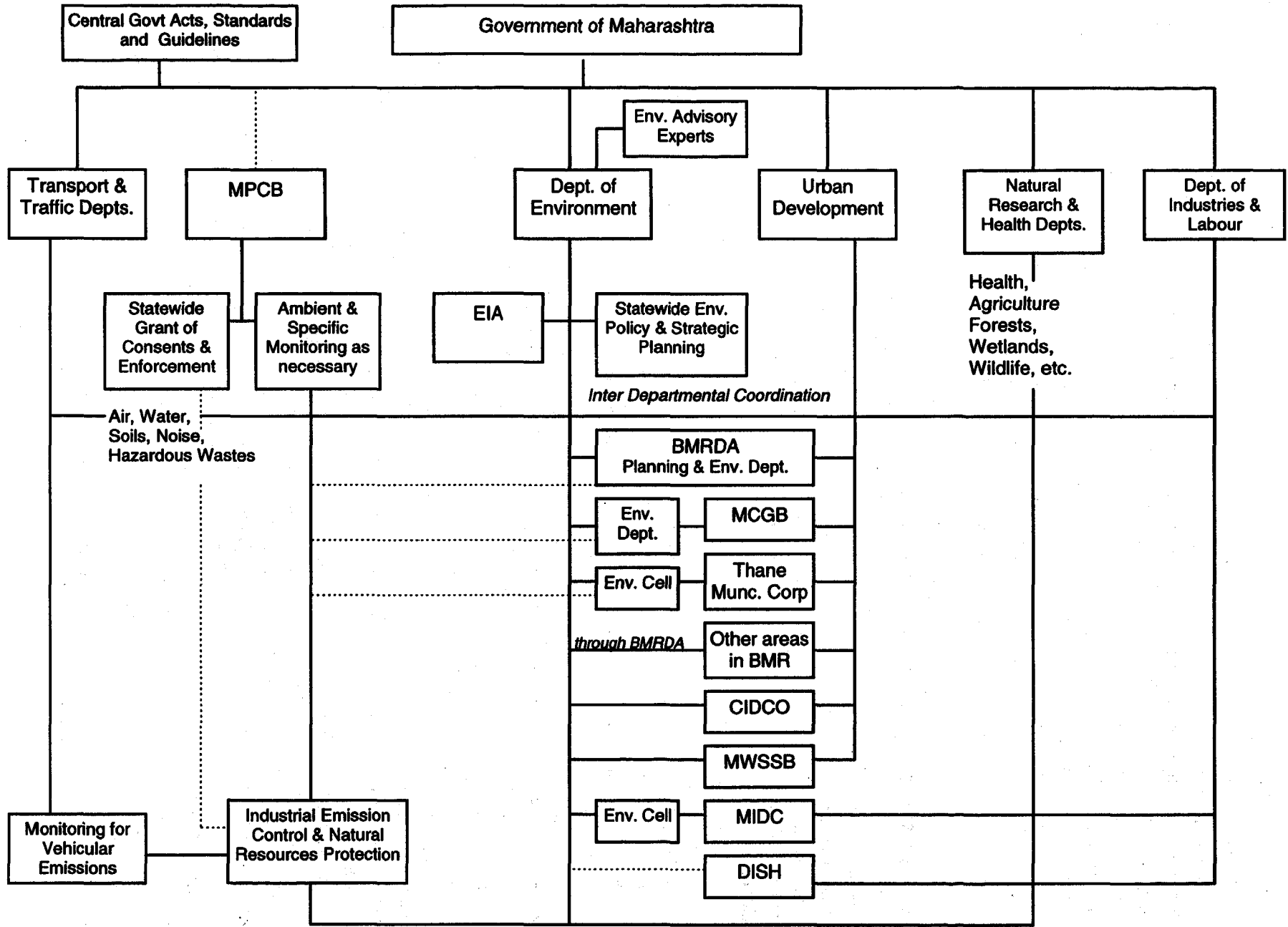
The Government of India has legislated constitutional provisions for protecting and improving the environment. The Indian Penal Code, Criminal Procedure Code, Factories Act, Wild Life Protection Act, Forests Conservation Act, Merton Shipping Act, Mines and Minerals (Regulation & Development) Act, Atomic Energy Act, as well as laws relating to local bodies and corporations, etc. contain provisions to regulate and take legal action with respect to specific environmental issues. All these enactments include specific provisions for environmental regulation and legal action. As India continues to experience industrialization, modernization, and urbanization, the existing laws have proven to be ineffective in controlling environmental degradation.

Following the Stockholm Conference on Human Environment in June 1972, it was considered appropriate to create a uniform national legal code that would tackle environmental problems. The Indian Parliament brought into operation specific and comprehensive legislation simultaneously institutionalizing the regulatory agencies for controlling pollution of various categories. There have been number of amendments to these Acts and a set of Rules also have been laid down for the efficient enforcement of these legislations.

Environmental legislation falls under:

- Water (Prevention & Control of Pollution) Act, 1974.
- Water (Prevention & Control of Pollution) Cess Act, 1977.
- Air (Prevention & Control of Pollution) Act, 1981.

Figure 6.1: Organizational schedule



Source: Coopers & Lybrand and AIC (1994).

- Environment (Protection) Act, 1986.
- Public Liability Insurance Act, 1991.

These Acts prescribe the Environment and Forests Agency as the nodal regulatory agency at the central level. It is in charge of policy formulation, planning, and coordination of all issues and programs related to environmental protection. The Central Pollution Board is the law-enforcing body at the Central level. It is entrusted with the work of enforcement of environmental legislations in Union Territories. It also has the role of coordinating the activities of State Boards, establishing environmental standards, planning, and executing a nationwide program for prevention control and abatement of pollution, etc. Pollution Control Boards, under the administrative control of various Departments of Environment, enforce environmental legislations at the state level.

The laws and regulations for air environment

The Air (Prevention & Control of Pollution) Act, 1981. This Act provides for prevention, control, and abatement of air pollution. It can apply to a specific area by issuing a gazette notification. Once an area is notified under this Act, no industrial or other pollution-causing activity can commence or be carried out without the permission of the concerned State Pollution Control Board.

Functions of the Central Board

- Advise the Central Government on matters concerning air quality improvement, and the prevention, control, or abatement of air pollution.
- Plan and arrange to execute a nationwide program for the prevention, control, or abatement of air pollution.
- Coordinate the activities of the State Boards.
- Provide technical assistance and guidance to the State Boards, carry out and sponsor investigations and research relating to problems of air pollution, and prevention, control or abatement of air pollution.
- Establish air quality standards.

Functions of State Boards

- Plan a comprehensive program for the prevention, control or abatement of air pollution, and secure its execution.
- Advise the State Government on matters concerning the prevention, control, or abatement of air pollution.
- Collect and disseminate information relating to air pollution.
- Collaborate with the Central Board to organize training for people who are, or will be, engaged in air pollution prevention and control programs; and organize related mass-education programs.
- Inspect control equipment, industrial plants, or manufacturing processes, and give directions to responsible persons to take necessary steps for the prevention, control or abatement of air pollution.
- Inspect air pollution control areas at such intervals as necessary, assess the quality of air and take steps for the prevention, control or abatement of air pollution in such areas.

- Establish emission standards for industrial plants, automobiles, or other sources (with the exception of ships and aircraft) that discharge any pollutant into the atmosphere. This is done in consultation with the Central Board and its standards for air quality. Under this clause, different emission standards may be established for different industrial plants, depending on the quantity and composition of pollutants emitted into the atmosphere.
- Advise the State Government on the geographic location of a potentially pollution-generating industry.
- Perform such other functions as may be prescribed, or as may be entrusted to it by the Central Board or the State Government, from time to time.

The Environment (Protection) Act, 1986, and Environment Protection rules formed under the Act. The Environment (Protection) Act is an umbrella Act. It empowers the Central Government to take necessary measures for a) protecting and improving the environment; and for b) prevention, control and abatement of pollution. Under the provisions of this Act, the Government is empowered to set standards for environmental quality, and limits for emissions/discharges of pollutants from various specified sources.

This Act also empowers the Government to prohibit and/or restrict certain activities, industrial or otherwise, in specified areas to ensure protection of environment; and it also confers enforcement agencies with necessary punitive powers to restrict any activity detrimental to environment.

The Motor Vehicles Act 1988, and The Central Motor Vehicles Rules 1989. Although the Air Act, and the Environment (Protection) Act provide for the prescription of automobile emissions standards by the Central Pollution Control Board, or Ministry of Environment and Forests, implementation and enforcement of these standards is the responsibility of the transport commissioner. (His office is responsible for registration of motor vehicles, and hence better equipped for enforcement.)

The Bombay Smoke-Nuisances Act 1912 and Rules under the act.

- No stack can be erected or modified unless it conforms to the regulations of the above Act.
- No furnace, flue, or chimney may be erected, altered, added to, or re-erected except in accordance with plans and for the purpose approved by the commission.
- No furnace, flue, or chimney shall be used for a purpose other than that which has been approved by the commission. Exceptions may be granted by the Commission for particular cases.
- A furnace at a lower altitude than 100 feet (30 m.) is not permitted to emit smoke from the firing floor level (unless specifically exempted).

The Bombay Municipal Corporation Act, 1818 (section 63 [amended] and section 390). As a part of its civic duties, the Municipal Corporation of Greater Bombay conducts air quality monitoring.

Air pollution standards and regulations

National ambient air quality standards have been established by the Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India. Standards are established for different types of areas (industrial, residential, and sensitive) (Appendix 2).

Emission standards are industry specific, and include stack height. These standards are mandatory for industries. As of June 1992, the Maharashtra Pollution Control Board had granted about 7,500 permits to industries in Bombay. Vehicle emission standards are implemented by the Office of the Transport Commissioner. Regular emission tests, performed by authorized agents, are mandatory (Appendix 3).

Environmental audit. Industries are required to submit an annual "Environmental Audit" report whose purpose is to improve compliance survey techniques.

Central Action Plan (1992) has been promulgated by the Government of India to speed up enforcement against non-compliance with emission standards. Chembur, Bombay, has been selected one of the 15 sensitive areas that fall under the "Sensitive Area Approach" of this plan. Eight industry categories have been identified as highly polluting. These are: cement, thermal power plants, iron and steel, fertilizer, zinc/copper/aluminum smelters, oil refineries.

Under the Central Action Plan, strict compliance with Environmental Standards and Minimal National Standards must be achieved within set time limits. Monthly progress reports are required.

Licensing of industries. According to the Pollution Acts, industry-specific discharge and emission standards commonly referred to as MINAS (Minimum National Standards), have been prescribed. All industries, including small scale units, must comply with MINAS. State Pollution Control Boards have the responsibility of enforcing compliance with the Acts. The units under their jurisdiction obtain either a permission to operate, or a consent to discharge pollutants.

All existing units must obtain the consent of their respective Boards. New units must obtain an NOC (No Objection Certificate) from the relevant Board before they can start operations. Financial institutions and banks demand proof of an NOC before disbursing loans, even though the loans may have been sanctioned on the basis of the project's techno-economic feasibility.

In order to obtain an NOC from a Pollution Control Board, an application must be made with a complete project-report, including the proposed pollution control measures. Since pollution control is site specific, the Pollution Control Board must also be appraised of the proposed project site and, if appropriate, ask for an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) for site clearance.

The Boards have declared some areas as "sensitive regions" because of their fragile environmental condition. New industries, especially pollution-intensive ones, may not be allowed in sensitive areas or may be prescribed much stricter standards. Proximity to protected monuments, national wildlife parks or sanctuaries are also reasons for industries to seek out a prior site clearance.

Non-compliance invites prosecution, fines, penalties, and even imprisonment. Under the Environmental Protection Act of 1986, Pollution Control Boards are empowered to close a unit if they believe it is in the public interest to do so. Without going to a court of law, they can

implement closure decisions by directly ordering concerned authorities to cut power and water supply to violating units.

State and local institutions and policies on environmental protection in Maharashtra and Bombay include:

- *The Environmental Safety Committee*, established after the Bhopal accident, provides experts for safety inspection of major plants;
- *Industrial Location Policy*, 1984, for Bombay Metropolitan Region. This policy disallows the expansion of large and medium scale units in Bombay. Restrictions also exist for small-scale unit development; and
- *Restriction on the Use of Coal*, 1979, Urban Development Department, Government of Maharashtra. Ban on issuing new permits for using coal in Bombay.
- Ban on operation of three wheelers in Central Mumbai.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING INSTITUTIONS AND POLICIES

The following suggestions for improvement are extracted from the Bombay EMS Study (Coopers & Lybrand and AIC [1994], Preferred Options for EMS), and discussions held by URBAIR working groups in Bombay.

- The State Environment Department should have a stronger role in environmental policy making.
- The environmental wing within BMRDA must have the responsibility for environmental planning.
- Establish, at the metropolitan level, an organization responsible for strategic environmental planning for BMR.
- Create "environmental cells" in all sectoral organizations to include environmental considerations in their decision making.
- Establish a dedicated BMR transportation authority with representation from all relevant agencies and organizations.
- Use a charge on fuels to raise environmental management funds.
- Make environmental regulation more effective by tightening emission standards, and introducing fees and fines for pollution offenses.
- Give the Department of Environment a role in the BMRDA Policy/Executive Committee so that environmental issues will receive proper consideration at the planning stage. (*Note: This has already been implemented.*)
- The State Environment Department should receive proper orientation for strategic air quality management. It should outline priorities for air quality imperatives and goals. Targets should be identified, and a timetable for implementation should be prescribed. The Department of Environment should provide leadership and professional management to achieve these goals.
- The activities of MPCB, MCGB, and other organizations concerned with air quality monitoring and air pollution control are uncoordinated, largely sector-driven, not systematically integrated, and often duplicated. Cross-sectoral issues between environment, development and investment are not properly addressed. As a nodal agency, this should be done by the State Environment Department.

- MPCB needs finance, equipment, and adequately trained and technically qualified personnel.
- The Department of Environment would benefit from a special Advisory Committee to help with policymaking and program development. The same Committee can also help to coordinate the functions of air quality management agencies.
- The Air Act (1981) permits action against defaulting industries. However, this action is time consuming since the complaints filed in law courts are not dealt with expeditiously. Closing polluting industries may be too harsh and other departments, especially Labor, often oppose such action. It is therefore necessary that MPCB should be able to penalize the defaulter on the spot, in keeping with the "Polluter Pays" principle. This provision should be included in future legislation. Special courts for trying cases under The Air Act (1981) and the Environment Protection Act (1986) are necessary (Central Environment Ministry).
- There is a dire need to establish an "Environmental Training and Information Center" for decision makers and managers in governmental departments, industries and NGOs. Such a Center should be equipped with a database, environmental status and survey reports, and other information that may be vital to decision making by the Department of Environment and other agencies.
- MCGB's air quality monitoring and research laboratory needs strengthening. This is necessary in order to undertake the monitoring of air pollutants related to global warming and ozone depletion. This would require staff training, and the provision of sophisticated instruments and equipment.
- Effective monitoring and work reviews are necessary to improve MPCB and MCGB operations.
- Present procedure requires checking vehicles and issuing "Pollution Under Control" certificates only through approved centers. These centers should be checked unannounced by the Regional Transport Office, at least occasionally. This would increase identification of defaulters and help create awareness. The Transport Department would need more manpower and equipment to carry this out.

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APPENDIX 1

AIR QUALITY STATUS, GREATER BOMBAY

CONTENTS

1. Description of past and present measurements programs
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ANNEX 1. Intercomparison of gravimetric weighing analysis of glass-fibre high-volume filters between MCGB and NILU laboratories.

ANNEX II. Monthly averages for SO₂, TSP, NO_x and NH₃, MCGB sites, for the period 1978–1990.

ANNEX III. Monthly average SO₂, NO_x and TSP at MCGB and GEMS (NEERI) stations, for the URBAIR period June 1992 to May 1993.

DESCRIPTION OF PAST AND PRESENT MEASUREMENT PROGRAMS

Stations and parameters. The Municipal Corporation of Greater Bombay (MCGB) monitors air quality within the city limits, and Maharashtra Pollution Control Board (MPCB) monitors air quality in the rest of Bombay Metropolitan Region (BMR). MCGB has adapted the method designed by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) to establish an air quality monitoring program. This includes determining the frequency and procedure of sampling and analysis of the samples.

MCGB has measured ambient air quality regularly at 22 stations in Greater Bombay over 15 years now. The pollutants measured are sulfur dioxide (SO₂), total suspended particles (TSP), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) and ammonia (NH₃). Ambient air quality is also occasionally measured at selected traffic junctions in Bombay for SO₂, NO_x, carbon monoxide (CO) and benzo(a)pyrenes from total and respirable particulates.

The MCGB air quality monitoring network in Bombay is shown in Figure 1. There are few details available as to the location of these measuring sites, except that they are located at fixed points, most of them on terraces of municipal buildings, 10 to 12 meters above the ground. A few stations are located 3–4 meters above the ground. The stations are visited once a week and operated continuously for 24 hours, but the sampling period is 8 hours, giving three samples in 24 hours. Sampling is performed 1–4 days a month and not necessarily on a fixed weekday.

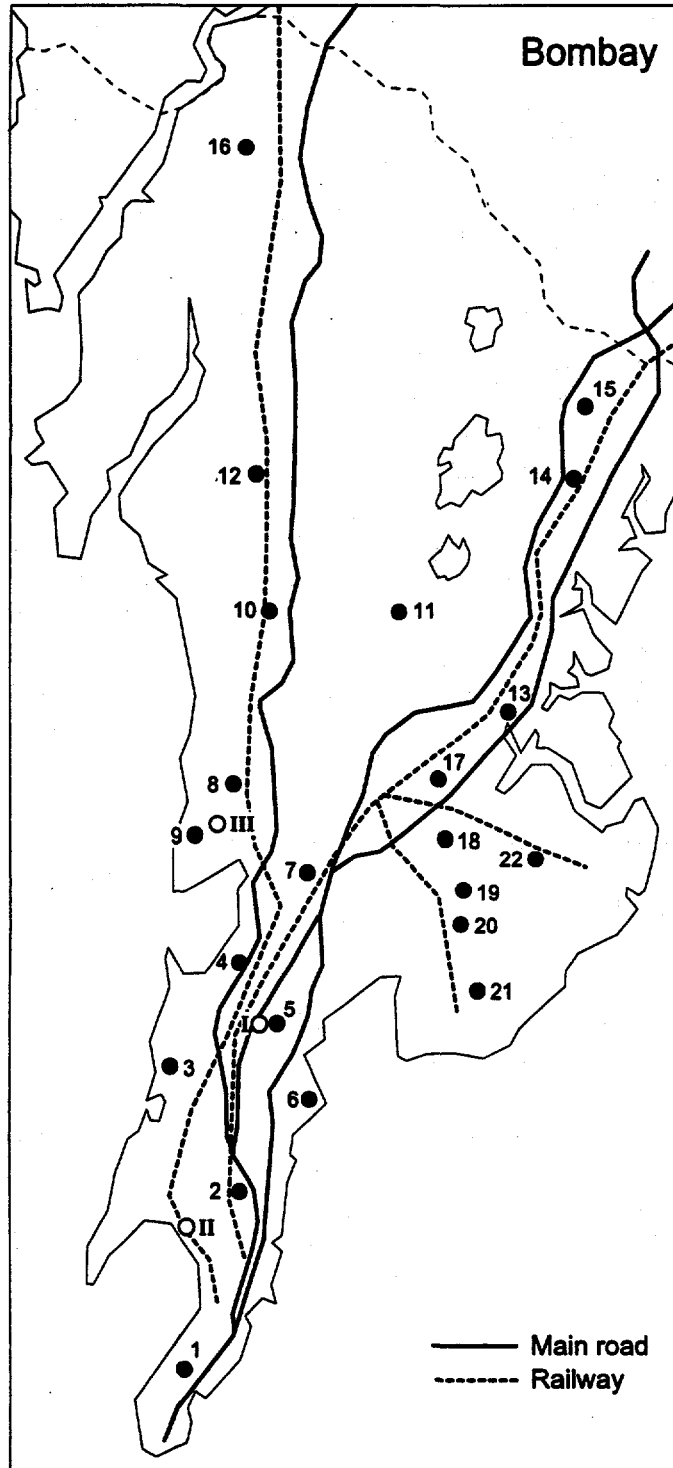
Since 1978 NEERI (National Environmental and Engineering Research Institute) has operated United Nations GEMS (Global Environment Monitoring System) air monitoring stations in Bombay. These sites are also shown in Figure 1. At these sites SO₂, TSP and NO₂ is measured. Monitoring was discontinued in 1988 and recommenced in January 1990.

Both MCGB and NEERI monitor at Parel. The results are somewhat different, as shown e.g. in Annex I, since the sites are not exactly the same, measurements are done on different days, and analysis is done in different laboratories.

In 1991 and 1992 an air quality monitoring program was performed at 7 stations around the Thal RCF industrial complex south of Bombay. This study was coordinated by Projects and Development India (PDIL) and RCF. The measurements included TSP, SO₂, NO_x and NH₃ on an 8 hourly basis.

Also in 1991 and 1992 measurements of air quality was performed at 5 stations even further to the south around the Vikram Ispat Ltd, Salav Project site. The measurements included TSP, SO₂, NO_x, THC and CO on an 8 hourly basis 8 days in each two month periods. The measurement stations were located 1–7 kilometers from the plant. There are no information as to which agency actually did the analysis.

Figure 1: MCGB and GEMS air quality monitoring network in Greater Bombay



- MCGB**
1. Colaba (C/R)
 2. Babula Tank (I/R)
 3. Worli Naka (C)
 4. Dadar (C)
 5. Parel (I/C/R)
 6. Sewree (I)
 7. Sion (C)
 8. Khar (C/R)
 9. Supari Tank (R)
 10. Andheri (I/C)
 11. Saki Naka (I)
 12. Jogeshwari (I)
 13. Ghatkopar (I/C/R)
 14. Bhandup (I)
 15. Mulund (I)
 16. Borivali (R)
 17. Tilaknagar (C)
 18. Chembur Naka (C/R)
 19. Maravali (I)
 20. Aniknagar (I)
 21. Mahul (I)
 22. Mankhurd (R)
- GEMS**
- I: Parel
 - II: Kalbadevi
 - III: Bandra
- I: Industrial
 - C: Commercial
 - R: Residential

Measurement and analysis methods. The measurement methods used by MCGB are listed in Table 1.

As part of the URBAIR study, a comparison of results of gravimetric weighing of glass-fibre high-volume filters were carried out. Pre-weighted filters from NILU were brought to Bombay, weighted, exposed (24-hour sampling), weighted again and returned to NILU for last weighting. Also MCGB-type filters went through the same procedure. The results were quite good, in that the net particle weight on 6 filters (net weight range 66.4–131.6 mg) (NILU figures) deviated on the average about 4 percent (highest at NILU). Maximum difference was about 15 percent.

Table 1: Measurement methods used by MCGB in Bombay

Parameter	Analysis method
Suspended particulates (TSP)	Gravimetric. High volume sampler.
Sulfur dioxide (SO ₂)	Pararosaniline method. SO ₂ is collected in midget impinger and absorbed in a solution of TCM (Potassium Tetrachloromercurate)
Nitrogen oxides as NO ₂	TGS Ansa Method. Midget impinger.

ANALYSIS OF MEASUREMENT RESULTS

The Municipal Corporation of Greater Bombay (MCGB) has operated 22 measuring stations in Greater Bombay for the last 15 years. In addition NEERI has operated 3 GEMS stations in the same period. At all stations SO₂, TSP and NO_x is measured and in addition NH₃ at the MCGB stations. The MCGB stations are operated once a week, 1–4 days a month.

There are few details about the results other than annual mean concentrations. Annual mean values for fixed 8 hour periods (1200–2000 hrs, 2000–0400 hrs, 0400–1200 hrs) for the period June 1992–May 1993 are also given.

Total suspended particles (TSP). Annual mean and 98th percentile TSP levels from the GEMS/NEERI stations are shown in Figures 2 and 3. The TSP concentrations are well above the WHO guidelines. In 1990 annual TSP levels were about 170–220 µg/m³ and 98th percentile levels about 400–500 µg/m³ at these stations.

Annual TSP levels at the MCGB stations are shown in Figure 4, for the period 1978–1990. These values are probably mean values from all the 22 stations in operation. The 1990 level was 243 µg/m³, a little higher than at the NEERI stations. The 1990 level was the lowest since 1984. The highest level, 383 µg/m³, was recorded in 1987.

Data from 18 stations from the period June 1992–May 1993 show a mean value of 207 µg/m³, that means an even lower level than in 1990, and about the same level as during the period 1978–1984, see Figure 5.

Figure 2: Annual mean suspended particulate matter (TSP) at GEMS/NEERI stations ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)

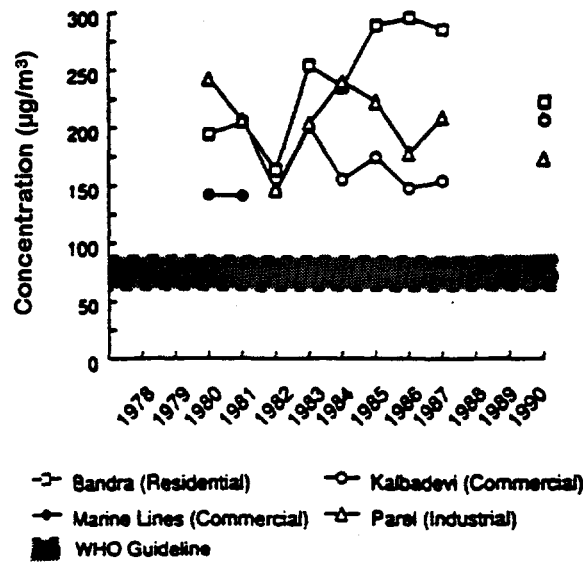


Figure 3: Annual 98 percentile suspended particulate matter (TSP) concentrations at GEMS/NEERI stations ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)

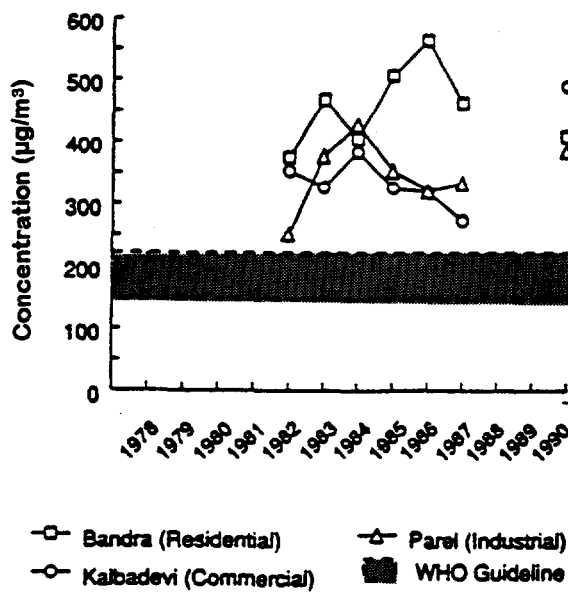
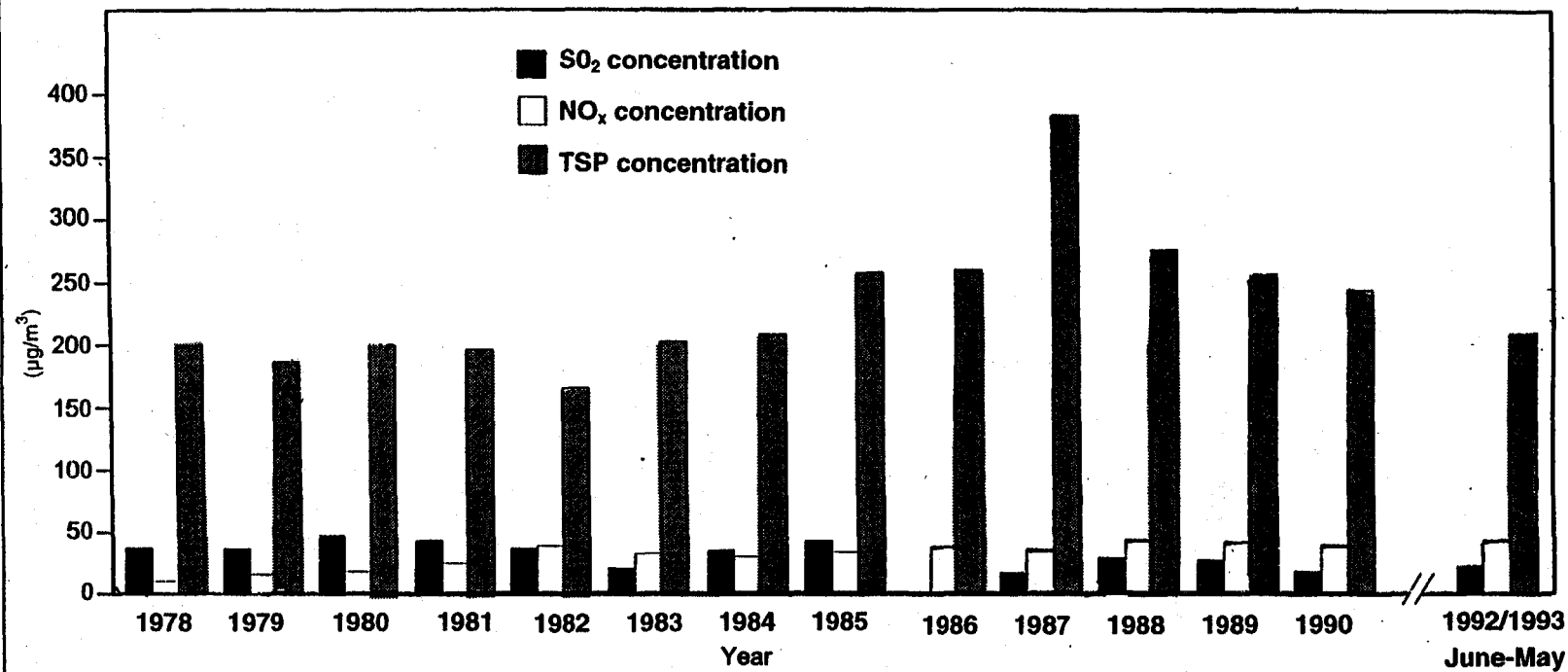


Figure 4: Annual mean concentrations of SO_2 , NO_2 , and TSP at MCGB stations ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)



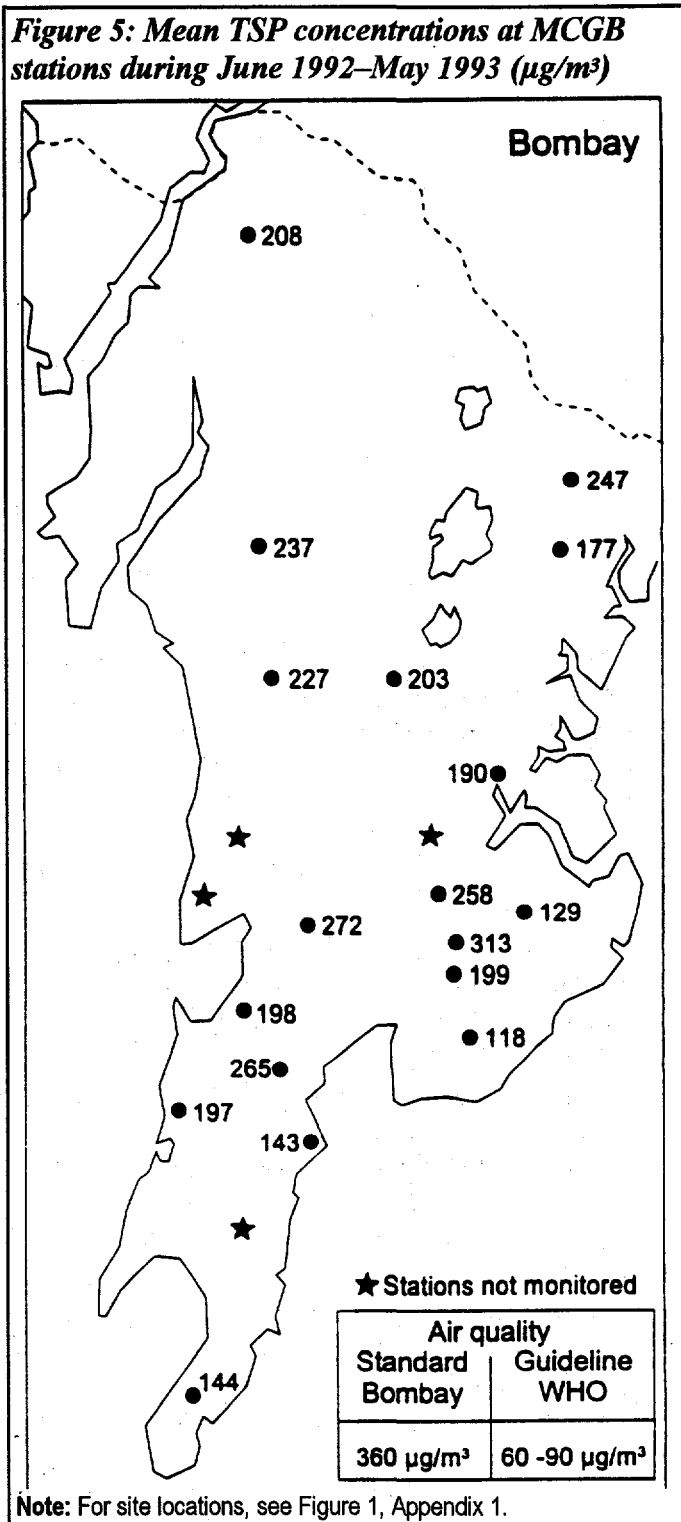
Data tables for all stations, with monthly average SO₂, TSP, NO_x and NH₃ values are enclosed as Annex II to this Appendix.

Figure 5 shows the highest annual concentration at the Maravali station (313 µg/m³) situated in an industrial area. The Colaba, Sewree, Mahul and Mankhurd stations observed the lowest concentrations (118–144 µg/m³). Compared to the year 1987, 1993–92 TSP concentrations has fallen 20–30 percent at the Worli Naka, Dadar, Parel, Sewree and Saki Naka stations, while there is no change in the TSP level at the Sion and Chembur Naka stations.

Figures 6 and 7 show, as examples, the monthly averages at two selected sites, Parel and Saki-Naka, for 1987/88 and 1992/93. Similar figures for all available MCGB sites for 1992/93 are enclosed in Annex III to this Appendix. There is a considerable variation in the monthly mean TSP concentrations as shown in Figures 6 and 7. The lowest concentrations are measured during the months July–September, the monsoon season. The highest concentrations are usually measured during the months November–March. During the rainy season mean concentrations are usually lowered by a factor between 2 and 3 compared to the dry season.

There is a very little information available as to maximum 8 hour TSP levels. Data from April 1992, however, show maximum values much higher than the monthly mean values, see Table 2. During April 1992 maximum 8 hour values varied between 265 µg/m³ and 1 365 µg/m³. Maximum values seems to be between 1.5 and 3 times higher than monthly mean values.

Figure 8 shows that TSP concentrations usually is about 30 percent higher during the hours 1200–2000 than during the night time and during the morning period. This is probably due to the



general activity pattern. Why NO_x and SO_2 do not follow this pattern, cannot be explained by available information.

Figure 6: Monthly mean SO_2 , NO_x and TSP concentrations at the Parel station during the periods June 1987–May 1988 and June 1992–May 1993

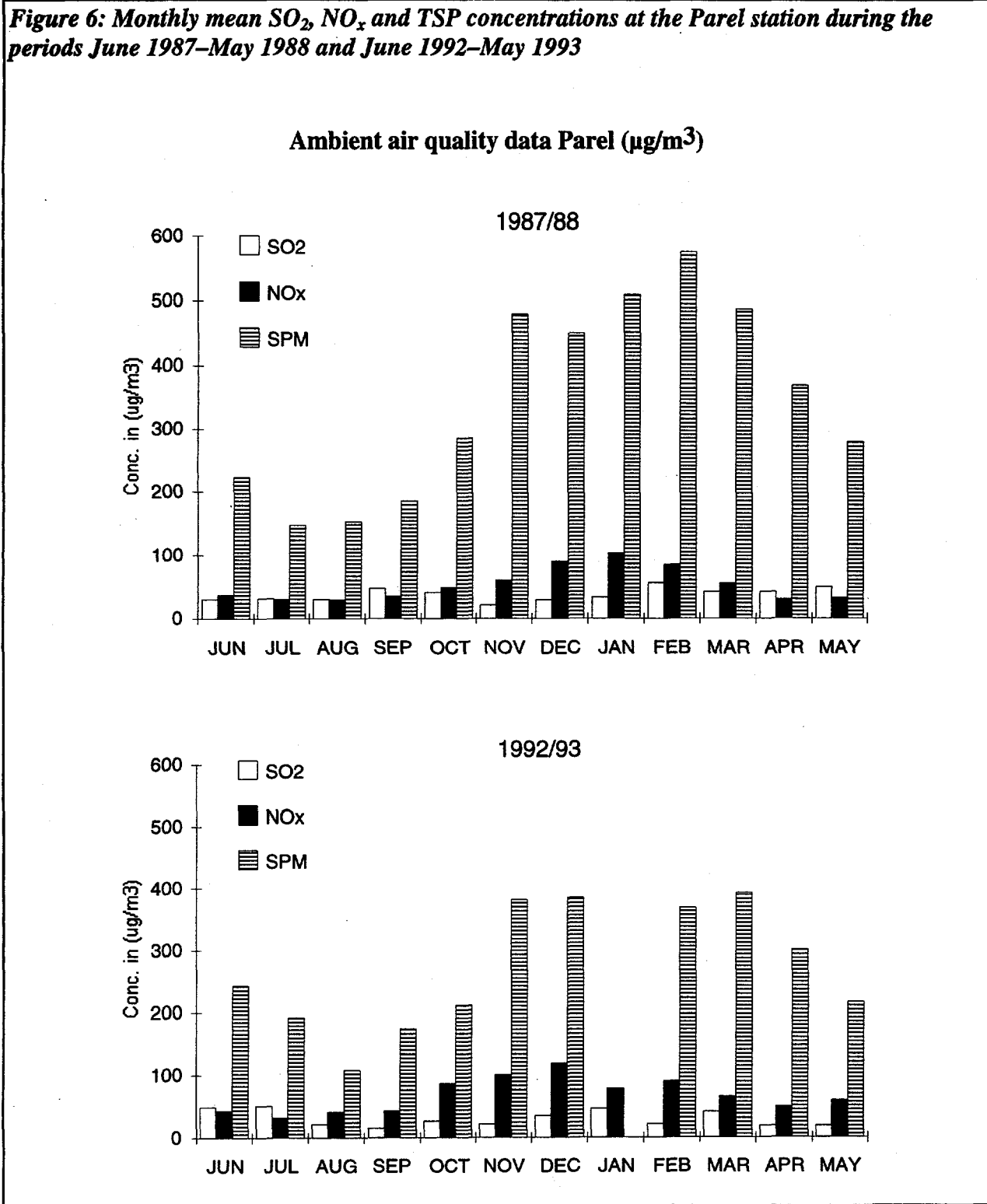


Figure 7: Monthly mean SO₂, NO_x and TSP concentrations at the Saki Naka station during the periods June 1987–May 1988 and June 1992–May 1993

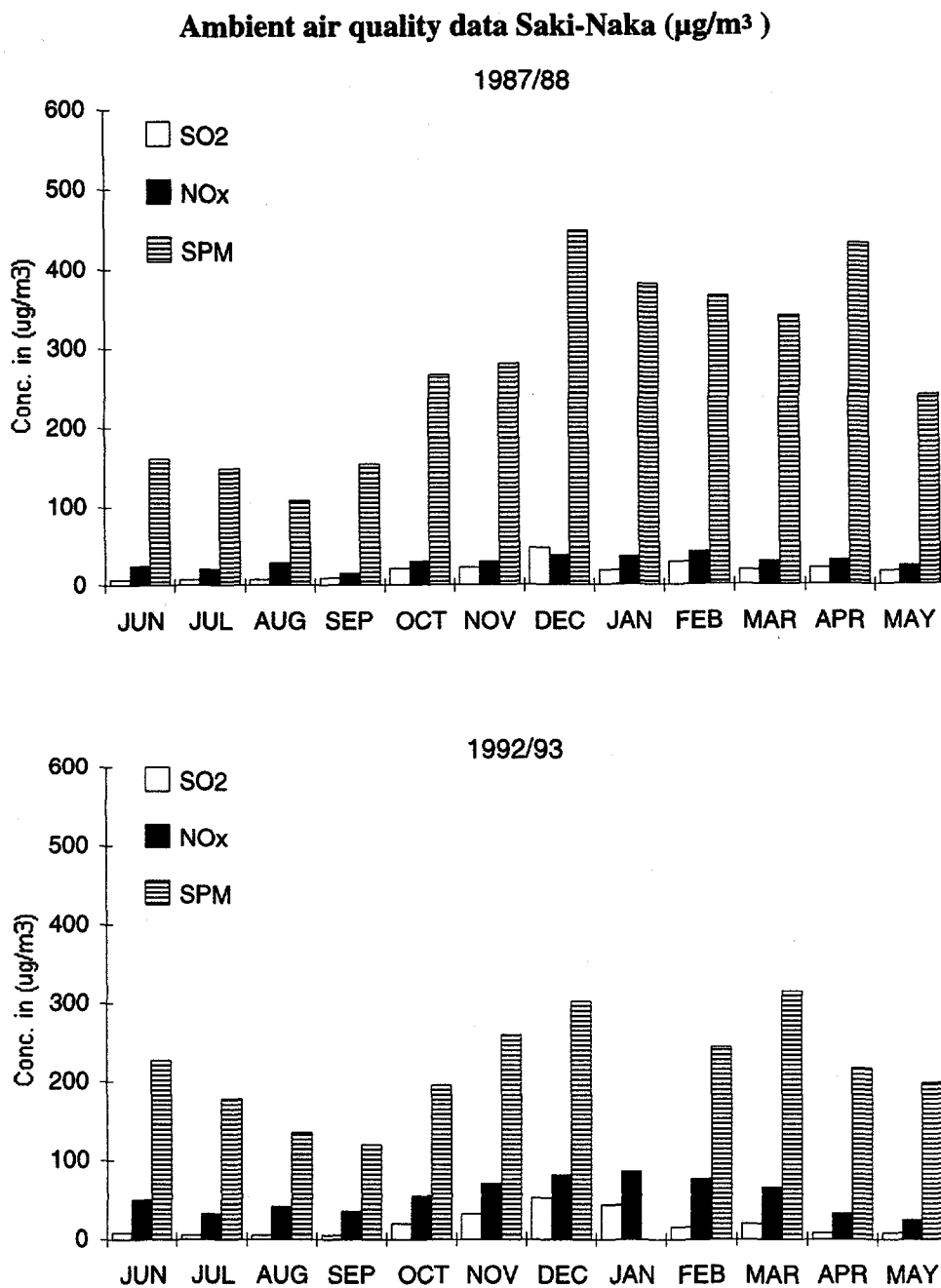


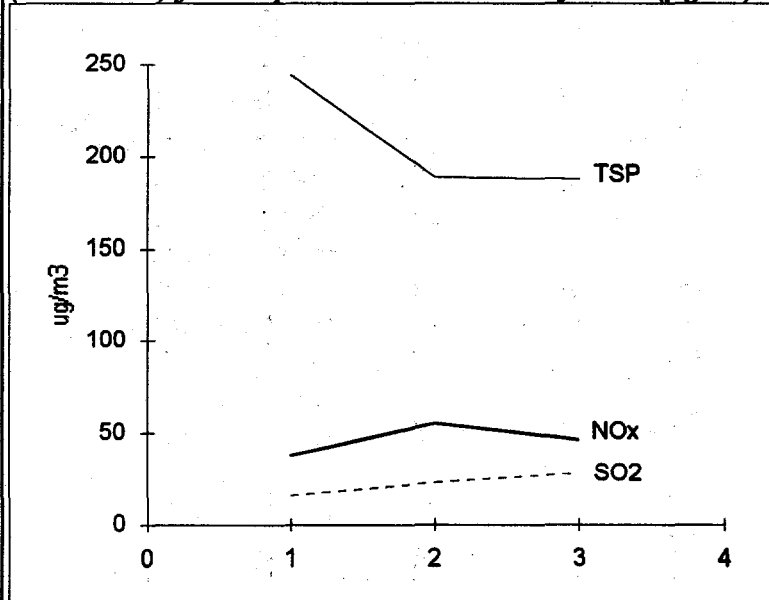
Table 2: Concentrations of SO₂, NO₂, NH₃ and TSP from MCGB stations in April 1992 (µg/m³)

Sites	SO ₂		NO ₂		NH ₃		TSP	
	A.M.	MAX	A.M.	MAX	A.M.	MAX	A.M.	MAX
1. Colaba	8	20	26	36	37	57	176	265
2. Babula Tank	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3. Worli	13	90	43	78	56	96	281	645
4. Dadar	9	28	31	54	60	79	238	408
5. Parel	23	72	37	61	41	65	360	834
6. Sewree	39	91	31	59	50	82	225	393
7. Sion	18	60	89	126	59	87	465	1,365
8. Khar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9. Supari Tank	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10. Andheri	20	55	32	90	55	97	348	659
11. Sakinaka	16	28	41	93	38	77	273	504
12. Jogeshwari	7	13	26	49	61	109	337	495
13. Ghatkopar	11	29	25	52	48	104	353	556
14. Bhandup	50	96	29	62	56	106	320	662
15. Mulund	7	20	20	38	43	65	275	533
16. Borivali	6(?)	6	15	28	37	44	199	291
17. Tilaknagar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
18. Chembumaka	14	31	45	83	57	88	319	496
19. Maravali	12	54	55	119	73	165	207(?)	381
20. Anik Nagar	23	63	36	59	97	168	259	379
21. Mahul	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
22. Mankhurd	14	56	39	85	46	94	250	395

Note: A.M.: Monthly average conc. Max.: Maximum 8-hour conc.

There are only a few TSP data available from highly exposed traffic sites in Bombay. In 1991 and 1992, 3 or 4 days measurements of SO₂, NO_x, TSP and CO were performed at 6 traffic junctions in Greater Bombay. TSP mean values ranged from 480 µg/m³ to more than 1,300 µg/m³ and maximum 8 hour values ranged from about 550 µg/m³ to more than 3,100 µg/m³. These values are considerably higher than from the stations in the MCGB air quality monitoring network and show that TSP could be a very serious problem close to the main roads. These high values

Figure 8: 8-hour mean annual TSP, NO_x and SO₂ values (18 stations) for the period June 1992-May 1993 (µg/m³)



Note: 1 = 1200-2000 hrs, 2 = 2000-0400 hrs, 3 = 0400-1200 hrs

are probably caused by resuspension of road dust and not so much by direct exhaust emissions from the cars.

In 1989–1990 Sharma and Patil (1991, 1992) did some measurements of mass concentration of size-distributed aerosols using a quartz crystal microbalance cascade impactor (QCM-CI). The instrument operates at a low flow rate (0.24 l/min) and separates the aerosols into 10 size fractions. The 50 percent cut-off sizes varies from 25 μm to 0.05 μm . For comparison conventional High Volume Sampler was also used. These samples were analyzed for size distribution by a Centrifugal Analyzing System (CAS) and Image Analyser System (IAS).

Samples were taken one day on hourly basis each week at two sites. Site 1 (CESE, IIT, Bombay) is a relatively clean area and Site 2 (Hindustan Ciba-Geigy Ltd, Bhandup) is a "mixed region" with highly polluting industries surrounded with dense population. Site 2 was along the highway Lal Bahadur Shastri (LBS) Marg with a peak traffic density of about 2 000 vehicles per hour. It is not clear if the Bhandup site is the same as the Bhandup site in the BMC network, but from maps it is obviously in the same region.

The TSP values collected by the high volume sampler were much higher than total particulate collected by QCM-CI ($\leq 25 \mu\text{m}$) for both sites: 180 and 541 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ by high volume sampler as compared to 86 and 110 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ by QCM-CI. But the cumulative percentage of particulates $\leq 25 \mu\text{m}$ was approximately equal by the two instruments.

PM₁₀ values (particles with diameter $\leq 10 \mu\text{m}$) were about 85–90 percent of total mass collected by the QCM-CI measurement method and the mass segregated by the CAS/IAS analyzer system ($\leq 45 \mu\text{m}$) on high volume samples. This shows that PM₁₀ levels are much lower than TSP levels and that the difference is highest in the most polluted areas where the mass of particles $\geq 45 \mu\text{m}$ dominates.

TSP high volume samples at Site 1 and Site 2 in 1989 were analyzed for 27 chemical species using inductively coupled plasma emission spectroscopy (ICP-MS), energy dispersive x-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (XRF) and UV/VIS spectrophotometry. Factor analysis applied on 19 marker elements extracted 7 factors indicating 7 major source types contributing to aerosol mass at the sampling sites. It was found that soil related elements were attached with more than one factor indicating collinearity of sources. However, results obtained indicated many anthropogenic sources present in the region like ferrous and non-ferrous industrial emissions, combustion processes such as refuse burning, oil and coal burning, road transport and secondary emissions.

Table 3 shows the annual average concentrations of TSP and the 27 analyzed elements at the two sites for 1989. The concentrations were much higher at Site 2 than at Site 1, especially for TSP, Al, Cr, S, Si, V, and Zn.

Table 3: Annual average TSP and its components (ngm^{-3})

Component	Site 1 Mean	Site 2 Mean
TSP*	130.21	800.71
Al*	2.31	10.54
As	273.60	695.50
Br	244.20	384.40
Ca*	4.82	8.43
Cd	35.70	75.70
Cl*	9.13	11.08
Co	25.70	30.50
Cr	39.00	104.10
Cu	290.80	436.20
Fe*	2.95	5.06
K*	1.27	2.27
La	36.70	48.20
Mg	705.60	802.05
Mn	401.90	635.00
Na*	5.87	8.20
Ni	35.00	79.10
Pb*	0.55	1.21
S*	0.94	4.75
Sb	86.80	104.00
Si*	3.59	9.48
Sn	95.10	189.10
Ti	471.50	661.00
V	109.50	311.00
Zn	204.90	785.50
SO ₄ ²⁻	1.59	1.77
NO ₃ ⁻	1.03	1.14
NH ₄ ⁺	739.90	868.90

Background TSP levels. There are no data available from real background stations, but measurements are performed south of Bombay both around the Thal RCF industrial Complex and during the Vikram Ispat Ltd. Salav Project. Especially the Thal RCF data are interesting.

During the 1991/92 Thal RCF project TSP, SO₂, NO_x and NH₃ were measured at 7 locations. The number of 8 hour observations ranged between 84 and 141. Arithmetic mean TSP values ranged between 79.8 µg/m³ and 117.6 µg/m³ and maximum 8 hour mean values ranged from 164 µg/m³ to 234 µg/m³. Even though local industrial emissions are supposed to contribute, the measured TSP levels around the Thal RCF Complex are quite lower than at all MCGB stations in Greater Bombay, pointing out the great importance of local emission sources in Bombay.

Sulfur dioxide (SO₂). Annual mean SO₂ concentrations from the GEMS/NEERI sites are shown in Figure 9. The concentrations dropped significantly between 1980 and 1987 to well below WHO annual guideline levels, and increased substantially again in 1990, but are still within the WHO guideline range.

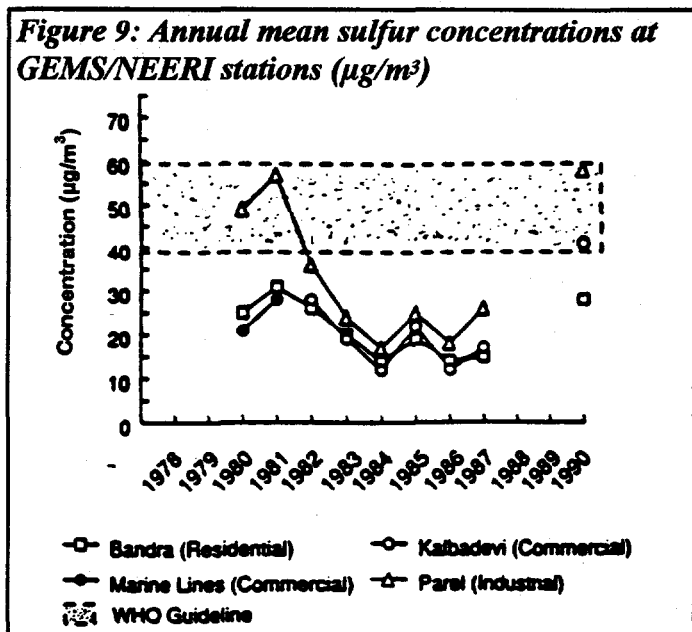
Annual SO₂ levels at the MCGB sites are shown in Figure 4. These values are mean values from all the 22 stations in operation. The 1990 level was 18 µg/m³, well below that at the NEERI stations. The 1990 level was the same as in 1987, while the SO₂ concentrations at the NEERI sites increased substantially from 1987 to 1990. The reason for this difference between NEERI and MCGB sites is not known. The MCGB data from the period June 1992–May 1993 show a mean value of 22 µg/m³, that is a little bit higher than in 1990.

Figure 10 shows annual mean SO₂ levels for the period June 1992–May 1993. These levels are ranging from 7 µg/m³ at the Mankhurd station to 50 µg/m³ at the Bhandup site. These values are all within the WHO guideline of 50 µg/m³.

As shown in Figures 6 and 7, there is a quite similar seasonal variation for SO₂ and TSP at the Saki Naka station, while this seasonal variation is not so clear for SO₂ at the Parel station. The reason for this is not known. It is also difficult to explain why SO₂ levels at most stations usually are higher during the late night and morning period than during the rest of the day as shown in Figure 8.

Available data from April 1992 from 17 MCGB stations show maximum SO₂ values (8 hour mean values) between 13 µg/m³ and 96 µg/m³, see Table 2.

A few measurements at traffic junctions in 1991 and 1992 show mean values ranging from 38 µg/m³ to 117 µg/m³ at 6 stations and maximum 8 hour values from 80 µg/m³ to 162 µg/m³. SO₂ concentrations at traffic junctions therefore seem to be considerably higher than at the MCGB network. The Indian Guideline value for short-term (24 hourly) in Industrial & Mixed Use areas is 120 µg/m³.



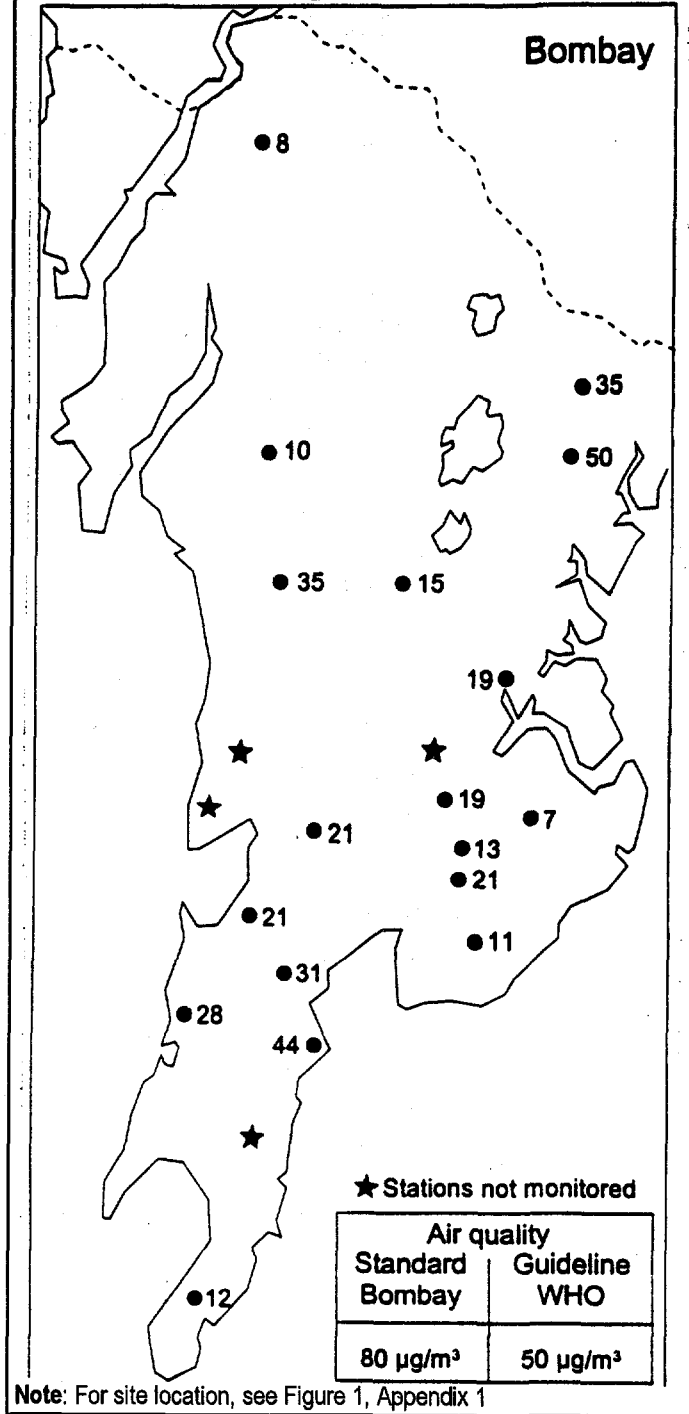
Air quality data around the Thal RCF Complex in 1991 and 1992 show mean values from 2.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to 5.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and maximum 8 hour values from 11.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to 24.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at 7 stations. These values are considerably lower than in the Greater Bombay area.

Nitrogen oxides (NO_x as NO_2). Annual 98th percentile NO_2 levels at GEMS/NEERI sites are shown in Figure 11 (annual mean levels are not shown in reports available at NILU). Annual 98th percentile levels have dropped significantly from 1987 to 1990. Concentrations are relatively consistent suggesting NO_2 concentrations to be evenly distributed throughout the city.

Annual mean concentrations at MCGB sites are shown in Figure 4. These values are probably mean values from all 22 stations. The mean value in 1990 was 40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and the level has varied between 30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and 44 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ the last ten years. MCGB sites NO_x level has increased about 10 percent from 1987 to 1990, while 98th percentile values at GEMS/NEERI sites have dropped significantly from 1987 to 1990. As very little details about monitoring methodology and site location are available for both monitoring networks, direct comparison of the data is not attempted. MCGB data from June 1992–May 1993 show a mean of 46 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ indicating that the NO_x level still is rising.

Figure 12 shows mean NO_x concentrations for the period June 1992–May 1993. The levels are ranging from 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at the Mahul site to 83 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at the Sion site.

Figure 10: Mean SO_2 concentrations ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) at MCGB stations in the period June 1992–May 1993



As shown in Figures 6 and 7 the seasonal NO_x variation seems to be quite similar as for TSP. The NO_x levels usually are highest during the night time (Figure 8), while TSP concentrations are highest at daytime and SO_2 concentrations are highest at late night and morning hours.

Available data from April 1992 from 17 MCGB stations show maximum NO_x values (8 hour mean values) between $28 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $126 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, see Table 2. The Indian guideline value for 24 hours in industrial areas is $120 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

1991 and 1992 NO_x measurements at some traffic junctions show mean values from $56 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to $175 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and maximum 8 hour values from $83 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Worli Naka site) to $296 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (VT site). As for TSP and SO_2 these values are much higher than at the MCGB

monitoring stations, indicating traffic emissions to be very important.

Air quality data around the Thal RCF Complex in 1991 and 1992 show mean NO_x values between $10.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $17.0 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and maximum 8 hour mean values between $28.0 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $52.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at 7 stations. These values are considerably lower than in the Greater Bombay area.

Lead (Pb). Monthly mean concentrations of lead during the Air pollution survey of Greater Bombay in 1971–1973 ranged from $0.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to $2.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

Lead was monitored at the 22 MCGB sites during the years 1980–1987. The Greater Bombay area was divided into 6 sub-areas; South Bombay, Central Bombay, Western Suburb, Eastern Suburb, Petrochemical Complex and Urban Clean (Borivali station).

This study showed an increasing trend in the whole area and the highest levels in the Eastern Suburb zone. The annual mean levels ranged from $0.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to $1.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The highest monthly mean level was $17.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at the Mulund site in October 1984.

As an example annual mean Pb concentrations in the Central Bombay area are shown in Figure 13. Annual mean concentrations for 4 stations range from $0.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to $1.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The highest level (probably mean monthly value) was $8.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at Dadar in January 1985. The second highest level of $6.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ was recorded during February 1987 at Parel. The annual mean levels of Pb in this area showed an increasing trend during the years 1980–1987. From 1980 to 1987 the annual mean Pb level nearly doubled.

Figure 11: Annual 98 percentile nitrogen oxide concentrations ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) at GEMS/NEERI stations

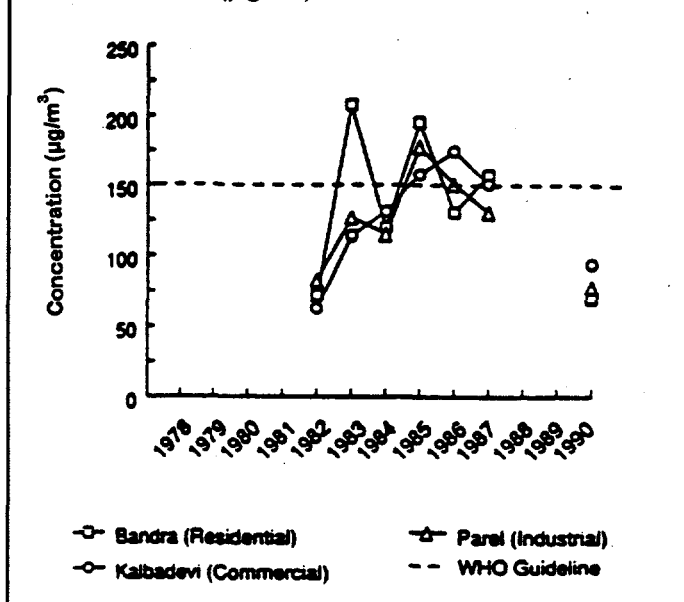
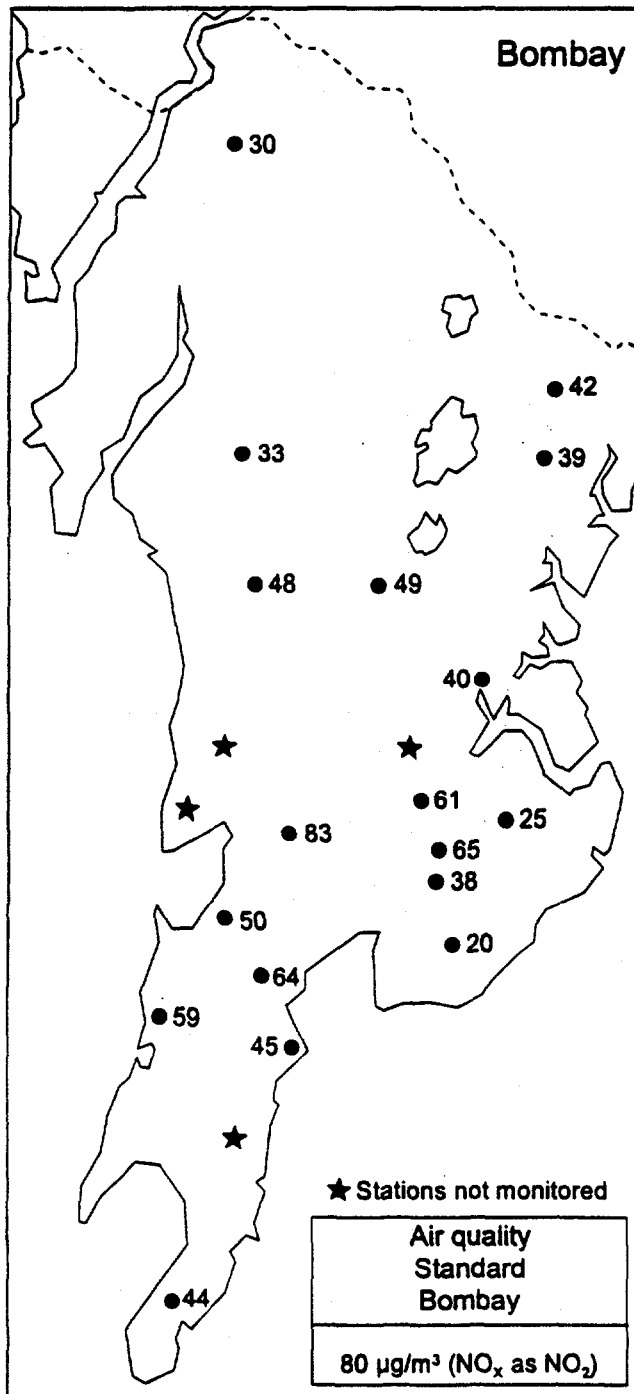


Figure 12: Mean NO_x concentrations at MCGB stations in the period June 1992–May 1993 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)



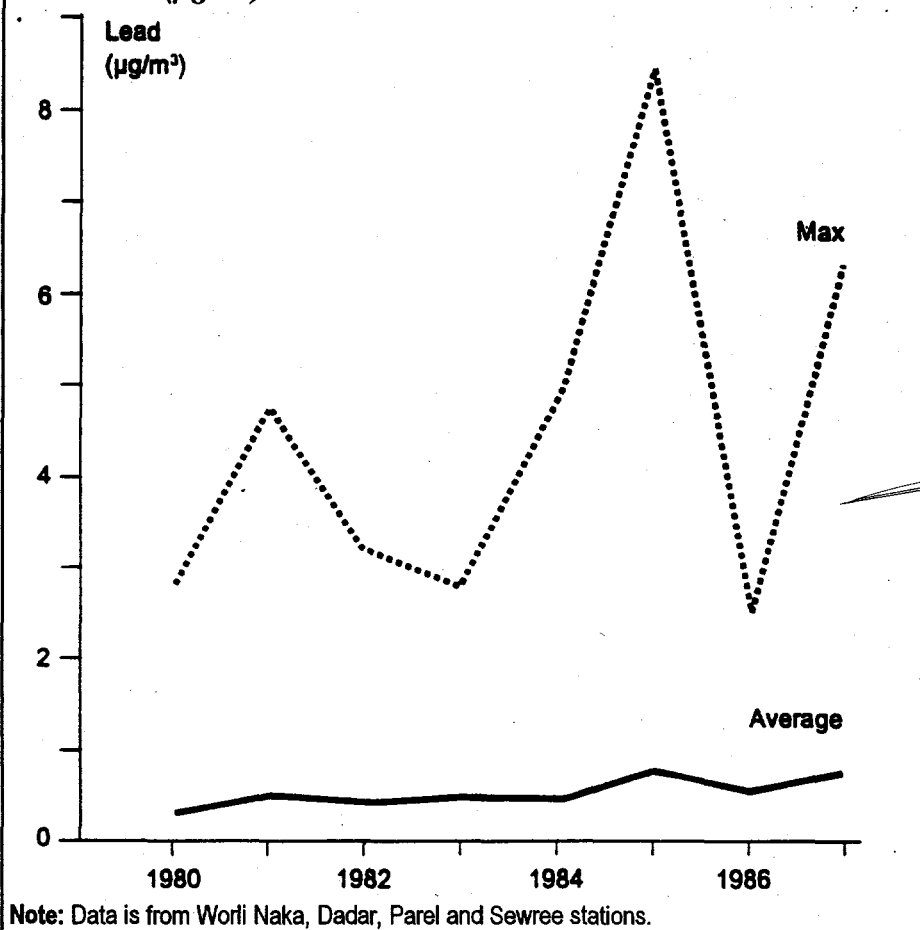
Note: Site locations are given in Figure 1, Appendix 1.

There is no information available about Pb monitoring at the MCGB stations after 1987.

Monitoring undertaken in 1990 at the GEMS/NEERI sites indicates that annual airborne Pb levels have fallen significantly since the 1970's to between $0.25 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $0.33 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, well below the WHO guideline of $1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. It is likely that curbside levels will be much higher.

As shown in the TSP paragraph annual Pb levels at two sites in 1989 were $0.55 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $1.21 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, the latter site being close to a road. In the most heavily traffic-exposed city center streets it is likely that Pb levels are even higher.

Figure 13: Annual trend of lead in Central Bombay during the years 1980–1987 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)



Carbon monoxide (CO). Some short-term CO roadside surveys have been undertaken between 1984 and 1987. Monitoring was performed at several roadside sites during periods of peak traffic flow. 8 hour mean values ranged between $4 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ and $21 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$. A maximum hourly concentration of $50 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ was recorded at the Haji Bachoo Ali Hospital. Maximum hourly concentrations were generally around $23\text{--}29 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$, close to the WHO guideline of $30 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$. These roadside surveys are not representative of ambient background levels which are likely to be much lower.

CO has also been measured at 6 traffic junctions on a few days in 1991 and 1992. Mean values ranged from $5.1 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ (Worli Naka) to $11.1 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ (VT station) and maximum values ranged from $7 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ (Nana Chowk) to $15.6 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ (Mahim).

CO was also measured during the Vikram Ispat Ltd. Salav project south of Bombay in the period January 1991–June 1992. The values usually ranged from $0.3 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ to $0.5 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$, and only a few 8 hour values were above $1 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$. These values seem to represent ambient background levels.

Ozone (O₃). Ozone is not measured in Bombay. Some monitoring should be started to identify the levels of ambient urban O₃ in and near Bombay.

Ammonia (NH₃). Ammonia is routinely measured at the MCGB sites, but information about the results are very limited. The April 1992 report shows mean values between 37 µg/m³ and 97 µg/m³ and maximum values between 44 µg/m³ and 168 µg/m³. The highest observed 24 hour maximum NH₃ value was 1 995 µg/m³ at the Maravali station in 1985. There is no available information on NH₃ standards.

Air quality data at 7 stations around the Thal RCF Complex in 1991 and 1992 show mean NH₃ values ranging from 5.5 µg/m³ to 46.7 µg/m³. Maximum 8 hour values ranged from 15 µg/m³ to 233 µg/m³. These values are somewhat lower than in the Greater Bombay area.

Benzo(a)pyrenes. Occasionally samples of total and respirable TSP are taken at traffic junctions with heavy traffic. The level of benzo(a)pyrenes from total TSP ranges between 2.7 µg/m³ and 13 µg/m³, and the level of benzo(a)pyrenes from respirable TSP ranges between 2.3 µg/m³ and 8.4 µg/m³. There are no information on standards for benzo(a)pyrenes, but the measured levels seem to be quite high.

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ANNEX I
INTERCOMPARISON OF GRAVIMETRIC WEIGHING ANALYSIS OF GLASS-FIBRE
HIGH-VOLUME FILTERS BETWEEN MCGB AND NILU LABORATORIES

NORSK INSTITUTT FOR LUFTFORSKNING - NORWEGIAN INSTITUTE FOR AIR RESEARCH
POSTBOKS 64, N-2001 LILLESTRØM



Office of the Dy. City Engineer (Civil)
Env. Sanitation & Projects
New Transport Garage Bldg. 3rd Floor
Dr. E. Moses Rd.
Worli
BOMBAY 400 018
INDIA

Att.: Mr. V.S. Mahajan, Dy. City Engineer

Deres ref./Your ref.:

Vår ref./Our ref.:
STL/EMN/O-92117

Dato/Date:
20 August 1993

Dear Sir,

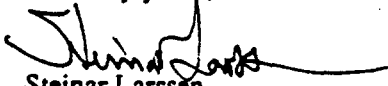
with reference to your letter of 4 May this year I hereby enclose Tables and Figures giving the results of our comparison of weighing results on the High volume sampler filters performed by your laboratory, and by NILU, as also handed over to you in Bombay on 4 August.

The comparison of weighing results comes out quite favourably. The results show the following main features:

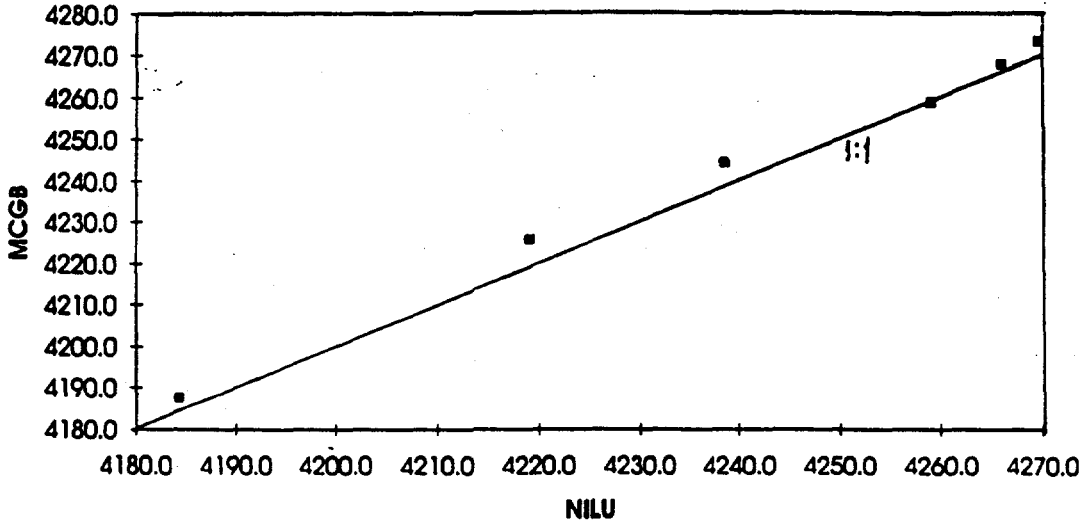
- The weights recorded at your laboratory are on the average about 4 mg higher than those recorded at NILU, varying between -15 mg and +11 mg
- The net weights recorded at NILU were also on the average somewhat higher than recorded by MCGB. NILU net weights were on the average 4.9% higher than MCGB net weights (for 6 samples), varying between +15.3% and -8.8%.
- Comparison of results from co-located samplers, one with MCGB filter paper, and one with Whatman GF/A filter paper (used by NILU) show that the MCGB filters give somewhat higher concentrations.
This is an interesting result. The reason for this effect cannot be determined from this experiment. It may possibly be connected with irreversible absorption of water vapor in the MCGB filters, or to loss of fibers from the Whatman filters.

The results from this limited experiment supports the good quality of the particle weight data given by your laboratory.

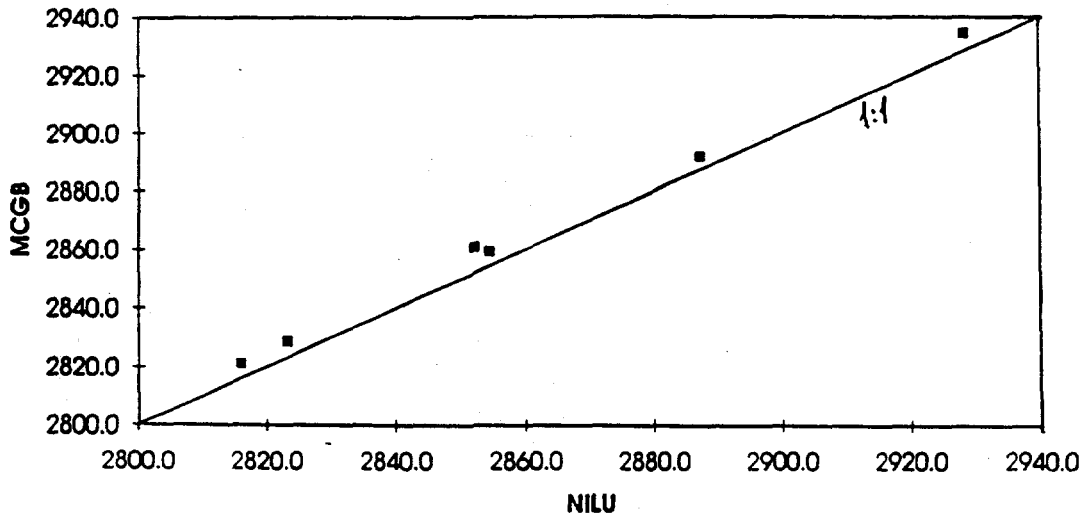
Sincerely yours,


Steinar Larssen
Head of department
LOCAL AIR QUALITY

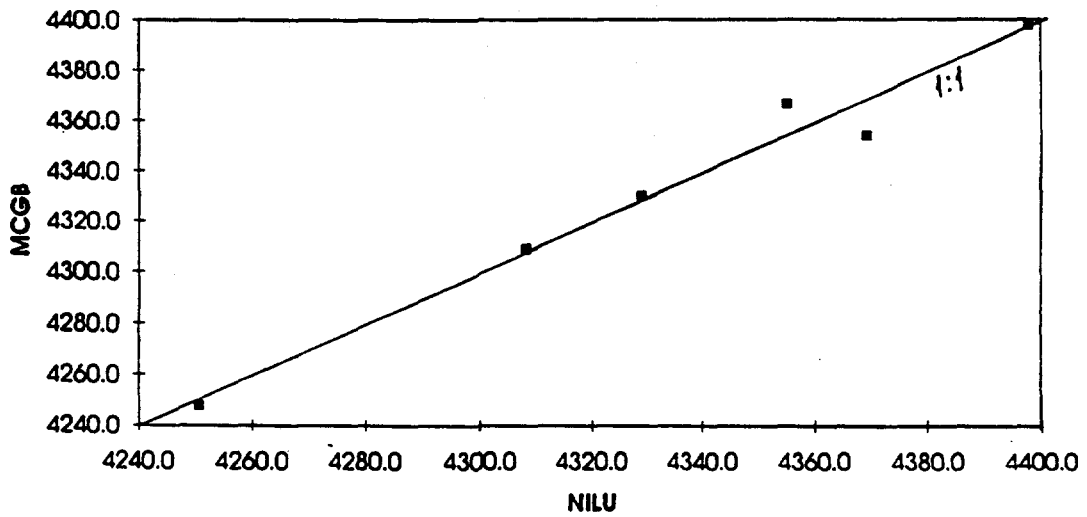
BOMBAY TSP, Test filters									
Filter no.	Weight before		Weight after		Net weight, mg		m ³	µg/m ³ MCGB	Station
	NILU	MCGB	NILU	MCGB	NILU	MCGB			
1	4219.1	4225.6	4308.3	4309.2	89.2	83.6	303.6	275	SION
2	4184.3	4187.5	4250.7	4247.8	66.4	60.3	331.2	182	SION
3	4259.1	4259.0	4369.1	4354.4	110.0	95.4	393.6	242	JOGESHWARI
4	4269.6	4273.3	4355.1	4367.0	85.5	93.7	412.8	227	JOGESHWARI
5	4266.0	4267.9	4397.6	4397.9	131.6	130.0	379.2	343	MARAVLI
6	4238.6	4244.4	4328.9	4330.2	90.3	85.8	379.2	226	MARAVLI
7	4245.3	4253.4	4249.8		4.5				unexposed
8	4202.8	4213.7	4210.9		8.1				.
9	4224.3	4234.5	4232.7		8.4				.
10	4228.8	4236.5	4234.3		5.5				.
K-488		2712.8	2854.4	2859.4		146.6	493.5	297	JOGESHWARI
K-489		2708.9	2815.9	2821.3		112.4	528.0	213	JOGESHWARI
K-500		2735.9	2928.0	2934.8		198.9	475.2	419	MARAVLI
K-501		2733.3	2852.1	2860.9		127.6	480.0	266	MARAVLI
K-506		2742.6	2887.1	2892.2		149.6	435.6	343	SION
K-507		2740.0	2823.1	2828.8		88.8	480.0	185	SION
K-544			2762.0	2766.9					unexposed
K-545			2753.3	2756.5					.



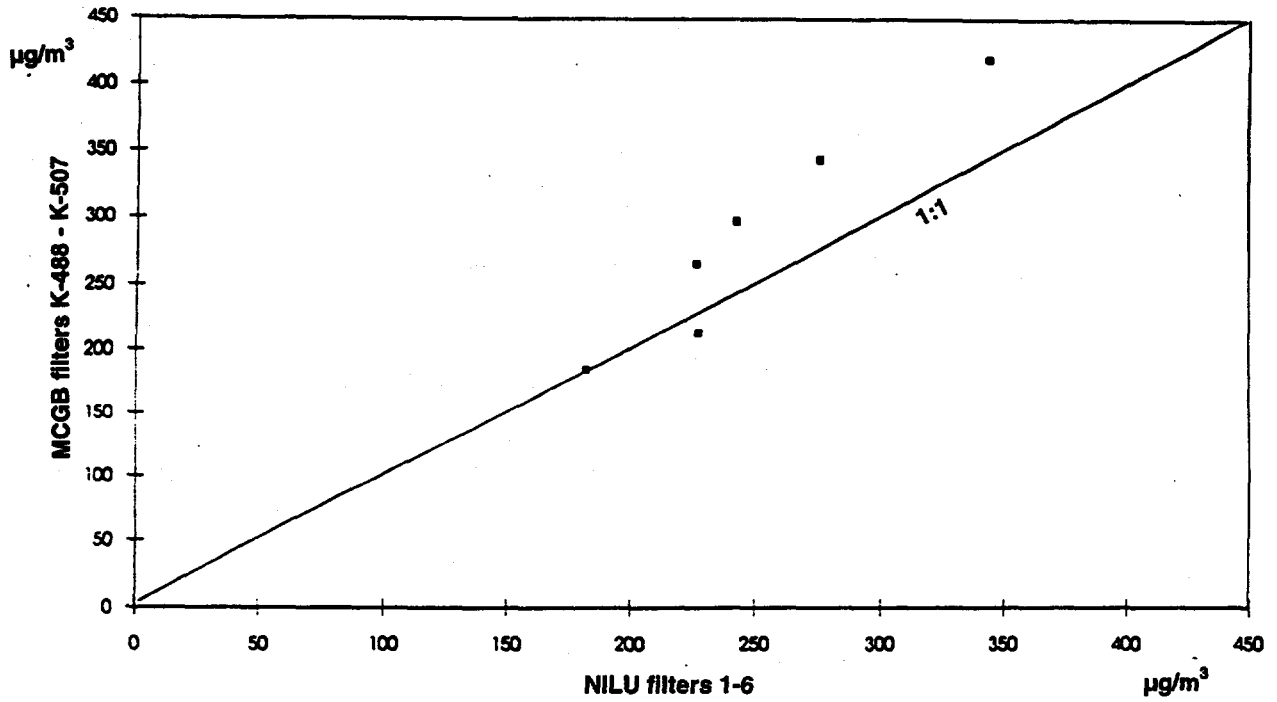
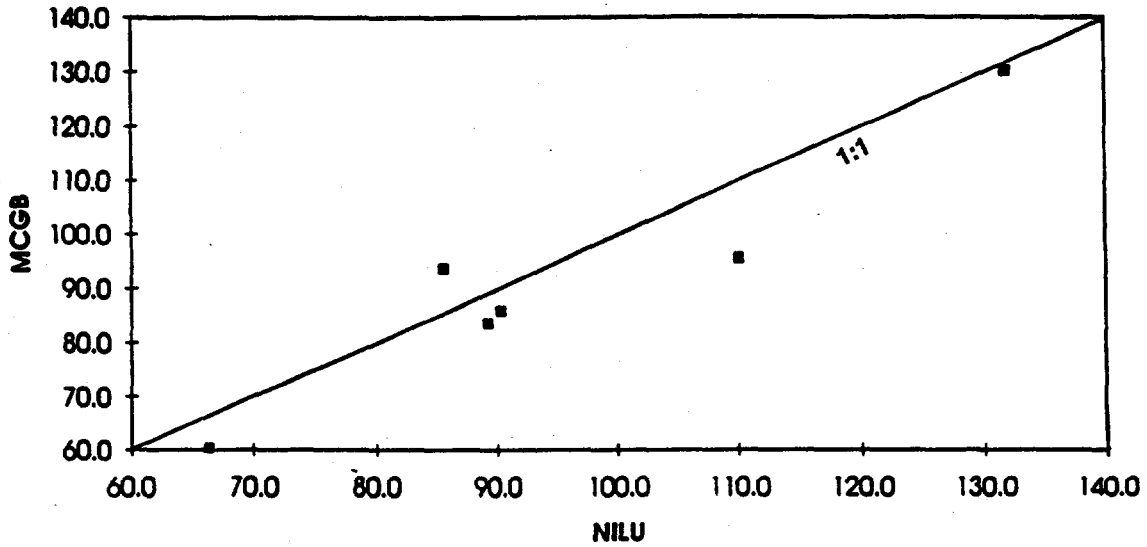
Weight after, filter K-488, K-489, K-500, K-501, K-506 and K-507



Weight after, filter 1 - 6



Net weight, filter 1 - 6
(mg)



ANNEX II
MONTHLY AVERAGES FOR SO₂, TSP, NO_x AND NH₃, MCGB SITES, FOR THE
PERIOD 1978-1990

*Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Colaba (A1)*Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981	36	159	42		1981	70	283	55	
1982	44	157	56		1982	35	143	33	
1983	105	249	69		1983	31	142	44	
1984	69	195	93		1984	73	211	77	
1985	50	216	50		1985	49	218	63	
1986	39	264	64	96	1986	13	210	71	82
1987	12	235	64	131	1987	12	297	60	171
1988	21	240	93	64	1988	21	302	68	88
1989	13	238	87	68	1989	16	273	74	70
1990	26	299	93	70	1990				

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981					1981				
1982	30	132	39		1982	9	95	11	
1983	17	137	21		1983	21	133	19	
1984	31	241	48		1984	9	175	37	
1985	25	233	32	87	1985	35	205	29	52
1986	20	225	43	87	1986	17	154	39	96
1987	8	271	32	108	1987	10	240	35	90
1988	8	227	40	67	1988	11	225	17	54
1989	9	260	53	35	1989	10	174	29	67
1990					1990				

May					June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981					1981				
1982	9	86	14		1982	13	89	10	
1983	14	98	13		1983	15	90	12	
1984	12	157	18		1984	9	91	10	
1985	10	120	13	43	1985	6	82	11	23
1986	16	205	27	72	1986	8	126	32	75
1987	6	218	29	129	1987	6	144	20	81
1988	19	116	10	56	1988	6	126	20	42
1989	14	176	23	47	1989	6	112	18	29
1990					1990				

*Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Colaba (A1)*Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July					August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981	6	91	5		1981	6	71	6	
1982	6	82	6		1982	6	74	8	
1983	13	119	15		1983	10	112	15	
1984	9	92	11		1984	12	118	8	
1985	6	113	10	37	1985	6	115	9	20
1986	7	151	14	64	1986	7	102	20	89
1987	9	89	18	20	1987	6	77	17	74
1988	7	133	14	33	1988	6	106	10	32
1989	6	88	17	27	1989	6	66	14	30
1990					1990				

September					October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981	22	83	17		1981	48	99	35	
1982	7	74	14		1982	52	128	61	
1983	11	105	12		1983	19	134	30	
1984	17	90	29		1984	33	131	51	
1985					1985	27	149	27	55
1986	7	115	29	82	1986	6	158	30	20
1987	19	81	32	52	1987	6	154	35	78
1988	8	62	29	22	1988	12	188	69	31
1989	12	95	29	25	1989	13	133	42	44
1990					1990				

November					December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981	58	105	48		1981	72	193	56	
1982	49	113	58		1982	71	233	60	
1983	57	227	74		1983	71	206	92	
1984	57	160	62		1984	68	210	76	
1985	50	219	40	110	1985	41	234	45	35
1986	14	284	52	178	1986	10	269	77	152
1987	10	242	71	68	1987	9	313	60	66
1988	13	215	89	24	1988	28	214	57	28
1989	22	178	61	78	1989	24	209	70	82
1990					1990				

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Babula Tank (A2)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	112	548	49	
1981	95	328	60	
1982	11	274	39	
1983	213	380	92	
1984	109	298	95	
1985	88	323	56	
1986	56	521	68	158
1987	66	388	92	125
1988	26	476	90	92
1989	27	400	94	74
1990	20	458	101	

March				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981				
1982	30	132	39	
1983	17	137	21	
1984	31	241	48	
1985	25	233	32	67
1986	20	225	43	87
1987	8	271	32	108
1988	8	227	40	67
1989	9	260	53	35
1990				

May				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981				
1982	9	86	14	
1983	14	98	13	
1984	12	157	18	
1985	10	120	13	43
1986	16	205	27	72
1987	6	218	29	129
1988	19	116	10	56
1989	14	176	23	47
1990				

February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980				
1981	70	283	55	
1982	35	143	33	
1983	31	142	44	
1984	73	211	77	
1985	49	218	63	
1986	13	210	71	82
1987	12	297	60	171
1988	21	302	68	88
1989	16	273	74	70
1990				

April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981				
1982	9	95	11	
1983	21	133	19	
1984	9	175	37	
1985	35	205	29	52
1986	17	154	39	96
1987	10	240	35	90
1988	11	225	17	54
1989	10	174	29	67
1990				

June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981				
1982	13	89	10	
1983	15	90	12	
1984	9	91	10	
1985	6	82	11	23
1986	8	126	32	75
1987	6	144	20	81
1988	6	126	20	42
1989	6	112	18	29
1990				

*Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Babula Tank (A2)*Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July					August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980					1980				
1981	6	91	5		1981	6	71	6	
1982	6	82	6		1982	6	74	8	
1983	13	119	15		1983	10	112	15	
1984	9	92	11		1984	12	118	8	
1985	6	113	10	37	1985	6	115	9	20
1986	7	151	14	64	1986	7	102	20	89
1987	9	89	18	20	1987	6	77	17	74
1988	7	133	14	33	1988	6	106	10	32
1989	6	88	17	27	1989	6	66	14	30
1990					1990				
September					October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981	22	83	17		1981	48	99	35	
1982	7	74	14		1982	52	128	61	
1983	11	105	12		1983	19	134	30	
1984	17	90	29		1984	33	131	51	
1985					1985	27	149	27	55
1986	7	115	29	82	1986	6	158	30	20
1987	19	81	32	52	1987	6	154	35	78
1988	8	62	29	22	1988	12	188	69	31
1989	12	95	29	25	1989	13	133	42	44
1990					1990				
November					December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981	58	105	48		1981	72	193	56	
1982	49	113	58		1982	71	233	60	
1983	57	227	74		1983	71	206	92	
1984	57	160	62		1984	68	210	76	
1985	50	219	40	110	1985	41	234	45	35
1986	14	284	52	178	1986	10	269	77	152
1987	10	242	71	68	1987	9	313	60	66
1988	13	215	89	24	1988	28	214	57	28
1989	22	178	61	78	1989	24	209	70	82
1990					1990				

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Worli-Nak (A3)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980					1980				
1981	119	284	49		1981	77	345	44	
1982	92	213	49		1982	40	250	25	
1983	135	365	51		1983	79	299	31	
1984	108	374	55		1984	132	324	52	
1985	109	273	5	241	1985	61	245	84	85
1986	65	418	65	178	1986	37	398	52	44
1987	36	400	77	140	1987	19	310	64	170
1988	40	364	108	113	1988	41	334	95	74
1989	27	400	102	98	1989	12	246	67	80
1990	73	444	119		1990	45	311	87	

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981	66	264	29		1981				
1982	39	303	32		1982	55	304	18	
1983	36	304	25		1983	17	211	13	
1984	95	305	48		1984	56	228	18	
1985	72	376	76	20	1985	41	245	28	102
1986	22	233	40	50	1986	42	236	38	103
1987	16	278	49	95	1987	26	235	28	114
1988	37	318	58	40	1988	8	205	35	50
1989	10	277	57	23	1989	32	278	40	78
1990	35	247	53		1990	19	267	66	
1991					1991	10	214	28	

May					June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980		180	11		1980	22	171	17	
1981	20	202	8		1981	38	247	8	
1982	12	225	16		1982	22	171	10	
1983	43	190	17		1983	80	154	17	
1984	15	264	9		1984	45	162	10	
1985	21	153	21	37	1985	8	236	16	28
1986	20	239	24	64	1986	11	206	18	73
1987	9	202	28	69	1987	7	216	26	51
1988	40	231	25	63	1988	11	206	34	64
1989					1989				
1990	10	178	24		1990	6	215	18	

*Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Worli-Nak (A3)*Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	179	148	6	
1981	51	163	11	
1982	14	148	9	
1983	40	131	17	
1984	88	130	10	
1985	7	189	11	38
1986	7	217	14	61
1987	13	186	28	44
1988	6	146	23	38
1989				
1990	6	160	15	

August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	21	198	5	
1981	49	163	7	
1982	11	91	10	
1983	39	68	17	
1984	164	167	17	
1985	6	210	13	29
1986	28	172	18	79
1987	12	143	33	95
1988	6	153	24	28
1989				
1990				

September				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	43	143	9	
1981	79	126	23	
1982	17	108	16	
1983	46	115	14	
1984	49	158	17	
1985	41	176	25	45
1986	22	193	31	58
1987	8	167	31	95
1988	13	129	47	30
1989				
1990				

October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	74	272	16	
1981	118	150	33	
1982	77	257	56	
1983	92		31	
1984	28	201	19	
1985	69	243	42	86
1986	40	309	58	128
1987	19	221	51	114
1988	57	272	82	42
1989				
1990				

November				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	106	281	48	
1981	141	247	48	
1982	135	159	79	
1983	104	369	77	
1984	73	226		
1985	81	370	46	191
1986	95	345	70	79
1987	51	352	94	109
1988	70	300	95	73
1989				
1990				

December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	176	341	48	
1981	172	336	48	
1982	92	283	79	
1983	141	372	77	
1984				
1985	47	366	46	139
1986	53	376	70	165
1987	47	355	94	128
1988	53	371	95	98
1989				
1990				

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Dadar (A4)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	44	294	29	
1981	59	245	46	
1982	45	212	47	
1983	58	333	50	
1984	65	232	73	
1985	56	327	74	
1986	50	323	67	116
1987	21	371	69	158
1988	22	413	97	63
1989	34	355	70	67
1990	33	411	88	

February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	46	453	30	
1981	40	317	43	
1982	40	227	40	
1983	32	262	38	
1984	55	250	61	
1985	44	290	62	
1986	34	338	68	51
1987	14	350	45	108
1988	27	347	68	75
1989	31	331	64	78
1990	39	366	94	

March				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	51	339	32	
1981	40	217	33	
1982	28	255	41	
1983	12	221	26	
1984	63	220	56	
1985	63	283	47	23
1986	36	315	42	72
1987	14	294	37	104
1988	15	322	41	56
1989	13	267	37	46
1990	9	202	47	

April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	37	241	20	
1980	44	216	18	
1981	27	211	22	
1982	16	145	21	
1983	27	158	28	
1984	21	214	31	
1985	22	200	27	40
1986	39	253	43	157
1987	8	205	26	720
1988	20	285	23	75
1989	17	258	31	74
1990	9	176	28	

May				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	26	243	20	
1980	20	104	11	
1981	11	125	14	
1982	17	129	18	
1983	26	112	22	
1984	12	163	21	
1985	38	173	22	178
1986	36	373	21	20
1987	13	231	22	86
1988	20	180	15	62
1989	17	238	28	30
1990	7	161	19	

June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	18	195	15	
1980	21	115	22	
1981	19	137	9	
1982	18	128	12	
1983	35	138	21	
1984	55	121	20	
1985	29	139	18	50
1986	60	190	26	48
1987	11	190	32	55
1988	10	146	22	36
1989	22	1278	22	46
1990	7	164	31	

*Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Dadar (A4)*Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

Year	July			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	33	150	15	
1980	105	176	7	
1981	36	116	14	
1982	12	108	16	
1983	26	223	20	
1984	42	131	16	
1985	44	136	18	60
1986	19	162	20	71
1987	13	141	21	60
1988	9	146	25	28
1989	23	116	29	42
1990	9	131	21	

Year	August			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	42	154	11	
1981	41	135	8	
1982	36	100	12	
1983	7	93	12	
1984	30	99	28	
1985	66	177	18	
1986	41	165	24	30
1987	11	99	25	86
1988	8	99	25	73
1989	15	141	20	25
1990	17	87	21	22

Year	September			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	52	128	19	
1980	45	70	11	
1981	46	101	21	
1982	19	90	24	
1983	39	121	29	
1984	35	99	32	
1985				
1986	11	125	30	78
1987	12	157	36	100
1988	22	87	28	26
1989	42	97	31	41

Year	October			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	58	279	27	
1980	23	191	19	
1981	65	144	33	
1982	48	227	65	
1983	33	184	40	
1984	31	193	45	
1985	44	195	32	100
1986	34	300	48	107
1987	17	266	52	100
1988	26	368	55	34
1989	48	195	45	87

Year	November			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	62	169	28	
1980	68	256	31	
1981	76	161	43	
1982	34	163	46	
1983	69	229	74	
1984	61	244	65	
1985	51	298	38	161
1986	31	298	53	101
1987	14	276	57	71
1988	39	378	53	29
1989	40	291	72	195

Year	December			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	51	226	32	
1980	53	297	42	
1981	69	201	43	
1982	63	269	71	
1983	114	317	97	
1984	48	270	58	
1985	31	319	39	113
1986	31	361	43	99
1987	20	322	78	43
1988				
1989	42	351	82	197

*Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Parel (A5)*Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	158	348	42		1978	141	217	34	
1979	100	346	10		1979	122	314	13	
1980	109	291	33		1980	105	349	35	
1981	84	247	49		1981	154	339	53	
1982	75	318	43		1982	75	315	28	
1983	98	330	26		1983	52	322	41	
1984	84	418	101		1984	79	438	80	
1985					1985				
1986	44	463	63	239	1986	31	507	64	67
1987	29	476	90	166	1987	18	483	83	177
1988	33	509	103	108	1988	57	575	85	47
1989	36	426	57	130	1989	37	487	66	101
1990	56	315	123		1990	33	432	92	

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	94	318	32		1978	85	222	12	
1979	99	308	9		1979	76	328	23	
1980	123	353	30		1980	84	249	21	
1981	99	234	39		1981	89	251	22	
1982	57	246	35		1982				
1983	30	278	37		1983	61	173	18	
1984	130	307	73		1984	56	272	37	
1985					1985	72	266	37	83
1986	29	413	47	65	1986	46	318	45	85
1987	20	438	52	123	1987	24	372	48	105
1988	42	487	56	73	1988	42	369	30	71
1989	37	420	48	54	1989	38	277	36	91
1990	31	355	63		1990	24	288	38	

May					June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	65	184	5		1978	107	243	11	
1979	126	301	19		1979	89	274	18	
1980	86	158	18		1980	96	123	21	
1981	46	221	17		1981	82	262	11	
1982	31	201	24		1982	61	114	14	
1983	65	132	24		1983	109	140	25	
1984	25	221	21		1984	83	138	15	
1985	74	187	19	36	1985	45	139	21	38
1986	27	322	35	68	1986	25	148	32	121
1987	24	391	34	107	1987	30	223	37	65
1988	50	279	32	52	1988	21	216	50	69
1989	36	317	32	41	1989	51	263	26	45
1990	28	297	33		1990	17	158	30	

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Parel (A5)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July					August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	164	211	6		1978	91	277	5	
1979	49	241	15		1979	41	246	14	
1980	64	133	8		1980	72	107	6	
1981	41	156	12		1981	54	234	15	
1982	48	154	16		1982	18	126	11	
1983	56	160	22		1983	54	169	24	
1984	82	160	24		1984	81	160	23	
1985	28	131	14	26	1985	63	163	27	52
1986	30	183	25	68	1986	47	152	25	38
1987	31	147	30	62	1987	30	153	29	47
1988	24	123	24	43	1988	20	135	24	30
1989	27	143	19	52	1989	52	128	25	33
1990	18	143	27		1990				

September					October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	100	178	8		1978	97	258	16	
1979	84	205	34		1979	137	236	34	
1980	151	129	14		1980	117	223	30	
1981	74	158	20		1981	154	218	48	
1982	51	140	29		1982	91	230	80	
1983	68	174	25		1983	71	139	44	
1984	57	135	37		1984	62	243	53	
1985					1985	67	225	43	100
1986	42	216	41	82	1986	47	354	70	163
1987	48	185	35	127	1987	41	285	49	117
1988	36	128	32	30	1988	37	302	43	94
1989	77	145	26	36	1989	67	253	47	90

November					December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	54	260	14		1978	67	358	12	
1979	82	239	35		1979	79	367	36	
1980	125	240	36		1980	144	290	62	
1981	85	246	57		1981	107	177	55	
1982	91	232	81		1982	84	327	94	
1983	75	304	67		1983	105	368	101	
1984					1984				
1985	84	385	50	157	1985	74	405	68	318
1986	49	411	78	99	1986	29	426	104	290
1987	21	479	61	209	1987	29	450	90	249
1988	60	369	65	199	1988	47	387	69	186
1989	46	325	56	217	1989	40	441	70	202

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Sewree (A6)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980					1980				
1981	45	280	40		1981	83	429	55	
1982	47	179	41		1982	42	202	23	
1983	83	278	54		1983	46	212	28	
1984	44	255	50		1984	65	296	49	
1985	71	255	42	75	1985	102	311	56	71
1986	52	276	52	162	1986	58	258	50	124
1987	21	258	55	156	1987	18	296	55	156
1988	25	327	84	82	1988	63	290	84	82
1989	36	260	62	57	1989	29	360	57	57
1990	30	326	71		1990	24	260	71	

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979					1979				
1980					1980				
1981	89	226	34		1981	49	244	22	
1982	48	234	35		1982	33	136	11	
1983	33	179	26		1983	50	168	19	
1984	64	254	40		1984	43	223	22	
1985	93	217	32	49	1985	112	142	24	65
1986	63	321	45	149	1986	60	220	32	120
1987	20	253	29	111	1987	22	356	35	110
1988	51	247	43	46	1988	52	301	36	73
1989	21	221	55	51	1989	33	221	36	69
1990	38	240	41		1990	26	217	30	

May					June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979					1979				
1980	56	140	21		1980	50	125	11	
1981	40	161	13		1981	56	129	9	
1982	36	122	13		1982	42	85	8	
1983	28	127	9		1983	46	117	13	
1984	21	183	12		1984	22	104	8	
1985	106	197	16	30	1985	13	133	10	25
1986	49	216	19	75	1986	37	160	26	86
1987	21	228	22	110	1987	18	152	22	69
1988	48	176	15	58	1988	13	117	12	65
1989	37	251	23	53	1989	10	180	11	67
1990	14	92	15		1990	22	127	17	

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Sewree (A6)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

Year	July			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	110	176	9	
1981	33	115	13	
1982	36	76	8	
1983	13	107	13	
1984	57	101	11	
1985	29	130	13	102
1986	49	171	22	89
1987	26	123	16	43
1988	18	104	19	30
1989	27	96	21	62
1990	20	126	16	

Year	August			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	115	255	8	
1981	28	111	11	
1982	24	107	13	
1983	39	125	16	
1984	56	142	10	
1985	39	175	12	45
1986	73	133	25	88
1987	25	132	22	82
1988	25	89	20	32
1989	40	98	27	43
1990				

Year	September			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	79	160	10	
1981	28	87	18	
1982	15	94	16	
1983	20	95	13	
1984	42	112	17	
1985				
1986	46	120	33	87
1987	24	91	18	100
1988	21	83	19	22
1989	39	137	22	49

Year	October			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	76	294	20	
1981	47	116	26	
1982	66	93	38	
1983	23	106	20	
1984	36	200	32	
1985	23	130	19	126
1986	20	179	38	62
1987	25	187	27	117
1988	28	174	36	42
1989	40	188	50	84

Year	November			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	76	263	26	
1981	59	171	26	
1982	36	110	33	
1983	37	136	42	
1984	41	199	44	
1985	62	257	44	229
1986	20	247	47	147
1987	14	196	41	155
1988	43	174	40	67
1989	29	176	38	106

Year	December			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	50	267	36	
1981	60	190	41	
1982	58	161	46	
1983	54	251	51	
1984	58	254	42	
1985	49	285	30	109
1986	26	266	64	245
1987	16	208	40	81
1988	33	259	69	57
1989	24	236	59	94

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Sion (A7)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

Year	January			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980				
1981	49	303	48	
1982	34	354	39	
1983	82	342	51	
1984	48	304	69	
1985	83	374	137	83
1986	41	363	65	97
1987	33	412	74	123
1988	32	428	128	87
1989				
1990	43	527	127	

Year	February			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980				
1981	71	421	50	
1982	44	236	31	
1983	47	249	43	
1984	49	308	55	
1985	50	365	80	72
1986	33	352	63	65
1987	18	432	77	100
1988	23	360	86	70
1989				
1990	26	522	121	

Year	March			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980				
1981	50	275	40	
1982	34	331	23	
1983	29	229	38	
1984	63	301	50	
1985	46	267	49	50
1986	33	363	40	50
1987	10	365	51	89
1988	14	417	63	45
1989				
1990	12	300	77	

Year	April			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980				
1981	32	277	25	
1982	16	189	17	
1983	29	146	22	
1984	21	302	26	
1985	38	234	39	119
1986	27	279	34	89
1987	9	283	40	73
1988	24	349	42	62
1989				
1990	11	284	65	

Year	May			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980				
1981	11	182	14	
1982	18	193	15	
1983	17	122	14	
1984	9	165	20	
1985	30	273	19	20
1986	22	245	26	47
1987	14	291	39	49
1988	23	249	42	56
1989				
1990	11	249	30	

Year	June			
	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	26	100	31	
1981	12	310	10	
1982	13	318	10	
1983	31	129	13	
1984	24	134	12	
1985	16	103	25	22
1986	22	196	28	64
1987	8	151	28	64
1988	7	197	29	79
1989				
1990	7	201	32	

*Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Sion (A7)*Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	12	171	9	
1981	16	235	15	
1982	13	103	10	
1983	15	89	17	
1984	20	101	14	
1985	10	251	17	20
1986	8	206	20	66
1987	8	163	30	86
1988				
1989				
1990	7	173	25	

August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	17	127	9	
1981	11	102	11	
1982	8	105	11	
1983	15	107	20	
1984	33	148	20	
1985	48	163	28	20
1986	12	145	19	98
1987	7	124	25	86
1988				
1989				
1990				

September				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	24	98	10	
1981	31	115	21	
1982	19	135	24	
1983	20	87	20	
1984	24	122	27	
1985				
1986	17	185	39	64
1987	7	182	45	92
1988				
1989				

October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	50	253	20	
1981	71	178	35	
1982	61	213	53	
1983	41	211	33	
1984	34	214	50	
1985	48	281	41	54
1986	31	278	52	102
1987	18	299	63	89
1988				
1989				

November				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	65	283	32	
1981	72	214	44	
1982	66	219	54	
1983	66	198	47	
1984	56	269	61	
1985	76	362	57	230
1986	53	324	62	94
1987	15	264	83	90
1988				
1989				

December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979				
1980	65	317	52	
1981	73	264	43	
1982	81	262	69	
1983	66	358	66	
1984	41			
1985	21	489	80	98
1986		336	62	110
1987	30	290	62	53
1988				
1989		405	81	54

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Santacruz (A9)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	34	181	23		1978	52	206	23	
1979	28	261	8		1979	28	163	9	
1980	46	297	27		1980	44	348	21	
1981	44	241	43		1981	52	304	34	
1982	53	233	39		1982	33	191	26	
1983	37	224	26		1983	24	270	23	
1984	48	309	49		1984	51	250	35	
1985	41	267	44		1985	26	266	35	
1986	26	271	36	50	1986	18	278	24	35
1987	32	350	49	92	1987	11	351	53	13
1988	21	424	87	89	1988	14	375	78	77
1989	8	339	58	76	1989	8	267	44	30

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	25	226	40		1978	29	164	5	
1979	24	205	14		1979	14	173	11	
1980	29	258	17		1980	14	215	9	
1981	30	189	23		1981	20	158	12	
1982	39	203	26		1982	8	144	10	
1983	9	194	11		1983	9	164	10	
1984	47	237	30		1984	16	183	12	
1985	31	301	53	58	1985	27	241	16	72
1986	18	357	26	136	1986	18	243	24	75
1987	6	326	28	26	1987	6	294	25	128
1988	7	403	22	39	1988	13	334	18	108
1989	7	381	31	53	1989	6	293	24	81

May					June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	18	129	5		1978	35	134	9	
1979	16	163	8		1979	8	456	6	
1980	10	12	9		1980	10	112	9	
1981	7	129	6		1981	7	137	5	
1982	7	137	7		1982	9	94	10	
1983	7	91	9		1983	11	127	11	
1984	8	132	7		1984	10	119	6	
1985	12	145	8	44	1985	7	128	7	29
1986	18	172	24	117	1986	22	211	24	83
1987	6	227	17	64	1987	6	166	25	68
1988	18	246	8	88	1988				

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Santacruz (A9)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July					August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	15	135	6		1978	8	118	6	
1979	6	133	6		1979	7	149	6	
1980	6	108	5		1980	8	168	5	
1981	6	113	5		1981	6	64	5	
1982	7	61	7		1982	7	84	7	
1983	10	136	9		1983	16	101	24	
1984	9	119	7		1984	18	125	5	
1985	7	129	8	41	1985	8	156	9	29
1986	6	190	9	20	1986				
1987	8	160	8	49	1987	6	120	11	64
1988	6	138	6	45	1988	6	144	20	20
1989					1989				

September					October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	30	88	9		1978	36	189	11	
1979	16	136	8		1979	34	170	15	
1980	18	78	7		1980	44	153	15	
1981	22	82	14		1981	57	124	29	
1982	19	88	20		1982	27	182	42	
1983	15	45	27		1983	39	243	31	
1984	15	105	17		1984	12	196	14	
1985					1985	36	222	31	50
1986					1986				
1987	8	151	20	64	1987	22	270	47	69
1988	7	89	11	27	1988	10	287	49	20

November					December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	42	235	14		1978	39	265	8	
1979	46	154	24		1979	49	208	23	
1980	48	164	23		1980	49	204	45	
1981	62	140	36		1981	46	228	38	
1982	26	128	42		1982	64	215	60	
1983	51	267	35		1983	89	355	59	
1984	49	226	40		1984	49	280	52	
1985	48	356	38	122	1985	44	411	51	34
1986	36	337	62	64	1986	40	356	64	234
1987	8	254	46	49	1987	24	352	80	71
1988	45	322	66	27	1988	18	355	60	50

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Sakinaka (A11)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	69	387	22		1980	41	352	14	
1981	61	233	29		1981	67	358	34	
1982	73	233	36		1982	17	228	44	
1983	89	385	41		1983	58	320	31	
1984	118	298	59		1984				
1985	60	314	33		1985	32	266	19	
1986					1986	32	384	37	55
1987	25	438	30	156	1987	16	341	30	115
1988	19	380	37	106	1988	30	365	43	78
1989	26	393	63	28	1989	22	389	42	29
1990	33	487	55		1990	23	353	43	

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979					1979	31	229	20	
1980	23	285	12		1980	43	262	17	
1981	48	266	21		1981	37	325	18	
1982	58	337	24		1982	38	163	22	
1983	21	311	16		1983	46	244	26	
1984					1984				
1985	25	351	37	41	1985	34	244	16	133
1986	37	384	27	53	1986	43	346	28	91
1987	13	465	28	103	1987	7	308	22	79
1988	20	340	31	46	1988	22	430	32	53
1989	14	366	48	39	1989	15	356	38	72
1990	12	323	28		1990	8	328	28	

May					June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	17	251	16		1979	14	140	15	
1980	28	153	11		1980	43	119	16	
1981	17	200	8		1981	55	145	8	
1982	14	230	18		1982	28	114	8	
1983	33	159	17		1983	27	182	11	
1984					1984				
1985	20	229	11	31	1985				
1986	25	257	18	69	1986	17	147	21	67
1987	20	234	24	31	1987	7	161	25	41
1988	18	241	25	56	1988	9	172	30	62
1989	15	308	26	20	1989	8	208	26	37
1990	9	212	17		1990	6	174	21	

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Sakinaka (A11)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July					August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	30	133	15		1979	25	167	10	
1980	6	110	6		1980	27	121	7	
1981	19	134	10		1981	9	124	7	
1982	34	107	17		1982	12	106	9	
1983	12	86	14		1983	19	151	19	
1984					1984	17	166	12	
1985					1985				
1986	8	170	14	58	1986	23	129	19	53
1987	7	148	21	46	1987	7	108	29	88
1988	8	126	28	25	1988	6	176	19	29
1989	6	127	15	58	1989	6	128	27	38
1990	6	152	24		1990				

September					October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	67	94	20		1979	69	209	18	
1980	52	91	9		1980	73	185	12	
1981	55	105	14		1981	95	146	17	
1982	38	143	24		1982	81	210	62	
1983	27	121	25		1983	39	162	23	
1984	18	125	18		1984	65	41	33	
1985					1985				
1986	43	180	28	52	1986	49	329	33	104
1987	9	154	15	81	1987	22	266	31	53
1988	10	130	28	28	1988	28	241	43	26
1989	27	182	27	55	1989	31	200	32	57

November					December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	82	198	18		1979	65	311	23	
1980	67	180	20		1980	91	237	27	
1981	99	173	37		1981	102	230	23	
1982	121	223	41		1982	110	340	51	
1983	67	221	33		1983	76	316	39	
1984	59	262	30		1984	36	267	26	
1985					1985	50	332	18	66
1986	30	303	30	71	1986	38	384	25	92
1987	23	280	31	55	1987	48	447	39	71
1988	51	295	53	34	1988	29	349	48	50
1989	24	292	39	44	1989	29	416	51	51

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Ghatkopar (A13)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	72	304	11		1979	71	288	8	
1980	100	452	27		1980	67	327	30	
1981	96	246	35		1981	137	300	49	
1982	102	216	30		1982	46	281	22	
1983	140	286	52		1983	67	253	32	
1984	78	400	58		1984	69	391	41	
1985	33	349	53		1985	57	339	31	
1986	75	480	51	66	1986	35	433	48	48
1987	52	438	69	156	1987	52	505	47	131
1988	32	445	63	86	1988	34	350	40	86
1989	40	364	59	57	1989	39	471	64	73
1990	38	498	58		1990	37	468	70	

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	75	355	8		1979	38	279	12	
1980	73	416	28		1980	60	277	19	
1981	54	243	21		1981	48	365	22	
1982	49	269	22		1982	24	217	15	
1983	56	290	39		1983	31	196	21	
1984	46	372	36		1984	10	280	27	
1985	105	311	45		1985				
1986	46	428	45	66	1986	44	407	35	136
1987	21	438	26	135	1987	7	312	29	142
1988	47	225	40	39	1988	27	491	23	67
1989	19	437	37	60	1989	19	343	30	84
1990	10	329	65		1990	11	339	26	

May					June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	15	322	16		1979	15	140	16	
1980	45	183	12		1980	29	129	14	
1981	10	191	14		1981	9	163	7	
1982	19	140	18		1982	18	101	8	
1983	29	181	13		1983	22	107	14	
1984	12	267	23		1984	12	121	12	
1985					1985				
1986	32	343	25	73	1986	13	172	17	82
1987	7	266	20	111	1987	6	122	18	134
1988	21	265	23	59	1988	7	223	71	108
1989	25	312	33	60	1989	13	366	17	56
1990	7	216	19		1990	6	153	25	

*Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Ghatkopar (A13)*Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July					August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	11	143	12		1979	10	178	10	
1980	9	116	6		1980	32	78	8	
1981	9	82	9		1981	7	88	7	
1982	14	105	9		1982	9	79	18	
1983	11	110	18		1983	17	160	22	
1984	7	98	13		1984	14	112	13	
1985					1985				
1986	6	211	14	51	1986	26	148	26	63
1987	6	130	17	50	1987	6	98	22	69
1988	6	104	20	53	1988	6	122	14	21
1989	9	128	21	55	1989	7	97	22	32
1990	6	117	11		1990				

September					October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	40	325	9		1978	34	211	10	
1979	78	184	16		1979	100	211	21	
1980	60	97	10		1980	64	209	17	
1981	51	101	17		1981	84	131	22	
1982	19	112	17		1982	83	215	51	
1983	16	97	22		1983	81		31	
1984	19	141	20		1984	19	162	24	
1985					1985				
1986	37	135	38	57	1986	33	308	39	46
1987	9	167	18	67	1987	15	237	34	90
1988	11	113	28	22	1988	64	294	53	25
1989	28	145	29	33	1989	82	255	37	55

November					December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	35	245	10		1978	60	295	8	
1979	106	154	27		1979	91	249	32	
1980	83	207	22		1980	99	259	36	
1981	81	154	31		1981	100	218	18	
1982	92	218	45		1982	125	315	55	
1983	73	345	51		1983	102	287	60	
1984	48	203	33		1984	73	311	41	
1985					1985	47	431	48	166
1986					1986	66	408	55	177
1987	27	276	41	45	1987	43	337	48	43
1988	88	334	67	23	1988	50	397	64	53
1989	61	323	59	66	1989	51	398	58	61

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Mulund (A15)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981	96	267	31		1981	143	399	35	
1982	92	252	26		1982	99	281	23	
1983	136	290	30		1983	94	332	30	
1984	125	387	61		1984	73	319	33	
1985	52	334	25		1985	21	361	16	
1986	41	385	29	80	1986	27	382	29	50
1987	32	405	43	96	1987	24	362	22	87
1988	41	361	31	76	1988	34	382	31	83
1989	58	363	57	85	1989	47	389	58	83
1990	55	432	39		1990	45	357	39	

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1981	83	248	26		1981	47	361	14	
1982	53	252	18		1982	25	175	24	
1983	44	317	28		1983	17	223	14	
1984	31	320	20		1984	14	266	21	
1985	125	345	30	20	1985	100	231	19	154
1986	36	341	30	93	1986	33	297	20	89
1987	11	345	24	165	1987	23	371	17	118
1988	29	331	20	53	1988	26	339	16	62
1989	15	306	35	35	1989	16	214	20	47
1990	19	309	46		1990	11	259	28	

May					June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979					1979				
1980					1980	27	78	12	
1981	20	170	11		1981	10	140	6	
1982	33	178	16		1982	20	89	6	
1983	15	176	10		1983	10	138	12	
1984					1984	16	122	9	
1985	28	202	10	20	1985	17	155	9	20
1986	14	269	16	49	1986	22	165	12	56
1987	16	218	20	138	1987	9	122	15	38
1988	26	209	9	73	1988	8	130	16	41
1989	34	280	21	61	1989	6	129	24	20
1990	8	183	13		1990		134	14	

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Mulund (A15)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July					August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	7	150	6		1980	29	102	7	
1981	10	83	5		1981	13	75	6	
1982					1982	8	82	9	
1983	8	143	9		1983	16	105	26	
1984	6	10	9		1984	12	125	9	
1985	7	5	7	65	1985	9	141	9	39
1986	8	100	8	54	1986	9	135	11	54
1987	9	166	16	70	1987	8	90	16	60
1988	6	112	8	40	1988	9	113	15	28
1989	10	110	21	52	1989	8	112	15	45
1990	6	105	19		1990				
1991		152			1991				

September					October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	62	110	10		1980	125	196	16	
1981	48	96	10		1981	116	102	15	
1982	42	150	19		1982	139	225	50	
1983	9	86	19		1983	44	104	31	
1984	14	133	13		1984	20	231	27	
1985					1985	55	198	18	20
1986	11	161	19	51	1986	28	289	21	93
1987	19	195	18	89	1987	29	264	32	70
1988	16	85	19	21	1988	46	190	36	25
1989	22	112	30	29	1989	31	179	32	33

November					December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1980	122	216	24		1980	129	302	38	
1981	103	160	30		1981	112	188	30	
1982	181	221	49		1982	122	259	41	
1983	69	270	37		1983	98	298	52	
1984	49	266	24		1984	49	310	18	
1985	69	379	16	34	1985	98	442	22	23
1986	36	347	30	59	1986	39	374	33	139
1987	22	305	29	61	1987	32	336	32	41
1988	70	332	47	21	1988	49	339	55	45
1989	49	232	35	29	1989	68	311	41	44

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Borivali (A16)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	9	214	4		1979	7	226	5	
1980	8	271	21		1980	7	278	19	
1981	7	230	21		1981	8	285	20	
1982	12	205	23		1982	13	244	20	
1983	31	283	24		1983	13	276	18	
1984	18	288	34		1984				
1985	13	341	32		1985	8	298	27	
1986	8	348	23	90	1986	8	373	31	57
1987	8	320	39	103	1987	7	352	40	138
1988	7	440	38	68	1988	11	408	42	57
1989	6	374	61	73	1989	9	310	32	42
1990	10	503	68		1990	8	381	38	
1991					1991	11			

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	8	208	5		1979	6	140		
1980	14	283	15		1980	18	257	13	
1981	9	244	18		1981	9	238	9	
1982	10	240	25		1982	9	164	12	
1983	11	180	14		1983	12	182	12	
1984	13	216	19		1984	10	179	11	
1985	13	282	27	46	1985	10	218	13	136
1986	13	431	28	67	1986	22	331	17	110
1987	6	287	15	67	1987	6	225	13	47
1988	11	295	18	45	1988	14	351	8	67
1989	8	256	22	69	1989	7	224	16	52
1990	7	314	27		1990	6	255	25	

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Tilaknagar (A17)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	63	271	28		1978	59	254	26	
1979	38	420	9		1979	50	458	9	
1980	56	404	34		1980	53	468	42	
1981	43	356	44		1981	94	539	68	
1982	47	198	35		1982	54	308	49	
1983	63	356	58		1983	64	235	34	
1984	81	417	83		1984	58	367	55	
1985	55	444	60		1985	61	478	65	214
1986	49	585	58	125	1986	37	512	51	124
1987	37	533	76	105	1987	22	608	63	100
1988	28	571	82	74	1988	32	541	76	77
1989	34	426	68	104	1989	32	316	66	99
1990	74	440	97		1990	45	362	77	

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	32	238	23		1978	45	273	14	
1979	30	398	11		1979	31	289	22	
1980	35	432	30		1980	37	368	27	
1981	43	325	45		1981	41	292	36	
1982	51	300	46		1982				
1983	41	282	34		1983	32	274	34	
1984	79	348	39		1984	54	283	49	
1985					1985	35	360	36	123
1986	51	428	48	160	1986	40	329	33	98
1987	16	529	43	122	1987	11	389	45	168
1988	31	513	49	64	1988	21	396	24	87
1989	17	443	40	66	1989				
1990	35	295	54		1990	22	250	27	

May					June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	54	265	10		1978	81	184	13	
1979	33	311	28		1979	22	231	12	
1980	15	193	21		1980	52	99	15	
1981	15	220	20		1981	9	156	14	
1982	26	275	23		1982	18	138	9	
1983	36	194	22		1983	19	132	18	
1984	18	309	24		1984	15	128	24	
1985	26	193	26	130	1985	11	151	22	33
1986	27	294	28		1986	26	199	36	131
1987	13	416	27	69	1987	9	232	43	155
1988	27	332	20	85	1988	6	230	37	96
1989				62	1989				
1990	14	193	19		1990				

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Tilaknagar (A17)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July					August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	94	207	9		1978	25	198	4	
1979	12	196	14		1979	49	201	14	
1980	11	105	12		1980	31	119	11	
1981	10	74	7		1981	6	104	9	
1982	27	100	13		1982	8	109	10	
1983	16	347	31		1983	19	124	23	
1984	17	67	16		1984	44	208	29	
1985	10	161	17	47	1985	18	146	21	59
1986	10	206	25	89	1986	8	128	22	64
1987	7	167	32	123	1987	7	154	29	171
1988	6	146	45	63	1988	7	151	24	26

September					October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	25	173	12		1978	30	235	12	
1979	55	224	22		1979	48	214	25	
1980	55	134	12		1980	51	259	23	
1981	20	116	19		1981	40	219	33	
1982	20	131	30		1982	61	279	78	
1983	22	87	18		1983	40	348	32	
1984	27	187	30		1984	61	256	65	
1985	51				1985	51	208	27	66
1986	30	265	37	57	1986	44	467	62	112
1987	9	260	33	124	1987	17	368	48	101
1988	13	139	48	51	1988	36	422	55	30

November					December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	26	297	12		1978	28	345	5	
1979	29	240	18		1979	29	216	22	
1980	51	306	29		1980	59	302	49	
1981	94	155	34		1981	59	219	28	
1982	45	283	66		1982	33	434	62	
1983	71	263	69		1983	87	412	68	
1984	86	367	61		1984	56	387	49	
1985	58	494	50	177	1985	52	466	35	93
1986	51	425	60	112	1986	54	457	58	74
1987	16	421	58	86	1987	48	392	57	41
1988	50	460	60	27	1988	40	474	88	52

*Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Chembur Naka (A18)*Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	42	322	52	
1980	71	348	28	
1981	52	274	38	
1982	62	255	48	
1983	71	334	44	
1984	62	324	54	
1985	47	358	50	20
1986	22	434	40	95
1987	15	388	35	83
1988	23	368	65	79
1989	28	435	82	64
1990	62	504	94	

February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	64	277	52	
1980	60	368	28	
1981	92	416	38	
1982	71	230	48	
1983	51	315	44	
1984	48	311	54	
1985	33	328	50	20
1986	21	374	40	95
1987	16	377	35	83
1988	39	389	65	79
1989	51	461	82	64
1990	29	455	94	

March				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	43	347	8	
1980	48	237	26	
1981	61	269	43	
1982	27	227	26	
1983	36	281	37	
1984	61	291	41	
1985	41	315	43	90
1986	29	406	49	116
1987	9	396	27	64
1988	23	296	50	50
1989	19	370	65	60
1990	21	333	69	

April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	29	185	23	
1980	37	193	19	
1981	19	241	23	
1982	18	170	25	
1983	26	217	26	
1984	22	242	35	
1985	33	225	34	115
1986	22	273	31	118
1987	12	358	43	113
1988	34	329	49	254
1989	22	292	47	95
1990	9	300	44	

May				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	9	190	18	
1980	16	142	12	
1981	9	199	18	
1982	25	166	30	
1983	24	171	26	
1984	12	197	23	
1985	52	200	31	119
1986	24	240	38	82
1987	17	293	244	113
1988	20	214	23	53
1989	18	249	34	107
1990	9	233	29	

June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	13	146	18	
1980	49	114	19	
1981	15	128	11	
1982	27	130	17	
1983	30	178	26	
1984	31	163	27	
1985	11	151	38	71
1986	14	147	34	94
1987	6	155	25	95
1988	15	191	53	227
1989	7	264	57	689
1990	7	170	42	

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Chembur Naka (A18)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July					August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1979	13	116	18		1979	29	226	16	
1980	14	151	8		1980	39	126	12	
1981	9	98	9		1981	11	401	12	
1982	19	113	26		1982	7	117	13	
1983	20	140	34		1983	11	203	31	
1984	29	149	23		1984	41	183	26	
1985	7	143	31	51	1985	9	169	29	55
1986	7	223	32	85	1986	8	144	24	61
1987	10	125	33	247	1987	8	111	19	177
1988	12	115	32	162	1988	13	148	39	34
1989	8	116	35	134	1989	9	134	31	129
1990	6	185	33		1990				

September					October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	26	201	8		1978	22	212	7	
1979	53	189	19		1979	63	145	23	
1980	52	96	11		1980	66	230	18	
1981	40	102	19		1981	58	123	30	
1982	27	124	24		1982	58	187	49	
1983	8	198	27		1983	26	216	30	
1984	39	150	32		1984	32	184	39	
1985	24	156	27	54	1985	28	233	31	25
1986	12	163	33	56	1986	22	369	64	154
1987	10	152	27	65	1987	16	259	49	133
1988	9	132	47	128	1988	33	261	62	48
1989	25	134	39	83	1989	45	207	51	46

November					December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	21		9		1978	38		9	
1979	45	95	26		1979	56	414	27	
1980	68	218	24		1980	81	236	38	
1981	43	130	36		1981	99	232	32	
1982	70	210	45		1982	68	258	51	
1983	36	340	42		1983	76	299	65	
1984	40	277	38		1984	58	336	43	
1985	37	361	33	105	1985	36	431	31	64
1986	17	299	37	124	1986	23	40	40	199
1987	23	258	48	77	1987	23	4227	49	82
1988	43	261	52	35	1988	37	369	71	44
1989	27	306	61	65	1989	27	323	60	61

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Aniknagar (A20)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

January					February				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	65	176	24		1978	81	237	4	
1979	47	206	5		1979	40	132	9	
1980	36	154	16		1980	53	249	21	
1981	25	160	18		1981	39	308	23	
1982	43	135	19		1982	24	171	11	
1983					1983				
1984	26	263	61		1984	23	391	43	
1985	37	332	59	152	1985	33	304	55	
1986	27	238	59	327	1986	30	352	42	156
1987	19	327	51	192	1987	22	318	50	320
1988	47	360	89	176	1988	62	287	61	120
1989					1989	39	348	63	205
1990	27	409	55		1990	40	3220	72	

March					April				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	27	190	18		1978	48	179	10	
1979	30	182	5		1979	27	166	15	
1980	30	220	16		1980	30	223	15	
1981	43	164	22		1981	31	183	11	
1982	86	169	18		1982				
1983					1983				
1984	65	261	45		1984	13	258	25	
1985					1985	46	272	38	141
1986	41	387	39	200	1986	40	297	46	154
1987	14	290	37	208	1987	17	345	23	145
1988	39	493	37	160	1988	32	267	19	140
1989	18	306	38	274	1989	22	236	41	181
1990	23	231	53		1990	24	256	32	

May					June				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃	Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	43	145	8		1978	105	233	11	
1979	43	205	17		1979	42	186	10	
1980	18	159	18		1980	68	156	11	
1981	28	126	14		1981				
1982					1982				
1983					1983				
1984	14	133	26		1984	29	154	17	
1985	34	193	24	84	1985	19	95	28	95
1986	27	332	28	102	1986	22	144	24	111
1987	9	202	28	265	1987	36	181	21	20
1988	23	194	19	137	1988	52	173	32	113
1989	18	257	27	115	1989	37	229	16	46
1990	9	90	18		1990	20	125	21	

Ambient Air Quality in Bombay Station: Aniknagar (A20)Units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

July				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	92	273	7	
1979	20	324	16	
1980	43	127	15	
1981	14	47	6	
1982	22	122	9	
1983				
1984	38	121	27	
1985	20	126	22	49
1986	11	134	22	72
1987	15	119	20	90
1988	33	97	27	51
1989	19	75	20	157
1990	27	141	27	

August				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	29	219	8	
1979	28	320	13	
1980	37	115	13	
1981	12	143	7	
1982	9	100	15	
1983	38	112	23	
1984	34	115	27	
1985	26	112	20	45
1986	15	113	19	84
1987	26	104	26	82
1988	15	136	21	34
1989	17	73	24	55
1990				

September				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	34	157	9	
1979	25	127	11	
1980	58	104	10	
1981	23	74	8	
1982	24	121	36	
1983	19	66	26	
1984	41	134	32	
1985				
1986	17	125	26	104
1987	16	190	31	199
1988	14	93	17	35
1989	38	110	26	67

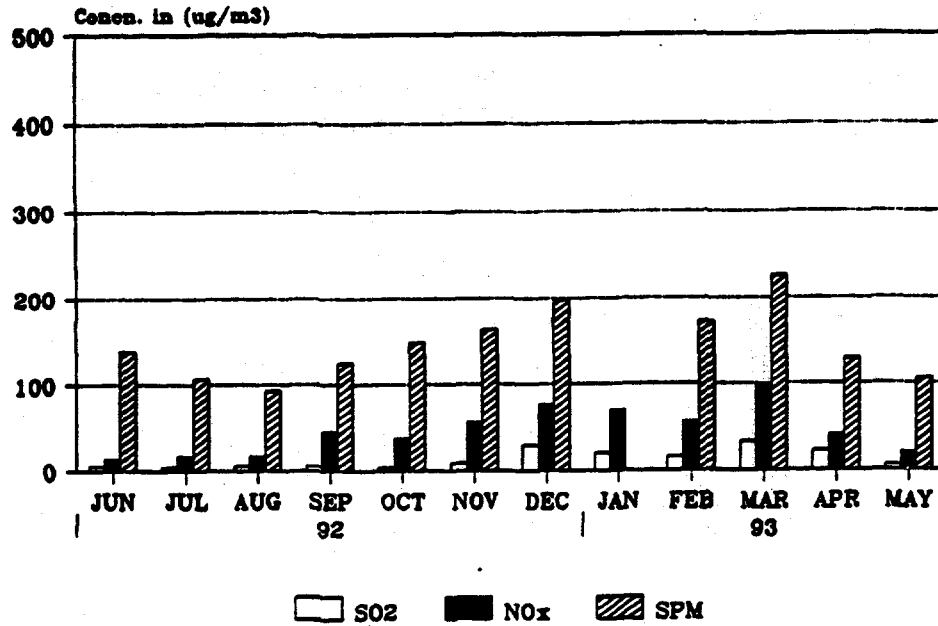
October				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	32	230	8	
1979	33	141	12	
1980	43	144	12	
1981	16	56	9	
1982	40	162	58	
1983	40	225	48	
1984	35	224	43	
1985	38	284	35	54
1986	36	245	53	175
1987	67	171	20	119
1988	28	171	35	42
1989	60	206	46	145

November				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	25	173	9	
1979	29	101	9	
1980	32	129	14	
1981	12	83	9	
1982				
1983	35		50	
1984	25	213	34	
1985	31	290	30	131
1986	23	249	34	154
1987	22	229	44	103
1988	51	270	54	23
1989	31	233	45	128

December				
Year	SO ₂	SPM	NO _x	NH ₃
1978	30	181	7	
1979	34	128	14	
1980	66	155	24	
1981	19	115	13	
1982				
1983	58	277	64	
1984	75	253	46	
1985	46	333	39	123
1986	29	266	53	196
1987	29	240	36	92
1988	34	256	49	33
1989	26	315	54	34

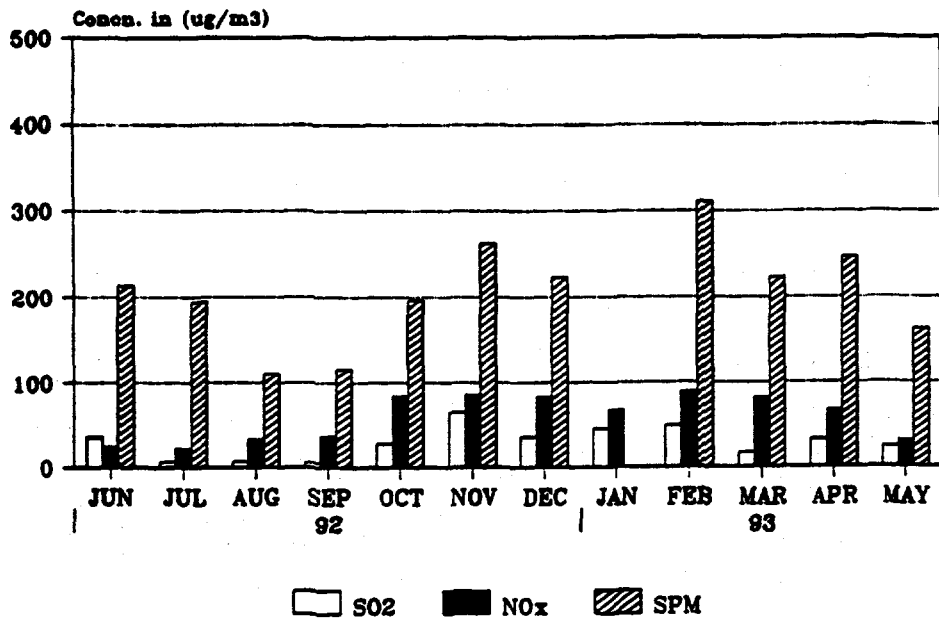
ANNEX III
MONTHLY AVERAGE SO₂, NO_x AND TSP AT MCGB AND GEMS (NEERI)
STATIONS, FOR THE URBAIR PERIOD JUNE 1992–MAY 1993

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - COLABA
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



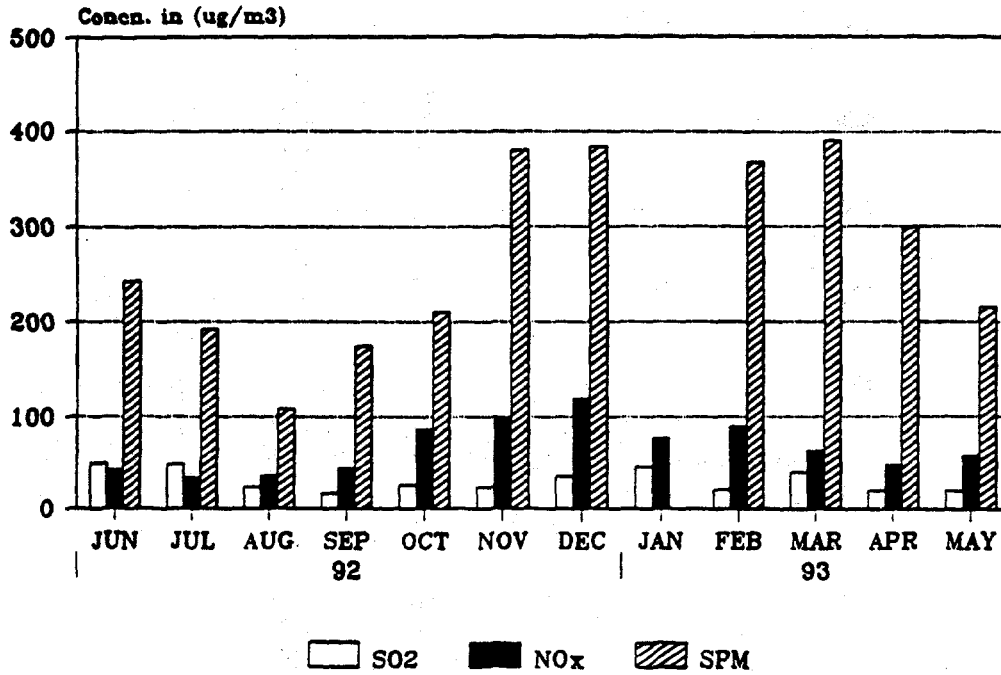
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - WORLI NAKA
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



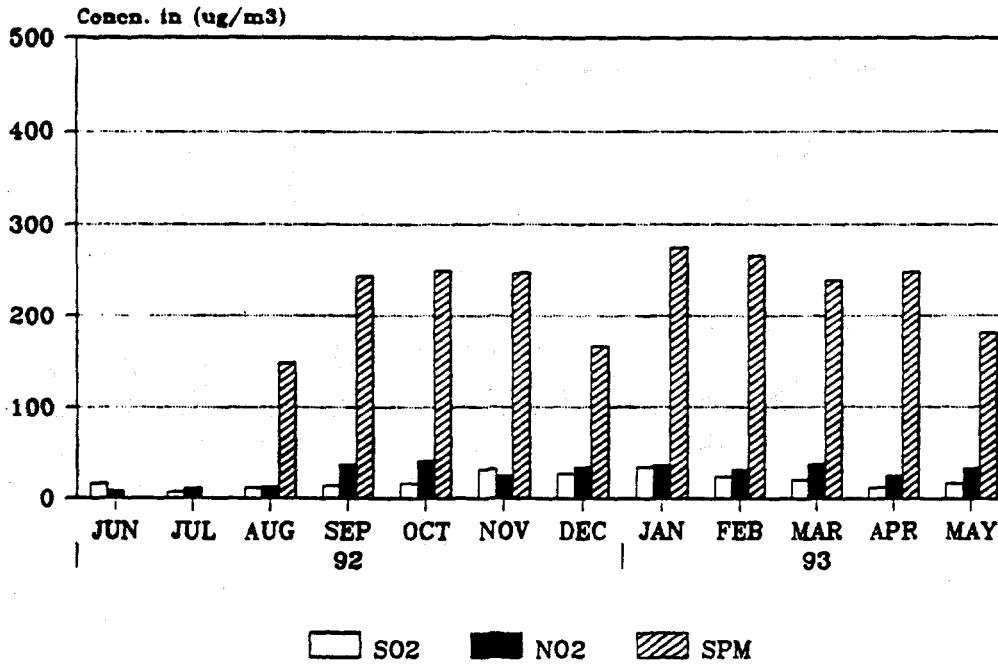
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - PAREL
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



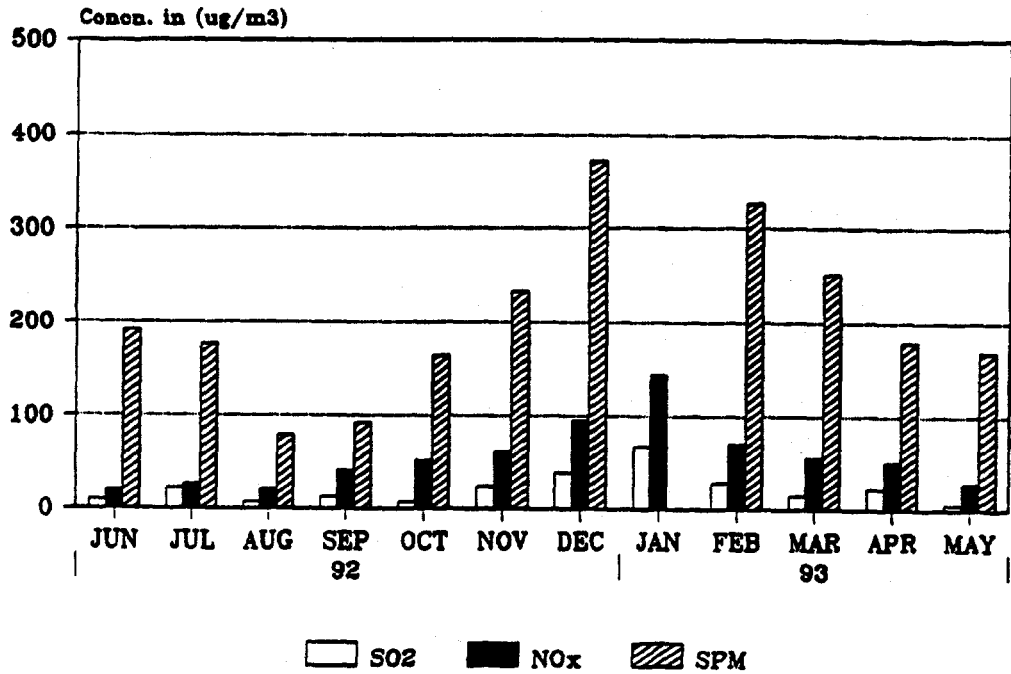
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - PAREL
 MONITORING AGENCY: NEERI (GEMS)



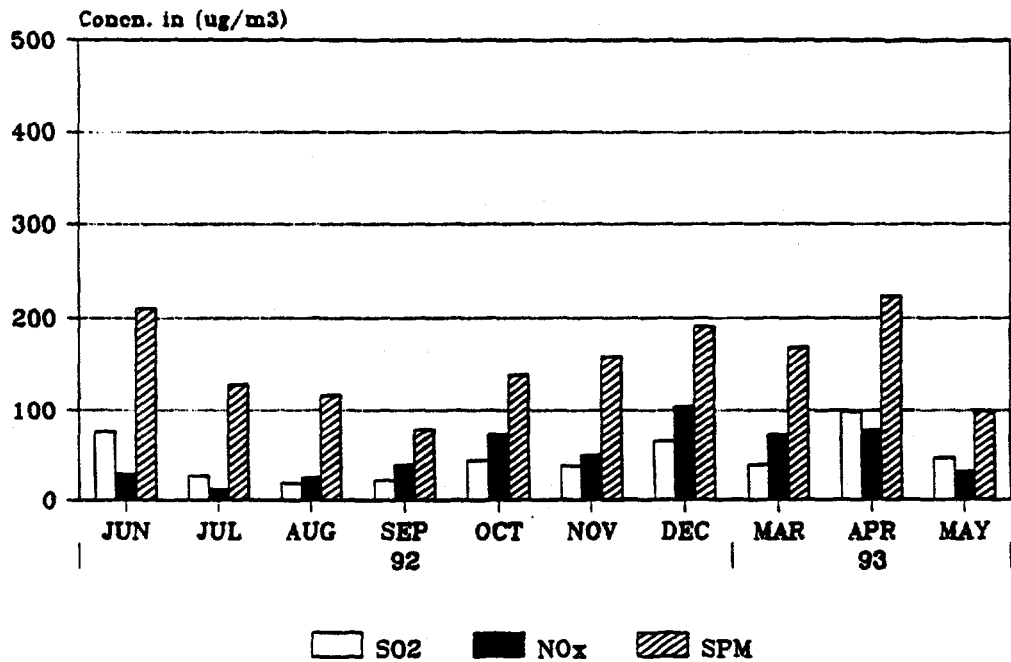
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - DADAR
MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



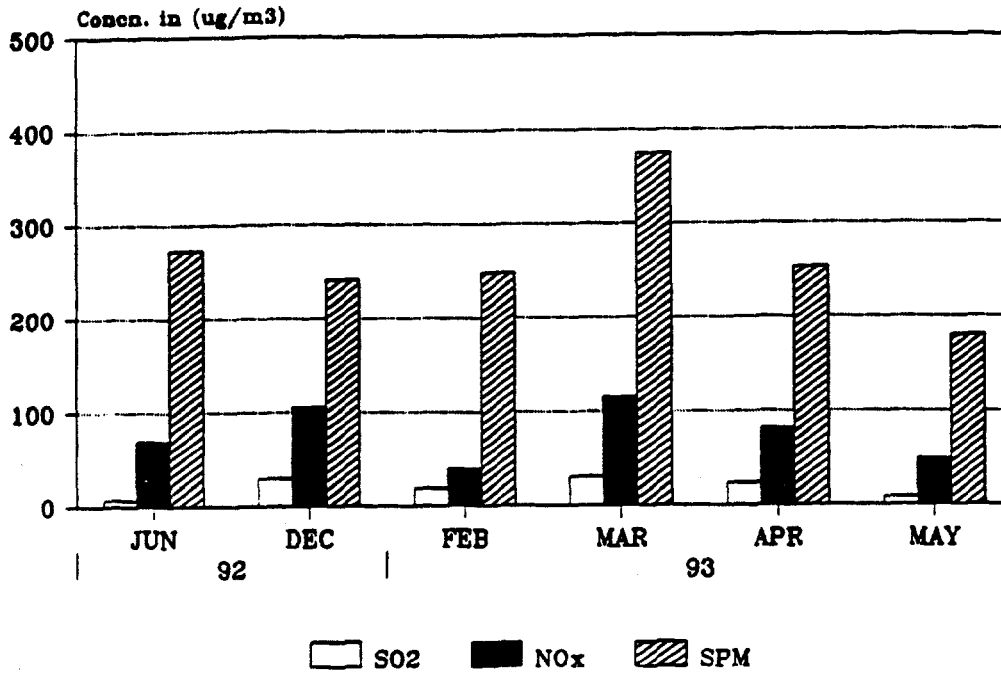
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - SEWREE
MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



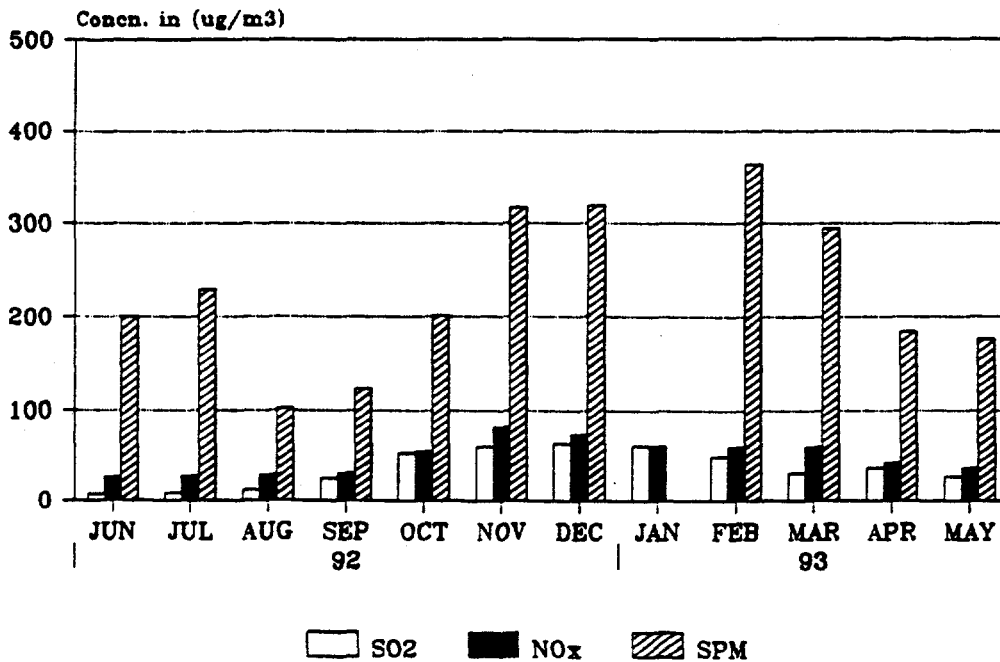
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - SION
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



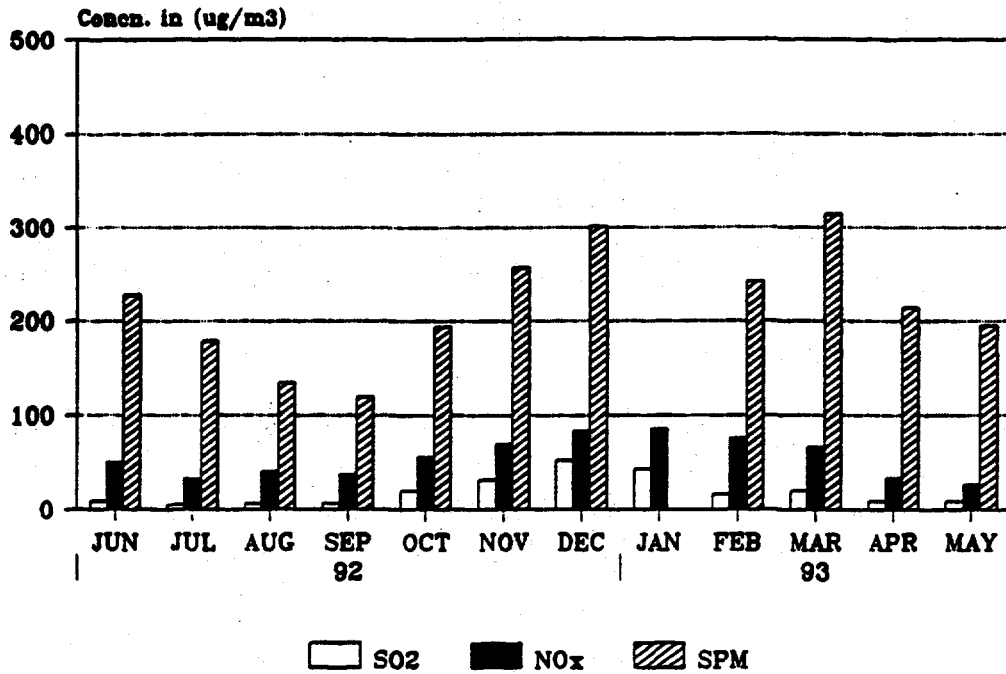
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - ANDHERI
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



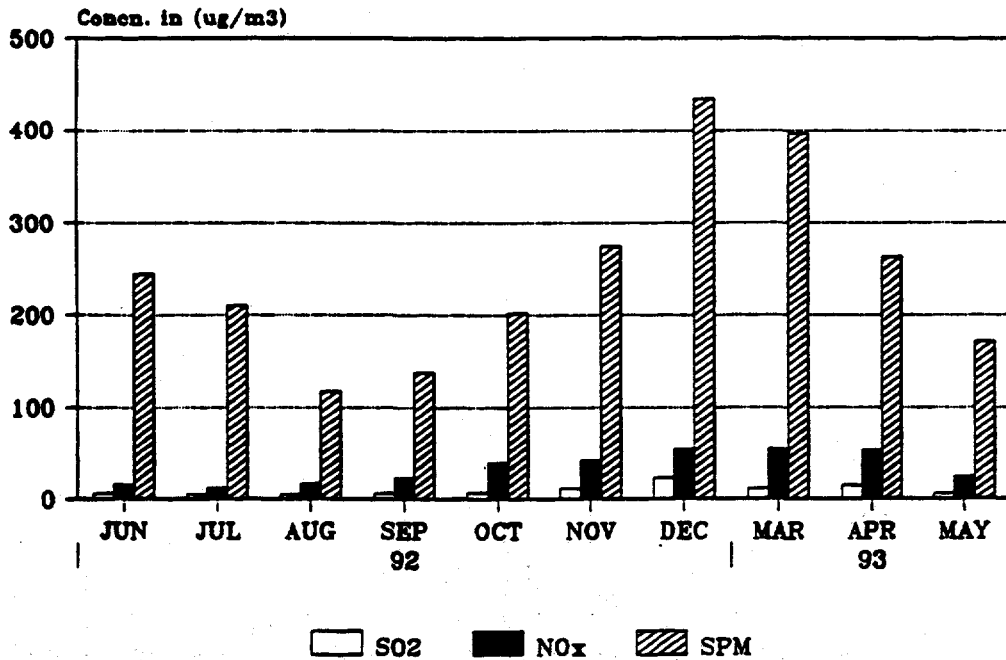
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - SAKI NAKA
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



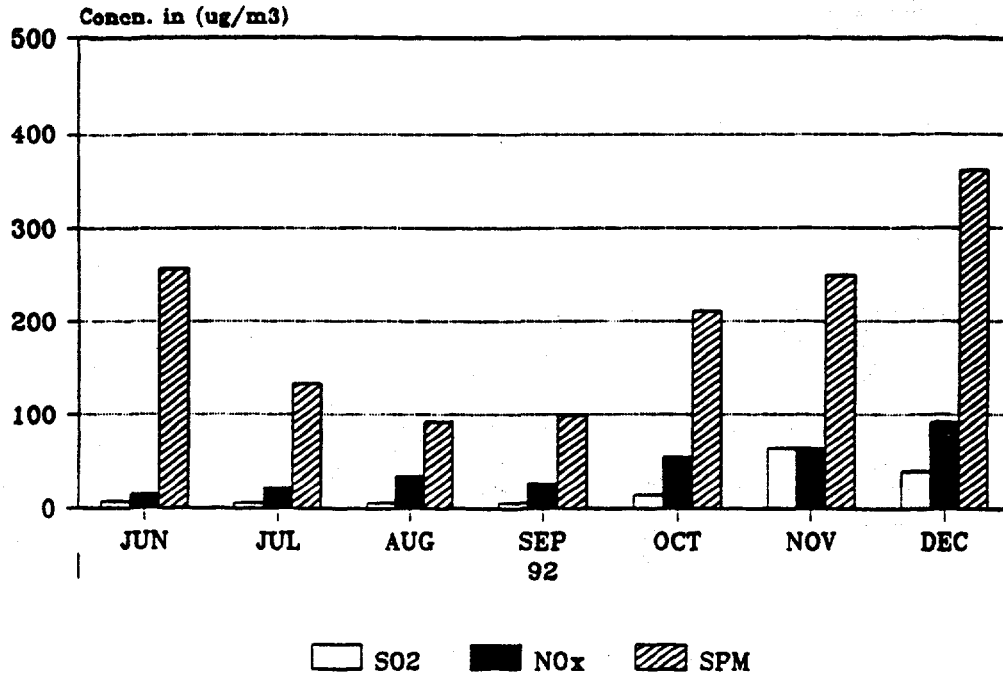
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - JOGESHWARI
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



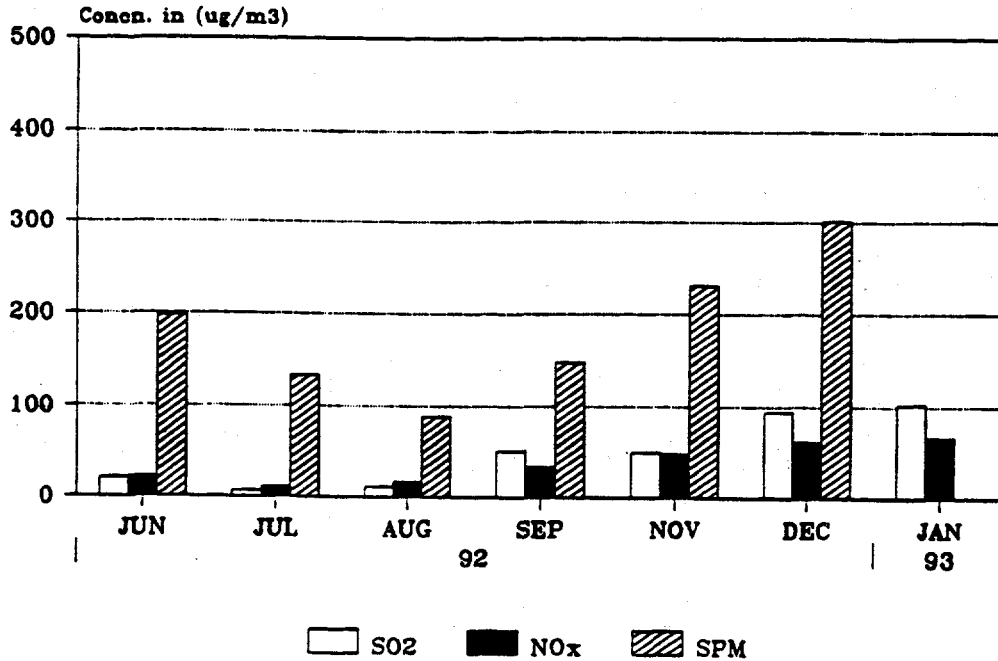
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - GHATKOPAR
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



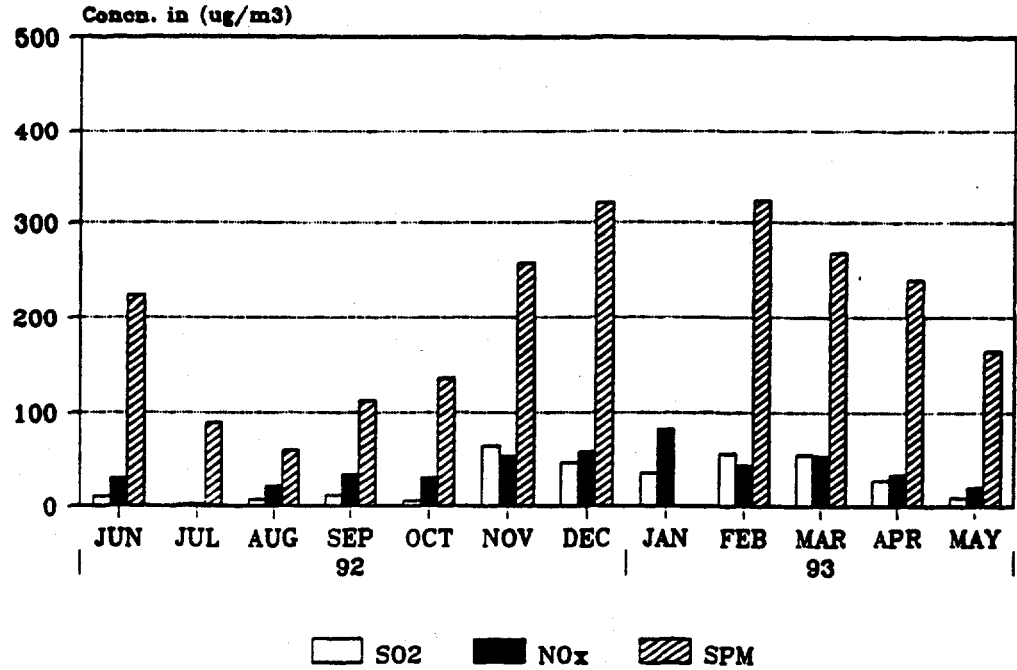
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - BHANDUP
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



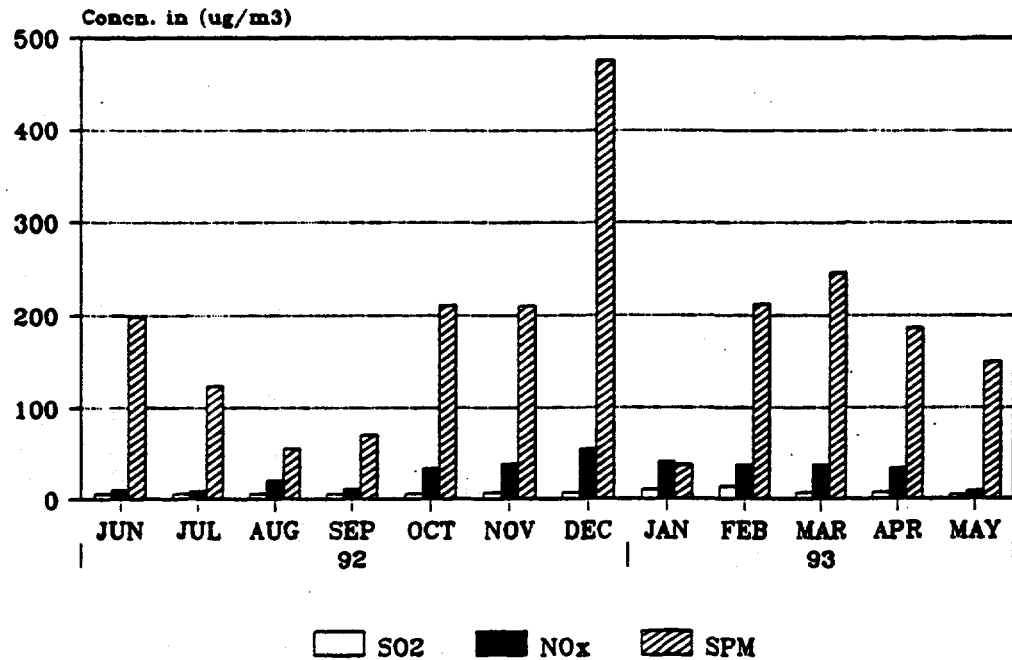
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - MULUND
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



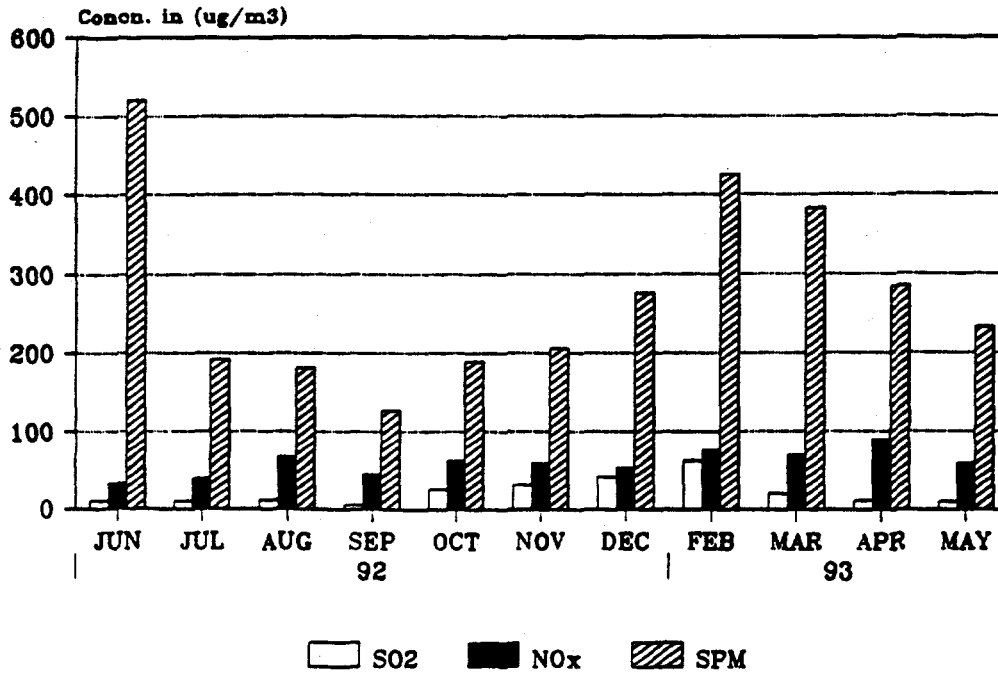
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - BORIVALI
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



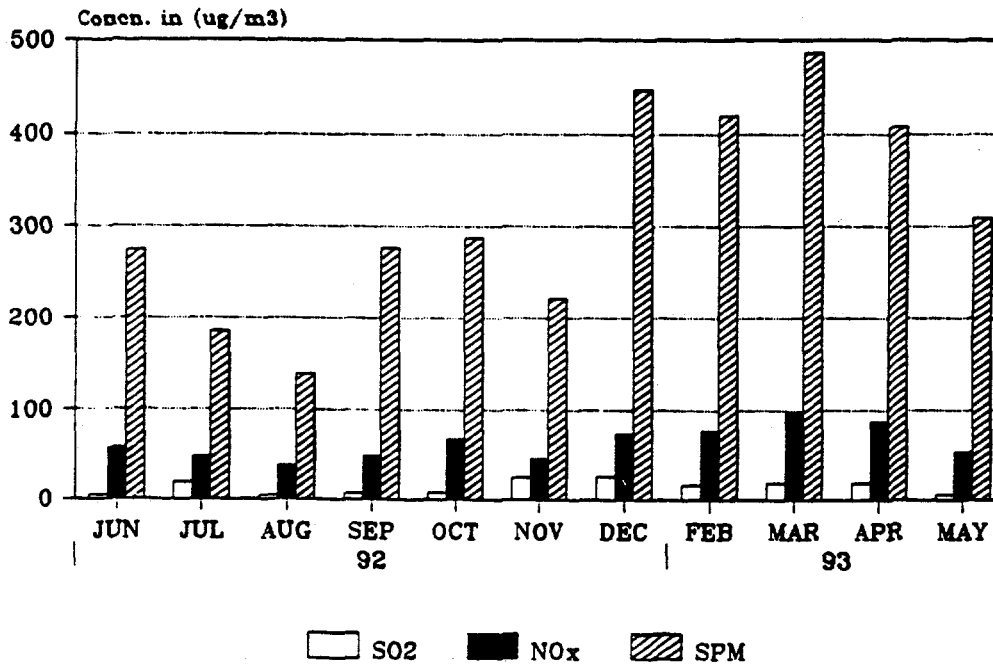
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - CHEMBUR NAKA
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



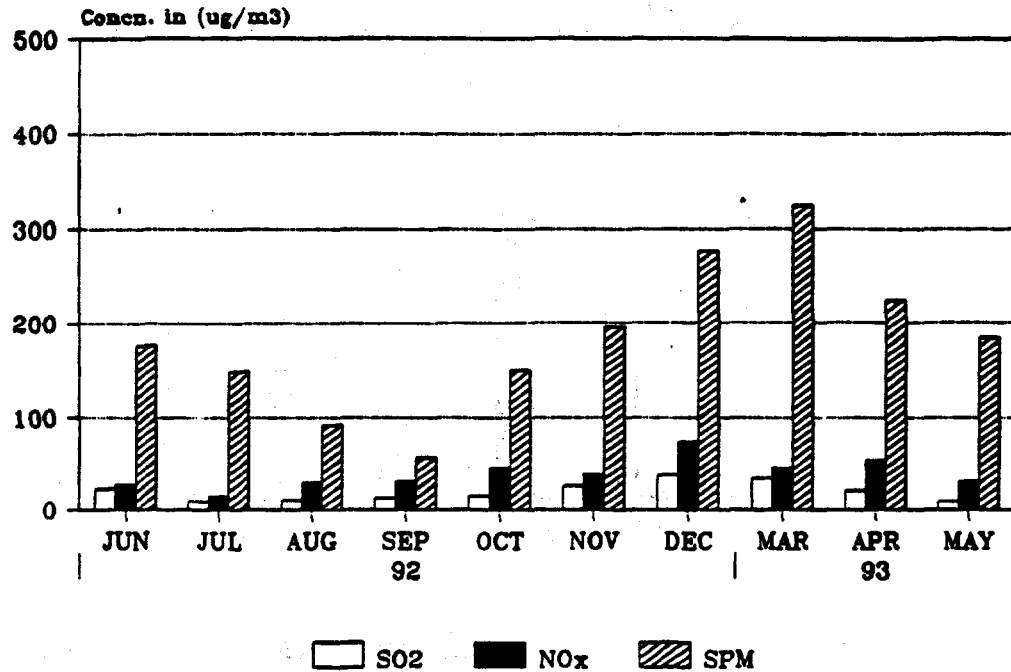
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - MARAVALI
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



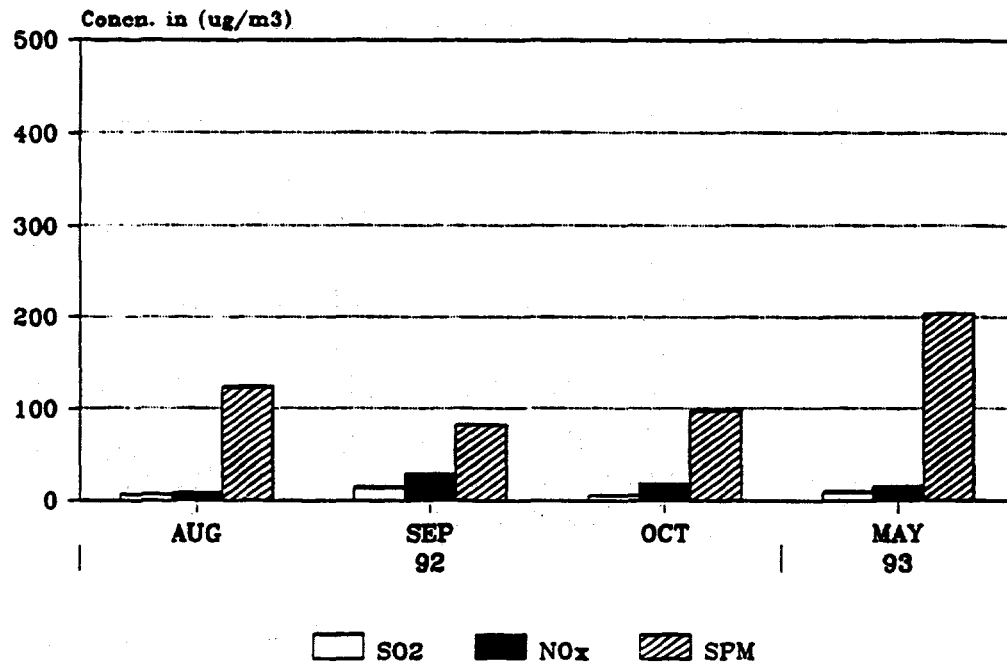
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - ANIKNAGAR
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



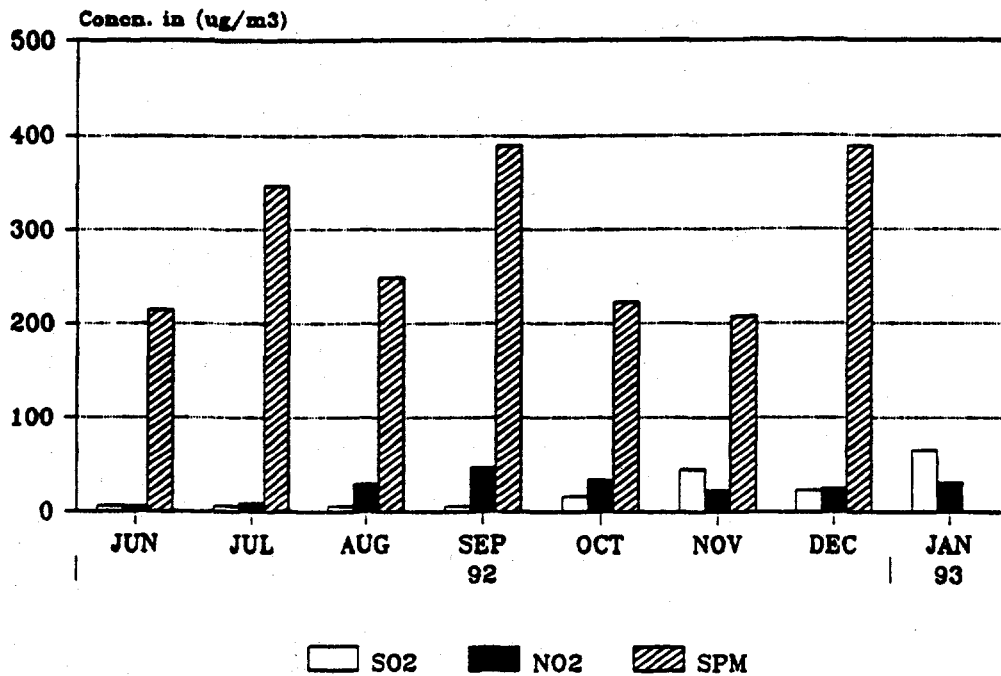
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - MAHUL
 MONITORING AGENCY: M.C.G.B.



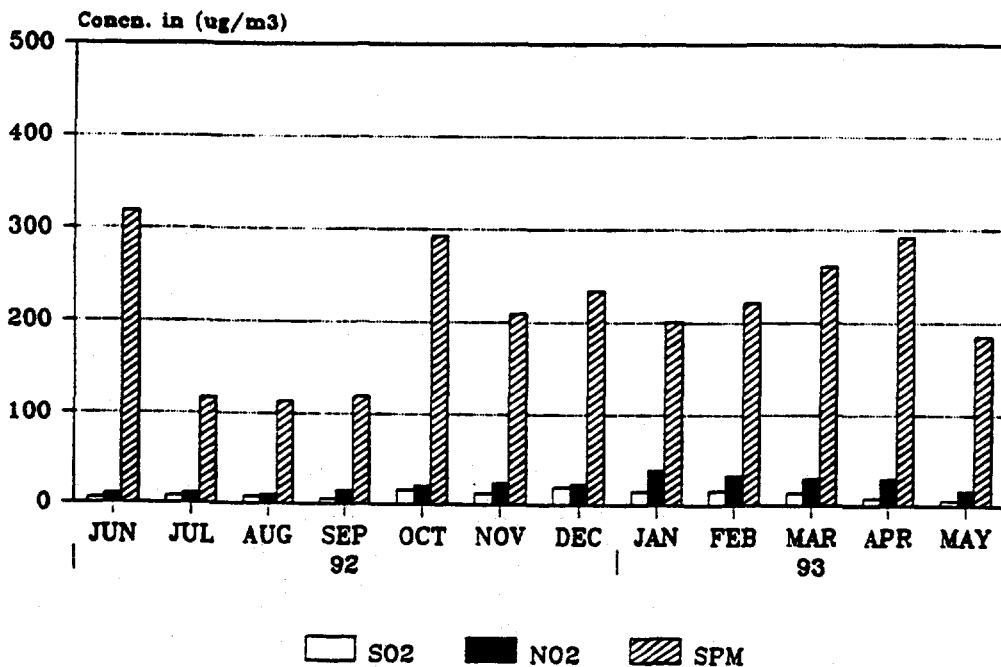
All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - BANDRA
 MONITORING AGENCY: NEERI



All values in Microgram/cu.m.

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY DATA - KALBADEVI
 MONITORING AGENCY: NEERI



All values in Microgram/cu.m.



APPENDIX 2
AIR QUALITY GUIDELINES

AIR QUALITY GUIDELINES

National ambient air quality standards in India. These were established in 1994 and are given in Table 1 below. The Indian Standards differentiate between Industrial, Residential and Sensitive areas. Bombay is considered an Industrial area. The Indian Standards for industrial areas are less restrictive than the WHO guidelines (Table 2) for SO₂ annual average, and especially for TSP and PM₁₀ (the WHO recommended guideline for PM₁₀ is 70 µg/m³, as 24 hour average). For NO₂, the Indian standards are stricter than WHO.

Table 1: National Ambient Air Quality Standards

Pollutants	Time weighted average	Concentration in ambient air			Method of measurements
		Industrial area	Residential, Rural and other areas	Sensitive of Area	
Sulfur Dioxide SO ₂	Annual average* 24 hours**	80 µg/ m ³	60 µg/m ³	15 µg/m ³	1. Improved West and Geake method 2. Ultraviolet fluorescence
Oxides of Nitrogen as NO ₂	Annual average*	120 µg/ m ³	80 µg/m ³	30 µg/m ³	1. Jacob & Hochheiser modified (Na-Arsenite) Method 2. Gas Phase Chemiluminescence
	24 hours*	80 µg/ m ³	60 µg/m ³	15 µg/m ³	
Suspended Particulate Matter (SPM)	Annual average*	120 µg/m ³	80 µg/m ³	30 µg/m ³	High Volume sampling, (Average flow rate not less than 1.1 m ³ /minute)
	24 hours**	360 µg/m ³	140 µg/m ³	70 µg/m ³	
Respirable matter (size less than 10 µm) (PM ₁₀)	Annual average*	500 µg/m ³	200 µg/m ³	100 µg/m ³	Respirable particulate matter sampler
	24 hours**	120 µg/m ³	60 µg/m ³	50 µg/m ³	
Lead (Pb)	Annual average*	150 µg/m ³	100 µg/m ³	75 µg/m ³	ASS method after sampling using PM 2000 or equivalent Filter paper
	24 hours**	1.0 µg/m ³	0.75 µg/m ³	0.50 µg/m ³	
Carbon Monoxide (CO)	8 hours**	1.5 µg/m ³	1.00 µg/m ³	0.75 µg/m ³	Non dispersive infrared spectroscopy
	1 hour	5.0 mg/m ³	2.0 mg/m ³	1.0 mg/m ³	
		10.0 mg m ³	4.0 mg/m ³	2.0 mg/ m ³	

* Annual Arithmetic mean of minimum 104 measurements in a year taken twice a week 24 hourly at uniform interval.

** 24 hourly/8 hourly values should be met 98% of the time in a year. However, 2% of the time, it may exceed but not on two consecutive days.

NOTE:

1. National Ambient Air Quality Standard: The levels of air quality with an adequate margin of safety, to protect the public health, vegetation and property.
2. Whenever two consecutive values exceed the limit specified above for the respective category, it would be considered adequate reason to institute regular/continuous monitoring and further investigations.
3. The State Government/State Board shall notify the sensitive and other areas in the respective states within a period of six months from the date of Notification of National Ambient Standards.

Table 2: WHO Air Quality Guidelines (WHO, 1977a, 1977b, 1978, 1979, 1987)

Parameter	10 minutes	15 minutes	30 minutes	1 hour	8 hours	24 hours	1 year	Year of standard
SO ₂ $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	500			350		125 ^a	50 ^a	1987
SO ₂ $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$						100-150	40-60	1979
BS ^b $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$						125 ^a	50 ^a	1987
BS ^b $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$						100-150	40-60	1979
TSP $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$						120 ^a		1987
TSP $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$						150-230	60-90	1979
PM ₁₀ $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$						70 ^a		1987
Lead $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$							0.5-1	1987, 1977 ^b
CO mg/m^3		100	60	30	10			1987
NO ₂ $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$				400		150		1987
NO ₂ $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$				190-320 ^c				1977 ^b
O ₃ $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$				150-200	100-120			1987
O ₃ $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$				100-200				1978

Notes:

- a) Guideline values for combined exposure to sulfur dioxide and suspended particulate matter (they may not apply to situations where only one of the components is present).
- b) Application of the black smoke value is recommended only in areas where coal smoke from domestic fires is the dominant component of the particulates. It does not necessarily apply where diesel smoke is an important contributor.
- c) Not to be exceeded more than once per month.

Suspended particulate matter measurement methods

BS = Black smoke; a concentration of a standard smoke with an equivalent reflectance reduction to that of the atmospheric particles as collected on a filter paper.

TSP = Total suspended particulate matter; the mass of collected particulate matter by gravimetric analysis divided by total volume sampled.

PM₁₀ = Particulate matter less than 10 μm in aerodynamic diameter; the mass of particulate matter collected by a sampler having an inlet with 50 per cent penetration at 10 μm aerodynamic diameter determined gravimetrically divided by the total volume sampled.

TP = Thoracic particles (as PM₁₀).

IP = Inhalable particles (as PM₁₀).

Source: (WHO/UNEP 1992)

APPENDIX 3

AIR POLLUTION LAWS AND REGULATIONS FOR INDIA AND BOMBAY

CONTENTS

1. Legal aspects of pollution control—operational requirements. A note prepared by Mr. U. Joglekar, ADITYA, Bombay
2. Mass emission standards for motor vehicles, effective from 1/4/1995
3. Fuel specifications for India

LEGAL ASPECTS OF POLLUTION CONTROL—OPERATIONAL REQUIREMENTS

The Government of India has promulgated 3 important Acts in the field of pollution control:

- i. The Water Pollution (Prevention & Control) Act, 1974.
- ii. The Air Pollution (Prevention & Control) Act, 1981.
- iii. The Environment Protection Act, 1986.

According to these Acts, industry-specific discharge/emission standards called MINAS (Minimum National Standards) have been prescribed. A few general standards as applicable to SSI units for air pollution are given in Annexure. All industries including SSI units are to comply with these standards and meet other stipulation laid down in these Acts. The responsibility of enforcing the provisions of these Acts rests with the Central/State Pollution Control Boards. Depending on the location of unit, the concerned State Boards expect that the units in their jurisdiction will obtain their permission to discharge the pollutants, or their 'CONSENT.'

The legal position, is that all the existing units are to obtain the CONSENT of their respective Boards. New units, even before they start putting up the industry, have to obtain a NOC (No Objection Certificate) from the Board. In fact, now, financial institutions and banks, too, demand production of NOCs before disbursement of loans even though the loans may have been sanctioned on the basis of the techno-economic feasibility of the project.

In order to obtain the NOC from a Pollution Control Board (PCB), application is to be made with a complete project-report, including the proposed measures of controlling pollution. Since, pollution control is site-specific, the PCBs also have to be apprised of proposed project site and, sometimes, depending on the need, Board may even ask for EIA (Environment Impact Assessment) reports for site clearance.

The Boards, because of fragile environmental condition, have declared some regions as sensitive. New industries, especially pollution-intensive types, may not be allowed in sensitive areas or may be prescribed much stricter standards. Proximity to protected monuments, national wildlife parks or sanctuaries could also be the reasons for industries to obtain a prior site-clearance.

Non-compliance with the legal stipulation invites prosecution with fines and penalties and even imprisonment. Under EPA 86 the PCBs are even empowered to order closure of an unit if they believe it to be in public interest. Without going to the court of law, they can implement closure decisions by approaching the authorities concerned directly to cut power and water supply to the violating units.

SALIENT FEATURES OF POLLUTION RELATED ACTS***The Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1981***

An Act to provide for the prevention, control and abatement of air pollution, given assent by the President of India on March 29, 1981.

The Act has the following chapters:

- I. Preliminary
- II. Central and State Boards for the Prevention and Control of Air Pollution
- III. Powers and Functions of Boards
- IV. Prevention and Control of Air Pollution
- V. Fund, Accounts and Audit
- VI. Penalties and procedure
- VII. Miscellaneous

Salient features

This Act is applicable to the whole of India.

Central and State Boards for the prevention and control of air pollution***Constitution of State Board:***

- a. The State Government will appoint a Chairman, member representing institutions, industries, government departments and social bodies etc. and a member secretary as executive head.
- b. In union territory Central Board is to act as State Boards.
- c. The Board may appoint officers and other employees as it may fit for efficient functioning of the Board.

Functions of Central Board:

- a. Advise the Central Government on any matter concerning the improvement of the quality of air and the prevention and control of abatement of air pollution,
- b. Plan the nation-wide programme for air pollution abatement,
- c. Coordinate the activities of State Boards,
- d. Provide guidance and technical assistance to the State Boards,
- e. Plan and organize training of persons engaged in air pollution abatement programmes,
- f. Organize through media abatement plans,
- g. Collect, compile, and publish technical and statistical data relating to air pollution,
- h. Lay down standards for the quality of air,
- i. To establish and recognize a laboratory to enable it to perform its function under this Act.

Functions of State Boards:

- a. to plan comprehensive programmes for air pollution abatement,
- b. to advise the State Government on any matter concerning the air pollution abatement,
- c. to collaborate with Central Board,
- d. to collect and disseminate information relating to air pollution,
- e. to inspect industrial plants at intervals as it may consider necessary and to give directions to related persons for air pollution abatement,
- f. to lay down, in consultation with the Central Board, standards for the quality of air, standards for emissions of air pollutants into the atmosphere for industrial plants, automobiles, and other sources excluding ships and air crafts.
- g. to establish or recognize a laboratory/laboratories to enable it to perform its functions efficiently.

Powers to give directions:

- a. Central Board shall be bound by written direction issued by Central Government; and
- b. State Board shall be bound by written direction issued by Central Board or the State Government.

Prevention and control of air pollution

The State Government may, after consultation with the State Board by official Gazette notification declare:

- a. any area or areas within the State as "Air Pollution control Area or Areas" for the purposes of this act,
- b. alter any air pollution control area,
- c. prohibition of usage of any fuel other than the approved fuel in air pollution control area,
- d. prohibition of burning of any material (other than fuel) in any air pollution control area or part of it.

Restriction or use of certain industrial plants:

- a. No person shall without the prior consent of the State Board, operate any industrial plant for the purpose of any industry specified in the schedule in an air pollution control area;
- b. An application for the consent of the Board shall be accompanied by prescribed fee and shall be made in the prescribed form and shall contain the particulars of the industrial plant and other prescribed particulars;
- c. The State Board may make such inquiries at it may deem fit in respect of the application for consent and shall follow the prescribed procedures;
- d. Within a period of 4 months after the receipt of consent application the State Board shall by order in writing either grant or refuse it, for reasons recorded in the order;
- e. Every person to whom consent has been granted by the State Board shall comply with the following conditions;

- i. The prescribed control systems shall be installed and operated in existing/proposed industry.
 - ii. The existing control equipment if any shall be altered/replaced in accordance with the directions of State Board.
 - iii. The control system as per clause (i) or (ii) will be kept under good conditions.
 - iv. Chimney wherever necessary of prescribed specifications, shall be erected or re-erected in the premises.
 - v. And the condition prescribed from (i) or (iv) complete within the prescribed period.
- f. If due to technological improvement, State Board may alter as a whole or part, of the conditions mentioned above;
- h. In case of the transfer of the unit from one person to the other person the consent will deemed to be transferred with conditions.

Persons carrying on industry etc. not to allow emission of air pollutants in excess of the standards laid down by State Board. No person carrying on any industry specified in the schedule or industrial, plants in any air pollution control area shall discharge or cause or permit to be discharged, the emission of any air pollutants in excess of the standard laid down by the State Board.

Power of entry and inspection

Any person empowered by a State Board shall have a right to enter, at all reasonable times with necessary assistance, any place:

- a. for the purpose of performing any of the function entrusted to him,
- b. for the purpose of examination of control system, inspection of related documents, to conduct search and to check whether all directions/ instructions, issued time to time are being followed,
- c. all persons carrying on any industry specified activities in the schedule are bound to render all assistance to the persons empowered by the Board and delay or non-cooperation shall be an offense under this Act.

Power to obtain information

The State Board or its empowered person may ask for any information like the type of pollutants and the level of emission from the occupier or the person carrying on any industry and can inspect the premises/control equipment for verifying purposes.

The State board or any officer empowered by it shall have power to take, for analysis purpose sample of air or emission from any chimney, flue, duct or any other outlet in prescribed manner.

Where a sample of emissions has been sent for analysis by Board to the laboratory established or recognized by the State Board the Board's analyst shall analyze the sample and submit a report in the prescribed form.

State Air Laboratory

State Government may, by official notification, establish or specify one or more laboratory or institutions as state laboratory.

Analyst

The State Government may by official Gazette notification appoint a Government Analyst.

Report of Analysts

The report of a Government Analyst may be used as evidence in the court of the law.

Appeals

Any person aggrieved by an order made by the State Board may appeal to an appropriate Appellate Authority within 30 days of the action.

Fund, accounts, and audit

- a. The Central Board and every State Board shall have its own fund funded by Central Government/State Government.
- b. The Central Board and every State Board shall prepare annual budget and annual report duly audited by a competent authority.

Penalties and Procedures

Failure to comply with the orders or directions of the Board issued under the Act:

- a. Whoever fails to comply with the provisions mentioned above is punishable with imprisonment up to 3 months or fines up to Rs 10,000 or both. And in case the failure continues, with an additional fine up to Rs 10/- day during which the failure continues after the conviction for the first such failure.
- b. If the failure continues beyond 1 year after the date of conviction, the offender shall be punishable with imprisonment up to 6 months.

Penalties for certain acts

Whoever damages the Board's property, fails to furnish information asked for, obstructs any Board's officer from performing his duty or makes false statements etc., shall be punished with imprisonment up to 3 months or fine up to Rs 500/ or both.

Penalty for contravention of certain provisions of the Act

For any contravention of any the provisions of the act for which no penalty has been else where provided in this Act shall be punishable with a fine of up to Rs 5000/- and with continuation of contravention a fine Rs 100/day after conviction for first contravention.

Offenses by Companies and Government Departments

Where an offense under this act has been committed by a company/ government department, every person who was at that time directly in charge of the company/department shall be deemed to be guilty of the offense and shall be liable to be prosecuted and punished accordingly unless he proves that the offense was made without his knowledge.

Miscellaneous

- a. State Central Government/State Government may supersede Central Board/State Board respectively.
- b. The Central Government may amend the schedule of industries.

THE SCHEDULE

1. Asbestos and asbestos product industries,
2. Cement and cement products industries,
3. Ceramic and ceramic product industries,
4. Chemical,
5. Coal and lignite based chemical industries,
6. Engineering industries,
7. Ferrous metallurgical industries,
8. Fertilizer industries,
9. Foundries,
10. Food and agricultural product industries,
11. Mining industries,
12. Non-ferrous metallurgical industries,
13. Ores/mineral processing industries including benefaction, pelletization etc.,
14. Power (coal, petroleum and their products) generating plants and boiler plants,

15. Paper and pulp (including paper products) industries,
16. Textile processing industries (made wholly or in part of cotton),
17. Petroleum refineries,
18. Petroleum products and petrochemical industries,
19. Plants for recovery from and disposal of wastes,
20. Incinerators.

CENTRAL POLLUTION CONTROL BOARD

(MINISTRY OF ENVIRONMENT & FORESTS, GOVERNMENT OF INDIA)

No-B-31012/2/91/PCI -II/

September 17, 1992

DIRECTIONS FROM THE CENTRAL POLLUTION CONTROL BOARD UNDER CLAUSE (b) OF SUB-SECTION 1 OF SECTION 18 OF THE AIR (PREVENTION & CONTROL OF POLLUTION) ACT, 1981

Whereas Clause (g) of Sub-section 1 of Section 17 of the Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1981 establishes standards by a State Pollution Control consultation with Central Pollution Control Board for emission of air pollutants into the atmosphere from industrial plants and automobiles.

And whereas the mass emission standards for petrol, and diesel driven vehicles as given in Annexure I & II respectively, have been evolved and proposed to be made effective from the first day of April, 1995.

As where it is further proposed to strive to attain the indicative standards by all the petrol and diesel driven vehicles as given in Annexure III & IV respectively for the year 2000.

Now, therefore, in exercise of the power vested with the Central Pollution Control Board under Clause (b) of sub-section I of Section 18 of the Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1981, the following directions are issued herewith:-

“State Council Board shall ensure that on and from the 1st day of April 1995 all petrol and diesel driven vehicles shall be so manufactured that they comply with the mass emission standards as specified in Annexure I and II respectively given herein above;

“The State Pollution Control Board shall also ensure to strive to attain the indicative standards by the petrol and diesel driven vehicles for the year 2000 as given in Annexure III and IV respectively.”

(A. BHATTACHARIYA)
Chairman

MASS EMISSION STANDARD FOR PETROL DRIVEN VEHICLES EFFECTIVE FROM 1/4/1995

Type approval tests

1. *Passenger cars*

Reference mass <i>R(Kg)</i>	CO <i>g/km</i>	HC + NO _x <i>g/km</i>
R < 1020	5.0	2.0
1020 < R < 1250	5.7	2.2
1250 < R < 1470	6.4	2.5
1470 < R < 1700	7.0	2.7
1700 < R < 1930	7.7	2.9
1930 < R < 2150	8.2	3.5
R > 2150	9.0	4.0

Note:

1. The test will be as per Indian driving cycle with cold start.
2. There should be no crankcase emission. (To be implemented from 1/1/1994)
3. Evaporative emission should not be more than 2.0 g/test. (To be implemented from 1/1/1994)

2. *Two-wheelers* (for all categories). The test will be as per Indian driving cycle with cold start.

- CO - 3.75 g/km
- HC - 2.40 g/km

3. *Three-wheelers* (for all categories). The test will be as per Indian driving cycle with cold start.

- CO - 5.6 g/km
- HC - 3.6 g/km

Conformity of production tests

Passenger Cars (For all categories).

- A relaxation of 20% for CO & 25% for combined HC+NO_x for the corresponding values of Type Approval Test given above would be permitted.

Two & Three Wheelers (For all categories).

- A relaxation of 20% for CO and 25% for HC for the values of Type Approval Test given above would be permitted.

Annexure II

MASS EMISSION STANDARD FOR DIESEL VEHICLES EFFECTIVE FROM 1/4/1995***Type approval tests***

Vehicle category	HC* (g/kWh)	CO* (g/kWh)	NO _x (g/kWh)	Smoke
Medium & Heavy over 3.5-Ton/GVW	2.4	11.2	14.4	***
Light diesel up to 3.5 Ton GVW	2.4	11.2	24.4	***

or

Reference mass R(Kg)	CO** g/km	HC + NO _x g/km
R < 1020	5.0	2.0
1020 < R < 1250	5.7	2.2
1250 < R < 1470	6.4	2.5
1470 < R < 1700	7.0	2.7
1700 < R < 1930	7.7	2.9
1930 < R < 2150	8.2	3.5
R > 2150	9.0	4.0

Note:

- * The test cycle is as per 13 mode cycle on dynamometer.
- ** The test should be as per Indian driving cycle with cold start.
- *** The emissions of visible pollutants (smoke) shall not exceed the limit values to smoke density, when expressed as light absorption coefficient given at Page 2 of Annexure II for various nominal flows when tested at constant speeds over full load.

Conformity of production tests

A relaxation of 10% for the values of Type Approval Test given above would be permitted.

Nominal flows tested at constant speeds over full load

Nominal Flow G (1/s)	Light Absorption Coefficient (K (m⁻¹))
42	2.00
45	1.91
50	1.82
55	1.75
60	1.68
65	1.61
70	1.56
75	1.50
80	1.46
85	1.41
90	1.38
95	1.34
100	1.31
105	1.27
110	1.25
115	1.22
120	1.20
125	1.17
130	1.15
135	1.13
140	1.11
145	1.09
150	1.07
155	1.05
160	1.04
165	1.02
170	1.01
175	1.00
180	0.99
185	0.97
190	0.96
195	0.95
200	0.93

Annexure III

**MASS EMISSION STANDARD FOR PETROL DRIVEN VEHICLES EFFECTIVE FROM
1/4/2000*****Type approval test***

1. *Passenger cars* (for all categories). The test-should be as per Indian start.

- CO - 2.72 g/km
- HC + NO_x - 0.97 g/km

2. *Two-wheelers* (for all categories). The test start should be as per Indian driving cycle with cold start.

- CO - 2.0 g/km
- HC - 1.5 g/km

3. *Three-wheelers* (for all categories). The test start should be as per Indian driving cycle with cold start.

- CO - 4.0 g/km
- HC - 1.5 g/km

Conformity of production tests

1. *Passenger Cars* (For all categories)

- A relaxation of 16% for CO & combined HC + NO_x for corresponding values of Type Approval Test would be permitted.

2. *Two- & Three-Wheelers* (For all categories)

- A relaxation of 20% for CO as well as HC for the values of Type Approval Test given above would be permitted.

Annexure IV

MASS EMISSION STANDARD FOR DIESEL VEHICLES EFFECTIVE FROM 1/4/2000***Type approval tests***

Vehicle category	HC*	CO* (g/kWh)	NOx *	FM*	Smoke
Medium & Heavy over 3.5 ton GVW	1.1	4.5	8.0	0.36	***
Light diesel up to 3.5 ton GVW	1.1	4.5	8.0	0.61	***

OR

CO** g/km	HC + NO _x ** g/km	PM**
2.72	0.97	0.14

Note:

- * The test should be as per 13 mode cycle.
- ** The test should be as per Indian driving cycle with cold start.
- *** The emission of visible pollutants (smoke) shall not exceed the limit values of smoke density, when expressed and light absorption coefficient given at Page 2 of Annexure IV for various nominal flows when listed at constant speed over full load.

Conformity of production tests

A relaxation of 10% for the values of Type Approval Test given above would be permitted for Conformity Of Production Test for all vehicles.

Various nominal flows listed at constant speed over full load

Nominal Flow G (l/s)	Light Absorption Coefficient K(m⁻¹)
42	2.00
45	1.91
50	1.82
55	1.75
60	1.68
65	1.61
70	1.56
75	1.50
80	1.46
85	1.41
90	1.38
95	1.34
100	1.31
105	1.27
110	1.25
115	1.22
120	1.20
125	1.17
130	1.15
135	1.13
140	1.11
145	1.09
150	1.07
155	1.05
160	1.04
165	1.02
170	1.01
175	1.00
180	0.99
185	0.97
190	0.96
195	0.95
200	0.93

Requirements of liquefied petroleum gases

Sr. No	Characteristics	Commercial Butane	Requirements Commercial Butane Propane Mixture	Commercial Propane	Method of Test Ref. To (P) of IS-1448
i.	Vapour Pressure @ 65°C, kgf/cm ² (see note 1)	10 max.	16.87 max (see note 2)	26 max.	P:71
ii.	Volatility evaporate temperature in °C, for 95% vol. @ 760 mm. pressure, max.	2	2	-38	P:72
iii.	Total volatile sulphur, % by mass, max.	0.02	0.02	0.02	P:34
iv.	Copper strip corrosion @ 38°C for one hour.	-----	Not worse than no. 1	-----	P:15
v.	Hydrogen Sulphide	absent	absent	absent	P:73
vi.	Dryness	No free entrained water	No free entrained water	shall pass the test	P:74 (see note 3)
vii.	Odour (See note 4)	Level 2	Level 2	Level 2	P:75

NOTE 1: Vapour pressure may be determined at any temperature and converted to 65°C by means of suitable vapour pressure temperature graph. The same can also be determined by analyzing the gas by means of gas chromatograph and then using the composition. The vapour pressure can be calculated @ 65°C from the standard value of vapour pressures at various temperatures.

NOTE 2: Each consignment of commercial butane - propane mixture shall be designated by its maximum vapour pressure in kgf/cm @ 65°C. Further, if desired by the purchaser and subject to prior agreement between the purchaser and the supplier, the minimum vapour pressure of that mixture shall not be lower than 2 kgf/c m² gauge compared to the designated maximum vapour pressure and in any case the minimum for the mixture shall not be lower than 10 kgf/cm² @ 65°C.

NOTE 3: The presence or absence of free entrained water in commercial butane or commercial butane - propane mixture shall be determined by visual inspection of the sample.

NOTE 4: Subject to agreement between the purchaser and the supplier, odour requirements of LPG may be changed for certain applications where unodourised LPG is required.

CONFORMS TO IS:4576-1978 FOR LPG.

Specification of motor gasoline

Sr. No.	Characteristics	Test Method IS:1448	Requirements	
			87 OCTANE	93 OCTANE
i.	Colour, Visual	-	Orange	Red
ii.	Copper Strip Corrosion for 3 hours at 50°C	P:15	Not worse than No. 1	Not worse than No. 1
iii.	Density at 15°C, g/ml	P:16		
iv.	Distillation	P:18		
	Initial Boiling point °C		To be reported	To be reported
	Recovery upto 70°C, % v, min.		10	10
	Recovery upto 125°C, % v, min.		50	50
	Recovery upto 180°C, % v, min.		90	90
	Final boiling point °C, max.		215	215
	residue, %v, max.		2	2
v.	Octane number (Research Method) min.	P:27	87	93
vi.	Oxidation Stability in Minutes, min.	P:28	360	360
vii.	Residue on Evaporation, mg/100 ml, max.	P:29 (Air-Jet, Solvent Washed)	4.0	4.0
viii.	Sulphur, % wt. max.	P:34	0.25	0.20
ix.	Lead content (as Pb), g/l max.	P:38	0.56	0.80
x.	Reid Vapour Pressure at 36°C, kgf/cm ² . max.	P:39	0.70	0.70

CONFORMS TO IS:2796-1971 SPECIFICATIONS FOR MOTOR GASOLINES

Specification of diesel fuels

Sr. No.	Characteristics	Test Method IS:448	HSD	LDO
1.	Acidity, inorganic	P:2	Nil	Nil
2.	Acidity, total, mg KOH/g, max.	P:2	0.50	-
3.	Ash. % wt., max.	P:4	0.01	0.02
4.	Carbon residue (Ramsbottom), % wt., max.	P:8	0.20	1.50
5.*	Cetane number, min.	P:9	42	-
6.**	Pour Point, °C, max.	P:10	6	Winter 12*** Summer 18
7.	Copper strip Corrosion for 3 hrs. at 100°C	P:15	Not worse than No. 1	Not worse than No. 2
8.	Distillation, percentage recovery at 366°C. min.	P:18	90	-
9.****	Flash Point			
	a) Abel °C. min.	P:20	32	-
	b) PMCC °C. min.	P:21	-	66
10.	Kinematic Viscosity cSt at 38°C	P:25	2.0 to 7.5	2.5 to 15.7
11.	Sediment, % wt., max.	P:30	0.05	0.10
12.	Total Sulphur, % wt., max.	P:33 or P:35	1.0	1.8
13.	Water Content, % V. max.	P:40	0.05	0.25
14.	Cold Filler Plugging Point (CFPP) °C, max.	IP 309/76	To be reported	-
15.*****	Total Sediments, mg/100 ml. max.	Appendix A of Specification	1.0	-

Notes:

- * *Cetane Number:* Diesel Fuel for Naval applications shall have a cetane number of 45, min. When an engine for determination of cetane number is not available, diesel index determined by IS:1448-1960. Methods of test for petroleum and its products P:17. Diesel Index may be used as a rough indication of ignition quality. A diesel index of 45 is normally considered sufficient to ensure a minimum cetane number of 42. This approximate correlation holds good only in case of fuels which are of petroleum origin and contain no additives. For arbitration purposes, the direct determination of cetane number by means of the standardized engine test shall be used unless the buyer and the seller agree otherwise.
- ** *Pour Point:* Subject to agreement between purchaser and supplier, a lower or higher maximum pour point may be accepted. The Ministry of Petroleum & Natural Gas issues instructions periodically to the refineries to reduce/increase pour point of HSD according to ambient temperature conditions.
- *** *Winter* shall be the period from November to February (both months inclusive) and rest of the months of the year shall be called as summer.
- **** *Flash Point:* Diesel Fuel for Naval applications and for Merchant Navy shall have a flash point of 66°C, min. when tested by the method prescribed in IS:1448 (P:21)-1970. Methods of test for petroleum and its products P:21 Flash Point (Closed) by Pensky-Manens apparatus (first revision).
- ***** *Total Sediments:* This test shall be carried out only at the refinery or manufacturer's end.

CONFORMS TO IS:1460-1974 SPECIFICATIONS FOR DIESEL FUELS

Specification of diesel high pour point-a

Sr. No.	Characteristics	Requirements
1.	Colour, ASTM, max.	3.5
2.	Flash Point, min.	55°C (Navy - min. 65°C)
3.	Cetane No., min.	45
4.	Diesel index, min.	48
5.	Distillation:	
	% recovered upto 357°C, min.	90%
	F.B.P., max.	385°C
	Residue, % vol., max.	2.0
6.	Total Sulphur, % wt., max.	0.5
7.	Olefins, % vol., max.	5.0
8.	Aromatics, % vol., max.	20.0
9.	Carbon (Ramsbottom on 10% residue), max.	0.2

OTHER REQUIREMENTS AS PER IS:1460-1974 SPECIFICATIONS FOR HSD

Specification of furnace oil

Sr. No.	Characteristics	Test Method IS:1448	Requirements			
			Grade LV	Grade MV1	Grade MV 2	Grade HV
1.	Acidity, inorganic	P:2	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
2.	Ash, % wt., max.	P:4 (Method A)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
3.	Gross. calorific value, cal/g.	P:6 or 7	Not limited, but to be reported (typical -1.0260)			
4.	*Relative density at 15/15°C.	P:32	Not limited, but to be reported (typical -1.950)			
5.	Flash point, (PMCC) C, min.	P:21	66	66	66	66
6.	Kinematic viscosity in centistokes at 50°C.	P:25	80 Max.	80-125	125 - 180	180-370
7.	Sediment, % wt., max.	P:30	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25
8.	**Sulphur, total, % by wt., max.	P:33 or P:35	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.5
9.	Water content, % by vol., max.	P:40	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0

Note:

* Furnace oil for marine uses in diesel engines shall not exceed a limit of 0.99

** *Sulphur Content:* Recognizing the necessity for low-sulphur fuel oils in some specialized use, a lower limit may be specified by mutual agreement between the purchaser and the supplier.

CONFORMS TO IS:1593-1988 SPECIFICATIONS FOR FUEL OIL

APPENDIX 4

EMISSION INVENTORY

INTRODUCTION

Several attempts have been made to establish a comprehensive survey of air pollution emissions for the Bombay area (refs). The most recent survey was worked out by Coopers & Lybrand and AIC, as part of their Study on Environmental Strategy and Action Plan for Bombay Metropolitan Region (Government of Maharashtra, 1993).

For the URBAIR project for Bombay, a more through procedure was conducted to work out the best

Most of the data collection and emission calculations was performed by Aditya Environmental Services of Bombay. The production of gridded emission files (emissions distributed in a km² grid net) was done using the supporting software programs for the KILDER dispersion modeling program system developed by NILU.

The road traffic activity and emissions distribution was calculated by NILU, based on traffic and road data provided by W.S. Atkins 1993, produced in connection with their Comprehensive Transportation Study for Bombay Metropolitan Region.

The area selected for air quality modeling, and thus for emission inventorying, is shown in Figure 1. It consists of 42x20 km² grid squares, covering the area from the tip of Colaba in the South to Bassein Creek in the North, and from the ocean in the West to Thane Creek in the East. It includes the Chembur-Thane industrial area.

In the following, the data sources and methods for distributing the consumption and emissions is described, and then the calculated emissions are presented.

An evaluation of data gaps and short-comings is presented at the end of this Appendix.

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION

The spatial distribution of the population within the grid system is important information when the fuel consumption, especially domestic fuel consumption, is to be distributed within the grid system.

The fuel consumption practices differ for the non-slum and slum populations. For Bombay, separate spatial distributions has thus been worked out for the two populations.

The total population for the URBAIR modeling area for Bombay, for the year 1991, is given in Table 1.

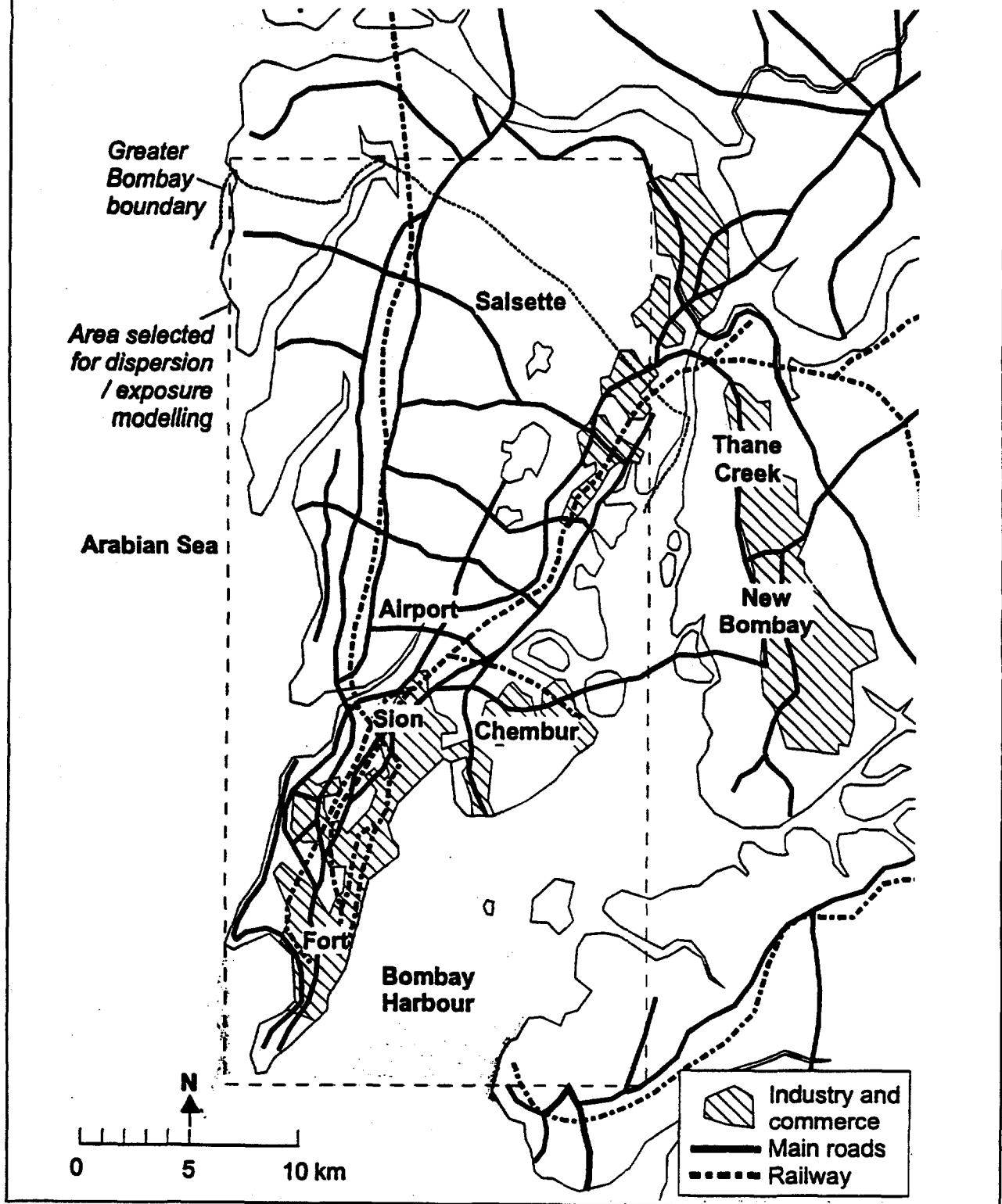
Details of the procedure for distribution of the population is given in Annex 1.

The distribution of the total population is given in Figure 2.

***Table 1: Total
population of Bombay
URBAIR modeling area***

Non slum population	7,056,760
Slum population	2,806,260
Total population	9,863,020

Figure 1: Greater Bombay air quality modeling area



FUEL CONSUMPTION

The consumption of various petroleum fuels by industries is available from four Petroleum Refineries selling their products in Bombay.

Data for LPG and SKO (Kerosene) consumption for domestic purposes is available from the Rationing Office of Bombay.

Consumption of wood was considered for the slum population, and for bakeries and crematoria, according to information and evaluation from various agencies.

The evaluation and considerations made by Aditya E.S. Inc. regarding the calculation and distribution of the fuel consumption for domestic purposes and for industries, are given in Annexes II and V of this Appendix.

The resulting fuel consumption data are given in Table 2. (Fuel consumption for road traffic is considered in Chapter 4 of this Appendix).

Table 2: Fuel consumption data for Greater Bombay for 1992-93

Category	Fuel type	10 ³ Metric tons/yr	
Tata Power Plant	LSHS	927	
	Coal	298	
	Gas	496	
Industrial	LSHS	499	279 in Petrochem. ind. 164 in large/medium ind. 56 in small scale ind.
	FO	306	183 in large/medium ind. 123 in small scale ind.
	LDO	42	
	Diesel (HSD)	40	
Domestic	LPG	7	
	Wood	289	
	SKO	480	
Marine (port/bay)	LPG	233	
	FO	100	
	LSHS	56	
	Diesel	6	
	LDO	3	

COMMENTS

Domestic:

- LPG: was distributed grid-wise in the non-slum population. Combustion takes place during 10 hours of the day.
- SKO: was distributed gridwise in the total population. Combustion takes place during 10 hours of the day.

Wood consumption:

- Bakeries: a total of 440 tons/day, in 1100 bakeries, distributed in the total population, 12 hours per day.
- Crematoria: a total of 87.5 tons/day in 76 crematoria, distributed in the total population, 24 hours per day.
- Combustion in slums: a total of 276 tons/day, distributed in the total population, 10 hours per day.

Industrial:

- There are some 40,000 commercial establishments and industries in Bombay of which 400-500 use fuel for combustion.
- A total of 280 large- and medium-scale industries were identified and located, based on the following criteria:

Note: Data for industry, domestic purposes, and by ships in Bombay port/bay area.

- LSHS consumption greater than 500 tons/year
- FO consumption greater than 200 tons/year

The industries were mainly in the categories engineering (10-15 large industries), chemical, pharmaceutical and textile.

For these industries, emission data were given based on reported measurement data, and, where not available, emissions were calculated based on emission factors. Stack data were also given.

This list of industries included the Tata Power Plant, three chemical/ petrochemical plants and a fertilizer plant, all in the Chembur area.

The gridwise distribution of the fuel consumption was done in the following manner:

- The fuel consumed by the identified large/medium sources was assigned to the grids where the industries were located.
- The remainder (balance) fuel was distributed in the grids according to the number of medium/small industries in the grid for which data was not available.

TRAFFIC ACTIVITY, FUEL CONSUMPTION AND EMISSIONS

The basis for the calculation of vehicle exhaust emissions, and their spatial distribution, is the file with traffic and road data provided by Atkins Inc., produced within their Comprehensive Transportation Study for Metropolitan Bombay Region. This file basically contained:

- the main road network, separated into links (a total of 275 links), with the link endpoint co-ordinates (nodes) fixed in an arbitrary co-ordinate system
- traffic data for each link, for morning rush hour (10-11 A.M.):
 - light duty traffic (cars + MC/TC), in passenger car units (PCU);
 - truck traffic, in PCU (1 truck = 2.4 PCU);
 - bus traffic, in PCU (1 bus = 3.4 PCU); and
 - traffic speed.

It was considered that the morning rush hour (10-11 A.M.) accounted for 6 percent of the annual average daily traffic.

The traffic activity, for each vehicle class, has been calculated separately for the "Island" Area and "Suburb" area (see Figure 1), and distributed in the km² grid.

Additional data from the Atkins' report, and from Aditya were used to estimate the overall distribution of traffic activity between the vehicle classes, and the gasoline/diesel mix (Table 3):

The total fuel consumption for road traffic in Greater Bombay used in this analysis, is, as provided by Aditya:

- Gasoline: 248,578 tons/year.
- Motor diesel: 243,444 tons/year.

The calculated traffic activity for separate classes/road systems is given in Table 4.

Table 3: Vehicle classes and gasoline and diesel consumption

Vehicle classes	Gasoline/diesel	Fuel cons. (l/km)
Passenger cars	80% gasoline/20% diesel	0.1
Motorcycles/tricycles	100% gasoline	0.067*
Trucks	100% diesel	0.3
Buses	100% diesel	0.3

* Based on: Motorcycles: 40% 0.05 l/km
Tricycles: 50% 0.075 l/km

The methodology used was as follows:

1. The traffic activity on the main road (Atkins') network, and the associated fuel consumption was calculated.
2. The traffic activity was distributed in the km² grids, according to the location of the road links.
3. The fuel consumption not accounted for by this main road traffic, was calculated by difference (total minus main road fuel consumption).
4. This balance fuel consumption was used to distribute the balance traffic activity, assuming:
 - the same vehicle composition in the traffic as on the main road system.
 - the spatial distribution of this balance traffic activity within the km² grid system is as the distribution of the non-slum population.

Using the following emission factors, the calculated emissions of TSP (e.g. exhaust particles) and NO_x from traffic is as given in Table 5.

Table 4: Traffic activity (10³ vehicle km/day), Greater Bombay 1992

	Cars	MC/TC	Trucks	Buses	Total
Traffic activity					
Main roads (Atkins' data)					
"Island"	1 827	457	306	177	2 767
"Suburbs"	1 353	1 793	833	234	4 213
Sub-total	3 180	2 250	1 139	411	6 980
Additional ("small") roads					
"Island"	2 097	480	148	86	2 811
"Suburbs"	1 771	2 160	177	113	4 221
Sub-total	3 868	2 640	325	199	7 032
Total	7 048	4 890	1 464	610	14 012

Table 5: Exhaust Particles and NO_x

Emission factors (g/km)	Exhaust particles	NO _x
Cars, gasoline	0.2	2.7
Cars, diesel	0.6	1.4
MC/TC, gasoline	0.5	0.1
Trucks, diesel	2.0	13.0
Buses, diesel	2.0	13.0

Table 6: Exhaust emissions from road traffic, Greater Bombay, 1992 (kg/h, averaged over the year, all hours)

	TSP		NO _x	
	main roads	"small" roads	main roads	"small" roads
Gasoline				
Cars	26.5	29.7	358	401
MC/TC	29.1	55.0	9	11
Diesel				
Cars	79.5	7.7	186	18
Trucks	94.9	46.0	617	299
Buses	34.2	16.6	222	108
Total	264.2	155.0	1,392	826

Table 7: Total annual emission in Greater Bombay, 1992 (metric tons/year)

Vehicles	TSP	PM ₁₀	SO ₂	NO _x	Hours of operation
Gasoline Cars	492	492	160	6 643	12
MC/TC	737	737	250	179	12
Diesel Cars	765	765	395	1 783	12
Buses	445	445	566	2 891	12
Trucks	1 234	1 234	2 120	8 024	12
Sum vehicle exhaust	3 673	3 673	3 490	19 520	12
Resuspension from roads	10 200	2 550	-	-	12
Power plant	~1 500	~1 500	~26 000	~11 200	24
Fuel combustion					
Industrial LSHS	140 ¹	84	11 920 ¹	1 690	24
FO	1 652 ¹	1 399	24 480 ¹	2 140	24
LDO	12 ¹	6	1 510 ¹	120	24
Diesel	12 ¹	6	800 ¹	115	24
LPG	0,5	0,5	-	20	24
Sum industrial	1 817	1 496	38 710	4 085	
Domestic Wood	4 395	2 198	59	410	12 (day)
Kerosene (SKO)	23	23	1 628	258	10 (day)
LPG	14	14	0,7	676	10 (day)
Sum domestic	4 432	2 235	1 688	1 344	
Marine (docks) FO	540	459	8 000	750	24
LSHS	16	8	1 120	425	24
Diesel	2	1	120	45	24
LDO	1	1	110	25	24
Sum marine	560	469	9 350	1 245	
Industrial processes²					
Refuse burning Domestic Dumps	3 700	3 700			
	408	408	26	153	12 (3 PM-3 AM)
Construction Stone crushers	6 053				12 (day)

1 Uncontrolled

2 Emissions from processes in Bombay is considered less important than to the fuel combustion emissions.

EMISSION FACTORS

The emission factors used in this URBAIR calculation for Bombay were selected based on the following sources of data:

- USEPA emission factors of AP42 publication.
- Emission factors of the WHO publication: "Assessment of Sources of Air, Water and Land Pollution", Part I: Rapid inventory techniques in Environmental Pollution (Geneva, 1993).
- Emission factors worked out by the Bombay Urbair Working Group I (on Air Quality Assessment), shown in Table 8.
- Emission factors for road vehicles described in Appendix 5.
- Emission factors from Indian vehicles (IIP, 1985; Luhar and Patil, 1986).

The selected emission factors for fuel combustion and road vehicles are shown in Table 7.

Table 8: Emission factors used for URBAIR, Bombay, 1992

		TSP	PM ₁₀ /TSP	SO ₂	NO _x	%S max.
Fuel combustion (kg/t)						
Coal, bituminous, power plant						
- uncontrolled		5A ¹⁾		19.5S ^{a)}	10.5	
- cyclone		1.25A	0.95	19.5S	10.5	
- ESP		0.36A		19.5S	10.5	
Residual oil (FO)	ind./comm.	1.25S+0.38	0.85	20S	7	4
Distillate oil	ind./comm.	0.28	0.5	20S	2.84	LSHS: 1
(LSHS, HSD, LDO)	residential	0.36 → 1.6 ^{b)}	0.5	20S	2.6	HSD: 1 LDO: 1.8
LPG	ind./dom.	0.06	1.0	0.007	2.9	0.02
Kerosene	dom.	0.06	1.0	17S	2.5	0.25
Natural gas	utility	0.061	1.0	20S	11.3 · f	
	ind./dom.	0.061		20S	2.5	
Wood	dom.	15	0.5	0.2	1.4	
Refuse burning, open		37	1	0.5	3	
Road vehicles (g/km)						
Gasoline Cars		0.2	1		2.7	87:0.25
	Trucks, light duty	0.33	1			83:0.20
	Buses and trucks, heavy duty	0.68	1			
	MC/TC	0.5	1		0.1	
Diesel	Cars	0.6	1		1.4	1
	Trucks, light duty	0.9	1		13	
	Buses and trucks, heavy duty	2.0			"	

a) A: Ash content, in %; S: sulfur content, in %

b) Well → poorly maintained furnaces

Table 9: Emission factors as worked out by the Bombay URBAIR Working Group I on air quality assessment

Type of Source	Fuel Burned	Unit	Particulates (kg/unit)	SO ₂ (kg/unit)	NO _x (kg/unit)
Power plants	Coal	t	8(A)	19(S)	9
	Fuel Oil	t	1.04 (controlled)	19.9(S)	13.2
	Natural Gas	10 ³ m ³	0.24	16.6(S)	9.6
Industrial & Commercial Furnaces		t	0.29	19.9(S)	11.5
	Coal	t	6.5(A)	19(S)	7.5
	Fuel Oil	t	2.87	19(S)	7.5
	Oil, distillate	t	2.13	20.1(S)	7.5
	LPG	m ³	0.21	0.01(S)	1.43
		t	0.38	0.02(S)	2.6
	Natural Gas	10 ³ m ³	0.29	6.6(S)	3
Domestic Furnaces		t	0.34	20(S)	3.6
	Coal (hand fired)	t	10	19(S)	1.5
	Wood	t	13.7	0.5	5
	Kerosene	t	3	17(S)	2.3
	LPG	m ³	0.23	0.01(S)	1
Solid Waste Dumps		t	0.42	0.02(S)	1.8
	Refuse	t	8	0.5	3
	Wood	t	13	0.1	4
	Rubber Tires	t	138	-	-
	Municipal Refuse	t	37	2.5	-

Note: A is % ash content (combustible by wt.); S is % sulfur content (combustible by wt.); Coal used in Bombay by Industries and for Domestic purposes is of Bituminous type.

The selected factors for fuel combustion is in some cases somewhat different from those worked out by the Bombay Working Group I. The factors in Table 7 (from EPA AP42) were used because factors from the AP42 reference were used also in the other URBAIR cities (Manila, Jakarta), and because the Bombay factors were worked out a bit late in the process, after dispersion calculations were well under way. The Bombay factors would modify the emission inventory and calculated concentrations somewhat, but would not change the main results from the calculations.

The emission factors for Indian vehicles referenced, include:

For NO_x , these are in fair agreement with the selected factors in Table 7. For "TSP" (presumably exhaust particles) from buses and trucks, they are considerably lower, and seem quite a bit too low compared to all other references.

Total emissions. Table 10 gives the total annual emissions of TSP, PM_{10} , SO_2 and NO_x associated with the various source categories, fuels and vehicle types. Those emission figures were calculated by multiplying the fuel consumption with the emission factor. The table also gives the operation hours of the various sources.

Table 10: Emission factors for Indian vehicles

Light duty, gasoline	2.1 g/km at 30 km/h	
MC/3-wheelers	0.06 g/km at 30 km/h.	
	NO_x	TSP
Buses, suburban	11.1	0.37
urban	8.52	0.28
Trucks	6.65	0.22
Light commercial vehicles	2.5	0.1

Comments to Table:

- There is no specific file of data available regarding industrial process emissions. Based on their survey work in Bombay, Aditya is of the opinion that the process emissions are not significant totally in Bombay, compared to emissions from fuel combustion. Still, process emissions will in many cases give significant exposure in areas near industrial process plants.
- There is a large discrepancy between the calculated emissions of SO_2 and NO_x in Table 11, and those from the emission data file produced by AES Inc. for the input to the KILDER model (see below), regarding industrial emissions. The discrepancy is as follows:
 - Part of the discrepancy may be explained as follows:
 - In the AES point source file, results from actual emission measurements were used, where available. Where not available, a calculation of the emissions was based on fuel consumption and emission factors.
 - Table 5 is based on the maximum S contents of oil, while the average actual S contents may be considerably lower.
- Refuse burning, open burning on dumps.

Table 11: Discrepancies between emissions

	Emissions in Table 6	Emissions from the AES Point source file
SO_2 (t/yr)	66,710	18,290
NO_x (t/yr)	15,285	5,590

AES has estimated the total emissions from the Dumps Deonar, Chincholi + Gorai, and Mulund. The estimation was based on TSP, SO₂ and NO_x measurements carried out by MCGB near Deonar, by means of box model. The details are described in Annex IV to this Appendix.

NEERI has also estimated total emissions of the same compounds from open burning on dumps in Bombay, based on some measurements of their own.

Table 12 below summarized the results.

There is a fair agreement between these estimates, considering that the burning mainly takes place during 10-15 hour periods evening-nights.

The AES estimates have been used in Table 6.

Table 12: Summary of estimates of emissions from open burning on dumps in Bombay

		TSP	SO ₂	NO _x
AES	kg/hr	54.3	3.4	20.4
NEERI	kg/day	950	71	175

Refuse burning, domestic. Several discussions within the URBAIR groups have not led to a conclusion regarding the amount of refuse burnt domestically (street sweepings, vegetation debris, domestic refuse) in Bombay.

It might be estimated that a total of 2 mill households in Bombay each burn 1 kg of refuse per week. Using a SPM emission factor of 37 g/kg, this produces annually some 3 700 tons of SPM.

Stone crushers. The SPM emissions from 47 registered stone crushers in Greater Bombay has been estimated by AES, as described in Annex V to this Appendix.

Spatial emission distribution

The total emissions from each source category has been distributed within the km² grid system based on

- the actual location of point sources
- the population distribution, separate for non-slum and slum populations
- the traffic activity distribution.

AES and NILU has produced the spatial emission distributions listed below. For each distribution, an average emission rate was calculated for each grid square, in kg/hr, representing the average emission during the operating hours of the source.

For some further details, see Annex VII of this Appendix.

Table 13: Spatial emission distribution

Fuel consumption	Operating time (hrs/day)	Distribution
Road traffic, gasoline	12	According to traffic activity on roads, and non-slum population
Road traffic, diesel	12	According to traffic activity on roads, and non-slum population
LPG, domestic	10 (day)	Non-slum population
SKO, domestic	10 (day)	Total population
Wood, domestic	10 (day)	Slum population
Wood, bakeries	12 (day)	Total population
Wood, crematoria	24	Total population
Refuse burning, dumps	12 (evening-night)	3 dumps
Stone crushers	12	47 units
Balance fuel	24	Non-slum population
Point sources	24	Actual locations

References

- Luhar, A.K. and R. S. Patil. (1986). "Estimation of Emission Factors for Indian Vehicles." *Indian Journal of Air Pollution Control*. 17 (4). New Dehli.
- Tata Energy Research Institute (1992). *Environmental Effects of Energy Production, Transportation and Consumption in National Capital Region, 1992*. TERI: New Delhi.

DATA ON POPULATION DISTRIBUTION—GRID-WISE***Total population****Data available:*

- Total population and area of each Census District obtained from BMRDA. (There are a total of 88 Census Districts in Bombay).
- Map of Bombay.

Distribution of population:

- Population Density per sq. km. area was calculated using data obtained from BMRDA. However, it was noticed that area with no possible human habitation (like waterbodies/marshy lands/airport/ industrial area etc.) was also included in many of the census districts. Hence, new population densities were derived after deducting such areas.
- Actual habitable area of each of the census districts in a grid was measured and multiplied by population density to arrive at population per grid.

Data Constraints:

- Non-availability of Specific Zoning Maps showing clearly the land use pattern.

Slum population*Data Available:*

- Wardwise list of slums in Bombay on Private land/Central Govt. lands/State Govt. lands/BHADA (Bombay Housing and Area Development Authority) and M.C.G.B. land giving number of tenements in each slum pocket. List obtained from Slum Improvement Dept., M.C.G.B. and is for the year 1985. (No updated list was available from the Dept.).
- Map of Bombay from MHADA (Maharashtra Housing & Area Development Authority) showing positions of these slums.

Slum population distribution:

- No figures were available on actual population in the slums. Also distribution of slums in each Census District was not available.

- Available data on total population and number of households obtained from BMRDA and discussions with faculty of Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Deonar indicates average number of persons per tenement as 5. Hence total slum population was derived as:

Number of Tenements	561,252
Average no. of persons per tenement	x 5
Total Slum Population	2,806,260

The slum population was then distributed in the grids based on number of tenements in each grid.

Data gaps:

- Conflicting reports exist on total population of Bombay residing in slums. Estimates indicate upto 40-45% (of total population) as total slum population.
- The Book "Slums Squatter Settlements & Organised Sector Worker Housing in India some Affordable Myths" authored by R.M. Kapoor and M.S. Mitra published by the Times Research Foundation (1987) puts Task Force Estimates on slum population for million plus cities for 1981 (based on 1981 population) as varying from a low of 40% to a high of 45% of total population.
- *It is suspected that data given by Slum Improvement Dept. gives number of registered slums only and hence total slum population as worked out for URBAIR is only 28.5% of total population. This is a major data gap as this will affect the consumption pattern of SKO/Wood in the grids.*

Non-slum population

The slum population in each grid was subtracted from total population in that grid to arrive at non-slum population in that grid.

DATA ON DOMESTIC FUEL CONSUMPTION

Data available

- LPG Consumption for Domestic purposes as indicated by Rationing Office
- SKO Consumption for Domestic purposes as indicated by Rationing Office.
(Data on LPG/SKO consumption for domestic purposes was not separately available for one of the Petroleum Companies and hence data from Rationing Inspectorate was used).
- Total Population/Slum Population/Non-slum population gridwise from POPDIST1.WK1 files.

Basis for distribution of data

LPG consumption: Total LPG consumption per day for domestic purposes as indicated by Rationing Inspectorate is 639 MT/d. As this is predominantly used in well-to-do households, the entire LPG consumption was distributed gridwise in the non-slum population. Daily use of LPG is for cooking purposes and hence restricted to 10 hours/day; LPG consumption in Kg/hr was calculated for this period.

SKO consumption: The total SKO consumption for domestic purposes and by establishments is 1,236 KL/d or 1062.96 T/d. This was distributed in the grids according to total population in that grid. Daily use of SKO is mainly for cooking and to some extent water heating. Total daily period of such use is restricted to 10 hours. Hence, SKO consumption in Kg/hr was calculated for this period.

Wood consumption: Major wood consumers in Bombay were identified as bakeries, other small establishments, domestic households (slums/pavement dwellers) and crematories.

WOOD CONSUMPTION IN BAKERIES/SMALL ESTABLISHMENTS

Data available

No figures were available on wood consumption by small establishments. The Indian Bakers Association indicated that there are about 1,100 bakeries in the city which are using wood for their fuel needs. The average wood consumption in each bakery was estimated by them as @ 400 kg/day. (Large bakeries in the city are not using wood, but are using HSD or electricity). Based on these figures the total wood consumption by bakeries works out to be 440 T/day.

Basis for distribution

The bakeries are more or less evenly spread out in the city and hence wood consumption was distributed based on % of total population in a particular grid.

WOOD CONSUMPTION IN CREMETORIA***Data available***

- Wardwise list of Hindu cremetoria.
- Death figures for 1991 from Health Dept., M.C.G.B.
- Wood consumption per dead body 500 Kg (obtained from a visit to cremetoria).

Data derived

- Deaths in Bombay: 80,000 (1991).
- Hindu Deaths (approx. 80%): 64,000.
- Deaths/day (approx.): 175.

Deaths per day:	175
Wood required per body:	500 Kg/day
<hr/>	
Total wood consumption :	87,500 kg/day or 87.5 T/day

- No. of cremetoria (Pvt. & Municipal): 76

Hence, the total wood consumption was distributed in the wards based on location of cremetoria in the wards. Daily use of wood in cremetoria is for purpose of burning dead bodies. Such use covered whole 24 hours period. Hence use of wood in Kg/hr was based on 24-hours usage period.

WOOD CONSUMPTION IN SLUMS***Data available***

Discussions with faculty members of Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Deonar showed that wood and not charcoal (as shown by the E.M.S. study) was used as fuel in slums. However, no figures were available to substantiate the total slum population using wood or the per capita wood consumption.

Data derived

A study on "Energy Consumption in Pune City" conducted by S.P. College, Pune (1989) indicates that 20% of slum dwellers use firewood and average consumption is 180-200 Kg/capita/year. Since Pune city has a colder climate compared to Bombay, the lower figures of 180 kg/capita/year was assumed for Bombay city. Based on the above, the total wood consumption by this source per day works out as given below :

Total Slum Population:	28 lakhs
20% population assumed using wood:	5.6 lakhs
	560,000 (persons)
	x 180 (kg/capita/day)
<hr/>	
Total wood consumption per year	100,800 T/year
Total wood consumption per day	276 T/day

This was distributed in the grids based on slum population in the grid. Daily use of wood in slum is extended over 10-hours period. Hence, to calculate the load in kg/hr this period was considered.

Total wood consumption

Since, bakeries and crematoria are situated in predominantly domestic areas the total wood consumption by these sources was added to wood consumption by slum population for estimating total wood consumption for Bombay city.

Wood consumption (T/day)	
for cemeteries:	87.5
for bakeries:	440.0
for slums:	276.0
<hr/>	
Total wood consumption (T/day):	803.5

Gridwise distribution of wood was added to arrive at total wood consumption per grid.

Data gaps

From the available data no energy consumption pattern could be derived for the urban population of Bombay. Attempts to derive energy consumption pattern gave rise to very conflicting results.

The S.P. College, Pune, showed the fuel consumption pattern in slums is as below:

Energy requirements in slums :

SKO	70%
Wood	20%
LPG/others	10%

The per capita consumption of SKO is indicated by the study as 50 L/capacity/year. This works out to a average figure of 135 ML/capita/day. Assuming a higher value of 150 ML/capita/day, the consumption pattern of SKO works out as follows:

Slum population:	28 lakhs
Population using SKO (@70%):	20 lakhs
SKO used in slums @ 150 ML/capita/day:	300 KL/day

Available data indicates total domestic consumption for SKO as 1,198 KL/day. Balance SKO of 898 KL/day when distributed on the basis of 150 ML/capita/day shows a total of 59.86 lakhs people using SKO. This means about 85% of non-slum population uses SKO which is a unreasonably high figure.

Even assuming 45% of total population as slum population (i.e. including the non-registered slums) the total SKO consumed by slums works out as below:

Total population:	98 lakhs
Slum population:	44.1 lakhs
SKO users:	30 lakhs
SKO consumed:	463 KL/day
(based on 150 ML/cap/day)	

The balance 735 KL/day when distributed @ 150 ML/cap/day shows 49 lakh non-slum population using SKO which also works out to a high figure of 70%.

The LPG consumption for domestic purposes has been indicated by Rationing Inspectorate as 233,235 MT/year (16,425,000 cylinders/year). Assuming requirement of each household as 1 cylinder/month or 12 cylinders/year.

No. of households using LPG works out to 16,425,000 divided by 12 cylinders/year equals 13.69 lakhs.

Assuming average size of each household as 5; total population using LPG works out to @ 68 lakhs which is @ 70% of Bombay's total population which is a very high figure.

The SKO consumption by establishments (Hotels/Restaurants) has been shown as 38 MT/day which is a very low figure considering numerous such establishments in the city.

Available data for Pune indicates that charcoal is used in slums by a very small amount of population (<5%). However, no quantification exists for Bombay.

Considering the above, it is very much apparent that data on fuel distribution by domestic sector is very much rudimentary and there is an urgent need to study the pattern of usage in these sectors and consider cost effective alternatives to reduce pollution from this sector.

Annexure III

EMISSION FROM DOMESTIC SOURCES

Data available

Fuel consumption by Domestic Sources for Total SKO/LPG and Wood consumption (inclusive of usage by establishments).

Emission Factors used:

Type of Source	Fuel burned	Unit	Particulates (Kg/unit)	SO ₂ (Kg/unit)	NO _x (Kg/unit)
Domestic	Wood	t	13.7	0.5	5.0
	Kerosene	t	3.0	17.0 (s)	2.3
Furnaces	LPG	t	0.42	0.02 (s)	1.8

SOURCE: Rapid Assessment of sources of Air/Water and Land Pollution, WHO Offset Publication No. 62.

Annexure IV

EMISSIONS FROM REFUSE BURNING*Data available*

Total quantity disposed: 4,000 T/day.

Site	Quantity (T/day)	Available Area
Deonar	2526.5	200 acres
Mulund (Checknaka)	631.5	50 acres
Chincholi	421.0	60 acres
Gorai Rd. (Borivali)	421.0	20 acres
Total quantity disposed	4,000.0	

Source: Mr. D.K. Dhokale (Asst. Engineer), Solid Waste Management, M.C.G.B.

The Bombay Solid Waste has the following composition :

Moisture:	40% (by wt)
Combustible:	22% (by wt)
Ash content:	38% (by wt)
Total	100%

Physical Composition:

Paper:	10% (by wt.)
Glass:	0.2% (by wt.)
Metal:	0.2% (by wt.)
Plastics:	2% (by wt.)
Textile:	3.6% (by wt.)
Wood/Grass:	20% (by wt.)
Ash/Soil:	38% (by wt.)
Others:	26% (by wt.)
TOTAL	100%

Although municipal officials claim that no refuse burning takes place (or is very negligible), a number of complaints are received and the fact that refuse burning does take place is definitely established.

The Air Quality Monitoring laboratory of the M.C.G.B. (Environmental Sanitation & Projects Dept.) has carried out air monitoring near the solid waste dump site at the time of refuse burning. The reports are as given as follows:

Parameters	Concentration	Sampling Period
TSP 2011	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	16:30 to 22:15 hrs.
SO ₂ 702	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	19:00 to 22:15 hrs.
NO ₂ 164	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	19:00 to 22:15 hrs.
NH ₃ 1014	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	19:00 to 22:15 hrs.

Source: MCGB (Environmental Sanitation & Projects Dept.)

There is no documented data on rate of burning; area of dump which is burnt or the emission factors.

To find out the rate of burning of the Solid Wastes it was decided to develop a Box Model and back calculate from the ambient monitoring data.

To find out total emissions from refuse burning discussions were held with residents in the neighbourhood, NGOs and factory owners near the Deonar dump. The findings from this discussions are as follows:

1. Refuse burning is an unauthorised activity of rag pickers operating at the dumps. Objective is to recover metallic scrap, glass and other valuables.
2. Fresh refuse is high in moisture content and is left to dry for 10-15 days. Generally the dry refuse is lighted at 4-5 p.m. and burns till late night 2-3 a.m.
3. The nuisance of the smoke is felt upto 3rd/4th floors and, hence, height of smoke plume can be guessed as 10-15 m. Nuisance is felt upto a downwind distance of 3-4 km.

BOX MODEL CALCULATIONS

From the above, the emissions (Q_j) from refuse burning (from Deonar site) were back calculated as below :

$$C_j = Q_j / uWD$$

It is assumed in the development of the box model that:

1. Air is transported through the volume with a face velocity of u and
2. The pollutants are assumed to be instantaneously and uniformly mixed throughout the volume of the box.

From the available data the following values were assigned to various variables:

$$u = \text{Avg. wind velocity} = 1 \text{ m/sec. (Observed for night time from Santacruz data)}$$

$$W = \text{Width of box normal to wind direction} = 500 \text{ m.}$$

$$D = \text{Depth of box normal to wind direction} = 15 \text{ m (Elevation of 4 storeyed building)}$$

$$C_j = \text{Concentration recorded} = 2,011 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3 = 2,011 \times 10^{-6} \text{ gm}/\text{m}^3$$

$$\text{Therefore: } 2,011 \times 10^{-6} = Q_j / (1 \times 500 \times 15)$$

$$Q_j = 15.0825 \text{ gm/sec. or } 54.297 \text{ Kg/hr.}$$

Assuming WHO emission factor 8 Kg/T for SPM from Refuse burning, Quantity of Refuse burnt was calculated:

$$\text{Quantity burnt/hour} = 54.297 / 8 = 6.787 \text{ T/hr.}$$

Further calculations were carried out by applying WHO Emission Factors for SO₂/NO_x (by assuming above rate of burning). Thus emissions at Deonar for SO₂ and NO_x are estimated as :

$$\text{SO}_2 = 3.393 \text{ Kg/hr.}$$

$$\text{NO}_x = 20.361 \text{ Kg/hr.}$$

As no details regarding other sites are available, it is assumed that refuse burning is proportional to daily quantity of waste dumped. Applying WHO emission factors the emission from these dumps are calculated as below :

Grid No.	Site	Wastes dumped/day	SPM	SO ₂ (kg/hour)	NO _x
16-17	Deonar	2056.0	54.29	3.39	20.36
6-36	Chincholi + Gorai	842.0	22.22	1.39	8.34
17-30	Mulund	631.5	16.66	1.04	6.25

Data gaps

No specific studies have been carried out as burning of refuse and the air pollution impact of these.

NEERI is currently carrying out a study under MEIP on this aspect. Results of this study will be shortly available.

Annexure V

STONE CRUSHER EMISSION***Data available***

Data on capacity of stone crushers was obtained from M.P.C.B. records.

The data collected shows that there are 19 registered stone crushers in Kandivali (Ward 'R'/North); 21 registered crushers in Dahisar (Ward R/North) and 7 in Andheri (Ward K/W) area.

No data is available of any air monitoring carried out close to these sites.

Emissions from crushers

Emissions from stone crushers were calculated by using EPA emission factors as outlined below:

Type of Process Dry Crushing Operation	Suspended Dust Emission (Kg/MT)
Primary Crushing	0.05
Secondary Crushing/Screening	0.30
Tertiary Crushing/Screening	1.80
Recrushing & Screening	1.25
Fines Mill	2.25

Source: EPA.

The capacity of each crusher and the emission from them work out to very high loads as indicated in enclosed sheets. Hence, separate box file has been prepared for this source.

Preparation of box file

While preparing box files, the following assumption were made:

1. The exact locations of the crushers on map were not known, but as it is well known that these crushers are very close to each other, they have been clubbed together and total emission has been shown from one particular grid only.
2. Micro-level details of each crusher like the types of control measures existing, the method of transfer of rock, the moisture content of rock, etc. are not known and it is assumed in preparation of the box file that all crushers have no installed control systems.
3. *It has been assumed that crusher operates for 24 hours and suspended particulate emissions reported as Kg/hour accordingly. However, normal period of operation of crushers is between 8:00 hrs. and 19:30 hrs. and emissions should be corrected for further accuracy in the box file.*

BALANCE FUEL EMISSION FILE

Data available

The consumption of various Petroleum fuels by industries in Bombay is available from four Petroleum Refineries selling their products in Bombay. The data on fuel consumption obtained from emission inventory carried out for URBAIR was compiled and used to prepare box file (area files) for industries for which adequate data was not available and for small scale industries.

Emission inventory

Data available thus far from emission inventory indicates the following:

1. There are about 40,000 odd commercial establishments and industries in Bombay. About 500-600 of these use fuel for combustion. (Very small scale and tiny units are not considered in preparing this estimate).
2. The data indicates the following pattern of fuel use:

Industry Type	Estimated Nos./Area Where Present	Fuel
Large scale (Chemical/Petrochemical)	3 (Chembur)	LSHS/Gas
Large (Engineering)	10-15 (Western/Central Suburbs)	LDO/LPG& small quantity LSHS.
Medium scale (Chemical/Pharmaceutical/ Textile)	250-275 (Western/central Suburbs) (Textile Industries: Bombay Island)	FO/LSHS small quantity LDO.
Medium scale (Dyeing/Printing/Bleaching works)	50-75 (Western/Central Suburbs)	FO
Small scale	100-150 (Western/Central Suburbs)	FO/LDO

In general, usage of LPG and SKO is restricted to Engineering industries. Usage of HSD is generally in diesel generators/compressors and in large bakeries.

Fuel usage

Furnace Oil: About 839 T/d of Furnace Oil was sold in Bombay city in 1992-93. F.O. is used by industries in boilers for steam generation; of this 500 T/day was accounted for in the emissions inventory data gathered for preparation of POISOURC.DAT file. The balance 339 T/d was

distributed in the grids based on number of industries in each grid for which adequate data is not available.

LSHS: The two Petroleum Refineries, Fertilizer Plant and the Power Plant together account for more than three-quarters of the LSHS consumption in the city.

These units are not allowed to burn Furnace Oil and use Associated Gas (available through pipeline from GAIL/ONGC) along with LSHS. For some part of the year, the Associated Gas supply from ONGC was affected and, consequently, LSHS consumption in the city has increased considerably.

LSHS consumption by Tata Thermal: Tata Thermal has 6 units for power generation at Chembur. Unit Nos. 1, 2, and 4 are normally on stand-by and used for peaking the supply. Unit 3 has been decommissioned and is not in use. Units 5 & 6 are of 500 MW capacity each. All units have multi-fuel capabilities. Unit 5 can fire LSHS/Coal/Gas, whereas Unit 6 can fire LSHS and Gas. The total daily heat requirement at Tata Thermal is estimated at 5.25×10^{10} Kcal/d and the fuels burnt for this consumption for 1992-93 work out as an average daily basis as (please refer enclosed sheets):

Consumption based on annual sales figures of product	
Oil (LSHS)	2710 T
Gas	1448 T
Coal	870 T

The higher LSHS requirement may be due to reduced supply of gas during the year from ONGC.

LSHS Consumption by refineries: The Refineries (BPCL & HPCL) have daily usage of LSHS as 230 T and 534 T, respectively, (based on MPCB Consent figures).

Fertilizer Factory (RCF): RCF uses associated gas for steam generation and as feedstock for their plants. They have no consented LSHS usage.

Emission Inventory for URBAIR: The emission inventory could account for additional 450 T of LSHS usage by other Large/Medium Industries.

LSHS Consumption from Refinery Sales Figures: The total average per day sale for LSHS is put at 3,312 T/day. The difference between the consumption figures (indicated above) and average sale per day comes out as follows:

Difference between consumption and average sale per day	
Estimated average supply LSHS	3,312 T/day
- Tata Thermal	- 2,710
- Emission inventory	- 450
	152 T/day

Average daily usage of LSHS	
Estimated average supply LSHS	3,312 T/day
Consumption by refineries	+ 534
	+ 230
	4,076 T/day

Comments: LSHS consumption in Bombay is highly variable, the daily consumption being governed by the four large factories in Chembur.

The availability of Associated Gas changes the entire consumption pattern of all these four units. This makes it very difficult to arrive at the average daily consumption figure based on yearly consumption/sales dates. Considering the above, the balance LSHS of 152 T/d has not been distributed in the grids while preparing Balance fuel distribution files (*FUE.DAT).

LDO Consumption: About 135 T of LDO was supplied per day in 1992-93. Of this about 67 T/d could be accounted for in the Emission Inventory. The balance 69 T was distributed in the grids based on number of industries in each grid (for which adequate data is not available).

HSD Consumption: About 127 T/d of HSD was supplied on an average basis in 1992-93. Of this about 30 T could be accounted for in the Emission Inventory. The balance 97 T was distributed in grids based on number of industries in each grid for which adequate data is not available.

CALCULATION FOR TATA THERMAL

2 units, 500 MW each

Each 500 MW requires 5,000 T/d Coal, or 2,500 T/d Oil.

Therefore, total requirement of fuels works out as 10,000 T Coal or 5,000 T Oil; total heat requirement works out as follows:

Quantity in tons	5,000
x Kcal/kg	x 10,500
x Conversion factor to Kg	x 1,000
Total Heat Requirement (Kcal/day)	5.25 x 10 ¹⁰

Tata have reported annual purchase of fuels as follows:

LSHS:	926,886 T
Gas:	495,082 T
Coal:	297,556 T

Corresponding Heat load/year works out as:

LSHS	9.73×10^{12} Kcal/yr.
Gas	6.67×10^{12} Kcal/yr.
Coal	1.56×10^{10} Kcal/yr.
TOTAL	1.796×10^{13} Kcal/yr

For a total of 342 working days this gives a heat load/day as 5.25×10^{10} .

Therefore:

Total Oil required/day: 2710 T/d

Total Gas supply/day: 1448 T/d.

Total Coal supply/day: 870 T/d.

Comments

This has been worked out considering that total fuel purchased by the plant in the year has been utilized. Quantities in stock have not been considered and daily average consumption may vary to that extent.

Annexure VII

BASIS OF PREPARATION OF POISOURC.DAT***Data available***

Data on emissions from industries was gathered from the applications made by them to obtain MPCB consents. Data was gathered for about 210 industries belonging primarily to large and medium sector. Data was collected on the basis of following criteria :

F.O. consumption > 200 T/year;
LSHS consumption > 500 T/year.

Data collected included physical details of stacks and data on type of emissions, velocity, flow rate and monitoring data wherever available.

Preparation of poisourc.dat file

This is on following basis:

1. Wherever possible monitoring data (as submitted by Industries) has been used to calculate emission load. Only where monitoring data was entirely absent, emissions were calculated from fuel quantity.
2. No data is required to be submitted by Industries on total NO_x emission and hence this data was entirely computed from emission factors.
3. Emission Factors used for calculations are as given below, where A = % Ash, S = % Sulphur by wt.

Type Of Fuel	Unit	Particulates	SO ₂	NO _x
Bituminous Coal	t	6.5 (A)	19 (S)	7.5
Fuel Oil	t	2.87	19 (S)	7.5
LPG	t	0.38	0.02 (S)	2.6
Natural Gas	t	0.34	20 (S)	3.6

There is only one power plant in Bombay and emissions were directly taken from actual monitored levels at the plant.

Process emissions in Bombay are unimportant compared to the large number of stacks connected to fuel sources. Wherever available data from such sources is collected and compiled in Poisourc.dat file.

4. Building heights and widths were not available for buildings nearest to the chimney and, hence, default width and heights of 30 m and 10 m were given in the file.

Data gaps

A wide variation is observed in the monitored data and data calculated from emission factors. This may be because of any of the following reasons:

1. Low amount of sulphur in fuels compared to those available in standard specifications. For example: BPCL specifications for FO shows Sulphur content between 3.5-4% whereas actual observed level is between 2.5-3%. Similarly for LSHS actual % observed is between 0.5-0.7% whereas specifications shows sulphur content of 1%.
2. Greater amount of excess air used by the industries.
3. Inaccurate monitoring practices adopted.

The type of data in MPCB files is not up-to-date and should be improved.

NO_x monitoring is not required by MPCB, even when there is a ambient air standard prescribed for the same.

Annexure VIII

BASIS FOR DATA FILES

Sr. No.	File Name	Basis	Source	Additional details
WORKSHEET FILES				
1.	popdist1.wk1	Census districtwise population distribution for year 1991. Distribution into grids based on actual area of census districts in each grid.	BMRDA	Annexure I
2.	fuelcond.wk1			Annexure II
	LPG (Domestic)	Total Usage: 639 TPD. Period of use: 10 hrs/day. User: Non-slum population.	Rationing office	-
	SKO (Domestic)	Total usage: 1,236 KL/day. Period of Use: 10hrs/day. User: Slum/non-slum population.	Rationing office	-
	Wood (Domestic)	Total usage: 276 TPD. Period of Use: 12 hrs/day. User: 20% slum population.	S.P.College Pune study	-
	Wood (Bakeries)	Total usage: 440 TPD. Period of Use: 12 hrs/day. User: Bakeries.	Bakeries association	-
	Wood (Crematoria)	Total usage: 87.5 TPD. Period of Use: 24 hrs/day. User: Crematoria.	Health Dept./BMC & visits to crematoria	-
	Total Wood	Gridwise addition of wood consumption by domestic source + bakeries + crematoria.	-	-
3.	emisndom.wk1	Emissions from Domestic fuel usage.	Fuel data from FUELCON D.WK.1	Annexure III
		Emission factors - WHO		
BOX FILES				
4.	popdist.dat	Population distribution in box.	Data from POPDISTI. WK1	Annexure I

Sr. No.	File Name	Basis	Source	Additional details
5.	slumdist.dat	Slum population distribution in box	Data from POPDISTI. WK1	Annexure I
6.	bldg-ht.dat	Average building height in grid	Own observation	-
7. DOMESTIC DATA FILES				
7.1	spmardom.dat	Area source SPM from LPG/SKO/total wood	Data from FUELCON D.WK1 & EMISNDO M.WKI	-
7.2	so2ardom.dat	Area source SO ₂ from LPG/SKO/Total wood	Data from FUELCON D.WK1 & EMISNDO M.WKI	-
7.3	noxardom.dat	Area source No _x from LPG/SKO/Total wood	Data from FUELCON D.WK1 & EMISNDO M.WKI	-
8. REFUSE BURNING				
8.1	spmarsw.dat	Area source SPM from Solid Waste (refuse burning). E.F. - WHO & monitoring data from MCGB.	Box model calculations	Annexure IV
8.2	so2arsw.dat	Area source SO ₂ from Solid Waste (refuse burning). E.F. - WHO	Box model calculations	Annexure IV
8.3	noxarsw.dat	Area source NO _x from Solid Waste (refuse burning). E.F. - WHO	Box model calculations	Annexure IV
9. STONE CRUSHERS				
9.0	spmarcru.dat	Area source SPM from stone crushers	E.F. - EPA capacity of crushers MPCB files	Annexure V
10. BALANCE FUEL DISTRIBUTION				

Sr. No.	File Name	Basis	Source	Additional details
10.1	smparfue.dat	Area source SPM from Balance fuel consumption	Total fuel consumption from POISOURC .DAT and sale figures from petroleum companies	Annexure VI
10.2	so2arfue.dat	Area source SO ₂ from Balance fuel consumption	Total fuel consumption from POISOURC .DAT and sale figures from petroleum companies	Annexure VI
10.3	noxarfue.dat	Area source NO _x from Balance fuel consumption	Total fuel consumption from POISOURC .DAT and sale figures from petroleum companies	Annexure VI
11. POINT SOURCE DATA FILES				
11.0	poiscourc.dat	Emission from industries	MPCB files (monitoring data submitted by industries) + E.F. - WHO	Annexure VII

APPENDIX 5

EMISSION FACTORS, PARTICLES

INTRODUCTION

Emission factors (emitted amount of pollutant per quantity of combusted fuel, or per kilometers driven, or per produced unit of product) are important input data to emission inventories, which again are essential input to dispersion modeling.

The knowledge of emission factors representative for the present technology level of Asian cities is limited. For the purpose of selecting emission factors for the URBAIR study, references on emission factors were collected from the open literature and from studies and reports from cities in Asia.

This appendix gives a brief background for the selection of emission factors for particles used in the air quality assessment part of URBAIR.

Motor vehicles

The selection of emission factors for motor vehicles for use in the URBAIR project to produce emission inventories for South-East Asian cities, was based on the following references:

- WHO (1993)
- USEPA (EPA AP42 report series) (1985)
- Vehicles Emission Control Project (VECP), Manila (Baker, 1993)
- Indonesia (Bosch, 1991)
- Williams et al. (1989)
- Motorcycle emission standard and emission control technology (Weaver and Chan, 1993)

Table 1 gives a summary of emission factors from these references for various vehicle classes. From these, the emission factors given in Table 2 were selected, for use as a basis for URBAIR cities.

Taking account of the typical vehicle/traffic activity composition, the following vehicle classes give the largest contributions to the total exhaust particle emissions from traffic:

- Heavy duty diesel trucks
- Diesel buses
- Utility trucks, diesel
- 2-stroke 2- and 3-wheelers.

Thus, the emission factors for these vehicle classes are the most important ones.

COMMENTS

It is clear that there is not a very solid basis in actual measurements on which to estimate particle emission factors for vehicles in South-East Asian cities. The given references represent the best available basis. Comments are given below for each of the vehicle classes.

Gasoline:

- Passenger cars: Fairly new, normally well maintained cars, engine size less than 2.5 l, without 3-way catalyst, running on leaded gasoline (0.2-0.3 g Pb/l), have an emission factor of the order of 0.1 g/km. Older, poorly maintained vehicles may have much larger emissions. The USEPA/WHO factor of 0.33 g/km can be used as an estimate for such vehicles.
- Utility trucks: Although the VECP study (Manila) uses 0.12 g/km, we select the EPA factor of 0.33 g/km was selected for such vehicles, taking account of generally poor maintenance in South-East Asian cities.
- Heavy duty trucks: Only the USEPA have given an estimate for such vehicles, 0.33 g/km, the same as for passenger cars and utility trucks.
- 3-wheelers, 2-stroke: The USEPA and WHO suggest 0.2 g/km for such vehicles.
- Motorcycles, 2-stroke: The Weaver report supports the 0.21 g/km emission factor suggested by USEPA/WHO. In the VECP Manila study a factor of 2 g/km is suggested. This is the same factor as for heavy duty diesel trucks, which seems much too high.

Visible smoke emissions from 2-stroke 2- and 3-wheelers is normal in South-East Asian cities. Low-quality oil as well as worn and poorly maintained engines probably both contribute to the large emissions. The data base for selecting a representative emission factor is small. In the data of Weaver and Chan (1993), the highest emissions factor is about 0.55 g/km. For URBAIR, we choose a factor of 0.5 g/km. Realizing that this is considerably higher than the factor suggested by USEPA, we also have a view to the factor 2 g/km used in the VECP study in Manila, which indicates evidence for very large emissions from such vehicles.

Table 1: Emission factors (g/km) for particle emissions from motor vehicles

Fuel and Vehicle	Particles (g/km)	Reference
Gasoline		
Passenger cars	0.33	USEPA/WHO
	0.10	VECP, Manila
	0.16	Indonesia (Bosch)
	0.07	Williams
Trucks, utility	0.12	VECP, Manila
	0.33	USEPA
Trucks, heavy duty	0.33	USEPA
	0.21	USEPA/WHO
	0.21/	USEPA/WHO
	2.00/	VECP, Manila
	0.21/0.029	Indonesia VWS
	0.28/0.08	Weaver and Chan
Diesel		
Car, taxi	0.6	VECP, Manila
	0.45	USEPA/WHO
	0.37	Williams
Trucks, utility	0.9	VECP, Manila
	0.93	EPA
Trucks, heavy/bus	0.75	WHO
	1.5	VECP, Manila
	0.93	USEPA
	1.2	Bosch
	2.1	Williams

Note: Relevant as a basis for selection of factors to be used in South-East Asian cities.

Table 2: Selected emission factors (g/km) for particles from road vehicles used in URBAIR study

Vehicles class	Gasoline	Diesel
Passenger cars/taxis	0.20	0.6
Utility vehicles/light trucks	0.33	0.9
Motorcycles/tricycles	0.50	
Trucks/buses		2.0

- Motorcycles, 4-stroke: The emission factor is much less than for 2-stroke engines. The Weaver report gives 0.08 g/km, while 0.029 g/km is given by the VWS study in Indonesia (Bosch, 1991).

Diesel:

- Passenger cars, taxis: The factor of 0.6 g/km given by the VECP Manila is chosen, since it is based on measurements of smoke emission from vehicles in traffic in Manila. The 0.45 g/km of USEPA/WHO was taken to represent typically maintained vehicles in Western Europe and the United States, as also measured by Larssen and Heintzenberg (1983) on Norwegian vehicles. This is supported by the Williams' factor of 0.37 g/km for Australian vehicles.
- Utility trucks: The USEPA and the VECP Manila study give similar emission factors, about 0.9 g/km.
- Heavy duty trucks/buses: The factors given range from 0.75 g/km to 2.1 g/km. It is clear that "smoking" diesel trucks and buses may have emission factors even much larger than 2 g/km. In the COPERT emission data base of the European Union (), factors as large as 3-5 g/km are used for "dirty" city buses. Likewise, based on relationships between smoke meter reading (e.g. Hartridge smoke units, HSU) and mass emissions, it can be estimated that a diesel truck with a smoke meter reading of 85 HSU, as measured typically on Kathmandu trucks and buses (Rajbahak and Joshi, 1993), corresponds to an emission factor of roughly 8 g/km!

As opposed to this, well maintained heavy duty diesel trucks and buses have an emission factor of 0.7-1 g/km.

As a basis for emission calculations for South-East Asian cities we choose an emission factor of 2 g/km. This corresponds to some 20 percent of the diesel trucks and buses being "smoke belchers". A larger fraction of "smoke belchers", such as in Kathmandu, will result in a larger emission factor.

FUEL COMBUSTION

Oil. The particle emission factors suggested by USEPA (AP 42) is taken as a basis for calculating emissions from combustion of oil in South-East Asian cities. The factors are given in Table 3.

Table 3: Emission factors for oil combustion (kg/m³)

	Emission factor	
	Uncontrolled	Controlled
Utility boilers:		
Residual oil ^{a)}		
Grade 6	1.25(S)+0.38	×0.008 (ESP)
Grade 5	1.25	×0.06 (scrubber)
Grade 4	0.88	×0.2 (multicyclone)
Industrial/commercial boilers:		
Residual oil	(as above)	×0.2 (multicyclone)
Distillate oil	0.24	
Residential furnaces:		
Distillate oil	0.3	

Note: S: Sulfur content in % by weight

a): Another algorithm for calculating the emission factors is as follows:
7.3xA kg/m³, where A is the ash content of the oil.

Source: USEPA (1985).

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APPENDIX 6

POPULATION EXPOSURE CALCULATIONS

The basis for the calculations of the exposure of the Bombay population to TSP is the following:

1. The population distribution, calculated per km² as described in Appendix 2, Chapter 2, and shown in Figure 2 in that appendix.
2. The TSP distribution in Bombay, calculated by dispersion modeling as annual average concentration in km² grids (city background) described in the main report.

These two distributions are combined, and give an estimate of the residential exposure frequency distribution shown in Table 1 of this Appendix, Columns 1. and 2.

This residential exposure is modified to account for additional roadside exposure experienced by drivers, commuters and roadside workers. This modification is done in the following way --

- 300,000 drivers are given fairly high annual exposures,
 - 100,000 at 195 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
 - 100,000 at 205 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
 - 100,000 at 215 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
- 1,500,000 commuters are given a moderately high annual exposure (see 3rd column, Table 1),
 - 500,000 at 125 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
 - 500,000 at 155 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
 - 500,000 at 175 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

--which is thought to correspond to commuting on intermediate, high and very high traffic density roads.

These 1.8 million people are then subtracted from the residence distribution, somewhat arbitrarily at equal rate from exposure classes between 95 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and 185 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (see 4th column, Table 1), i.e. the residents of the commuters and drivers are thought to be in moderately-to-fairly highly exposed areas.

This modification gives the total exposure frequency distribution of Table 2, column 5.

Columns 6 and 7 of Table 1 give the resulting cumulative distributions.

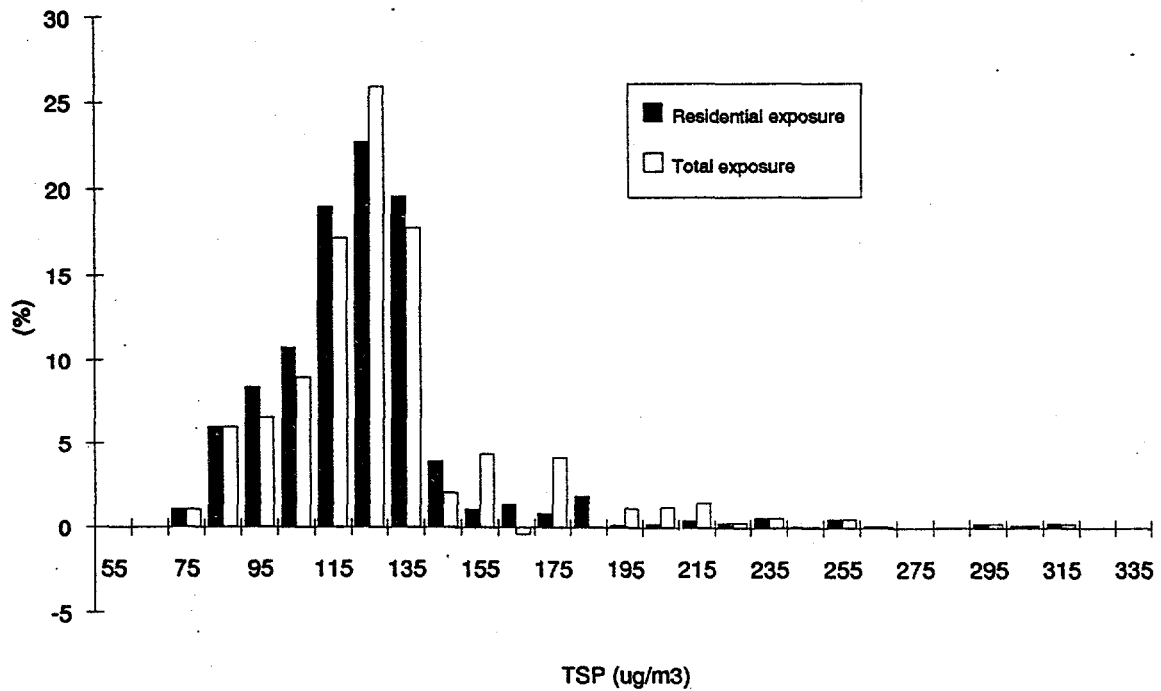
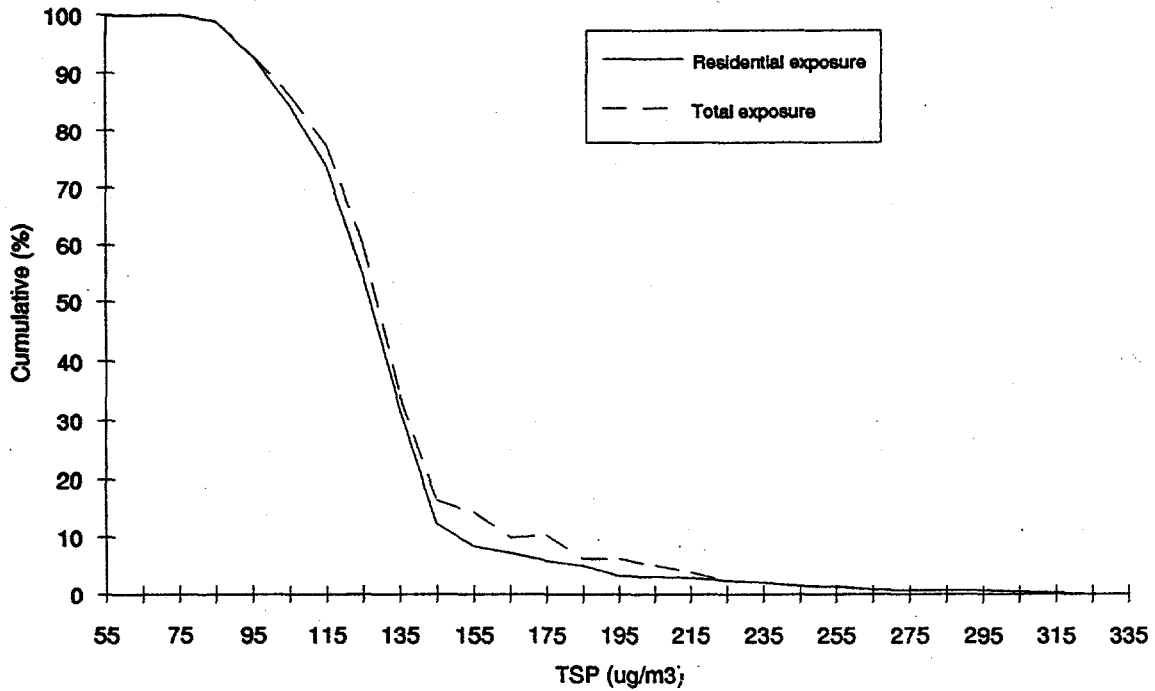
Figure 1 shows the calculated exposure distributions.

The residential distribution show that most people are exposed to annual concentrations between 110-140 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (annual average TSP). Small fractions of the population are exposed to higher concentrations near specific particle sources, which are stone quarries. The roadside exposure causes a considerably increased exposure for a considerable part of the population.

Table 1: Calculated distributions of population exposure to TSP in Bombay, 1993 (annual average, $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)

Exposure class (TSP, $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Residential exposure, freq. distr.	Traffic exposure modification		Total exposure freq.distr.	Cumulative distr.	
		Add.	Subtr.		Residential	Total
55	0.0			0.0	99.843	99.873
65	0.0			0.0	99.843	99.873
75	1.085			1.085	99.843	99.873
85	6.007			6.007	98.758	98.788
95	8.405		1.83	6.575	92.751	92.781
105	10.800		1.83	8.970	84.346	86.206
115	19.008		1.83	17.178	73.546	77.236
125	22.662	5.09	1.83	25.922	54.538	60.058
135	19.600		1.83	17.770	31.876	34.136
145	3.900		1.83	2.070	12.276	16.366
155	1.100	5.09	1.83	4.360	8.376	14.296
165	1.400		1.83	-0.430	7.276	9.936
175	0.846	5.09	1.83	4.106	5.876	10.366
185	1.868		1.83	0.038	5.03	6.260
195	0.143	1.02		1.163	3.162	6.222
205	0.218	1.02		1.238	3.019	5.059
215	0.466	1.02		1.486	2.801	3.821
225	0.302			0.302	2.335	2.335
235	0.606			0.606	2.033	2.033
245	0.093			0.093	1.427	1.427
255	0.518			0.518	1.334	1.334
265	0.108			0.108	0.816	0.816
275	0.0			0.0	0.708	0.708
285	0.020			0.020	0.708	0.708
295	0.270			0.270	0.688	0.688
305	0.152			0.152	0.418	0.418
315	0.266			0.266	0.266	0.266
325	0.0			0.0	0.0	0.0
335	0.0			0.0	0.0	0.0

Figure 1: Calculated distributions of population exposure to TSP in Bombay, 1993 (annual average)



APPENDIX 7
SPREADSHEET FOR CALCULATING
EFFECTS OF CONTROL MEASURES
ON EMISSIONS

SPREADSHEET FOR CALCULATING EFFECTS OF CONTROL MEASURES ON EMISSIONS

Emissions spreadsheet

The spreadsheet is shown in Figure 1. (Example: TSP emissions, Greater Bombay, Base Case Scenario, 1992.) Figure 2 shows emission contributions in absolute and relative terms.

The purpose of the spreadsheet is to calculate modified emission contributions, due to control measures, such as:

- new vehicle technology
- improved emission characteristics, through measures on existing technology
- reduced traffic activity/fuel consumption
- other.

The emissions are calculated separately for large point sources (with tall stacks) and for area sources and smaller distributed point sources. The reason is that air pollution concentrations and population exposures are calculated differently for these two types of source categories.

The columns and rows of the worksheet are as follows:

Columns:

- a) q : Emission factor, g/km for vehicles, kg/m³ or kg/ton for fuel combustion and process emissions. For vehicles, emission factors are given for "existing" and "new" technology.
- b) F,T: Amount of "activity"
 - T (vehicle km) for traffic activity
 - F (m³ or ton) for fuel consumption in industrial production.
- c) qT, qF : Base case emissions, tons, calculated as product of columns a) and b).
- d) f_q, f_F, f_T, f_- : Control measures. Relative reduction of emission factor (f_q), amount (f_F, f_T) or other (f_-) resulting from control measures.
- e) $qFf_qf_Ff_-$: Modified emissions, due to control measures.
- f) $d(qFf_qf_Ff_-)$: Relative emission contributions from each source, per source category:
 - vehicles
 - fuel combustion
 - industrial processes
 - miscellaneous
- g) $d(qFf_qf_Ff_-)$: Relative emissions contributions, all categories summed.

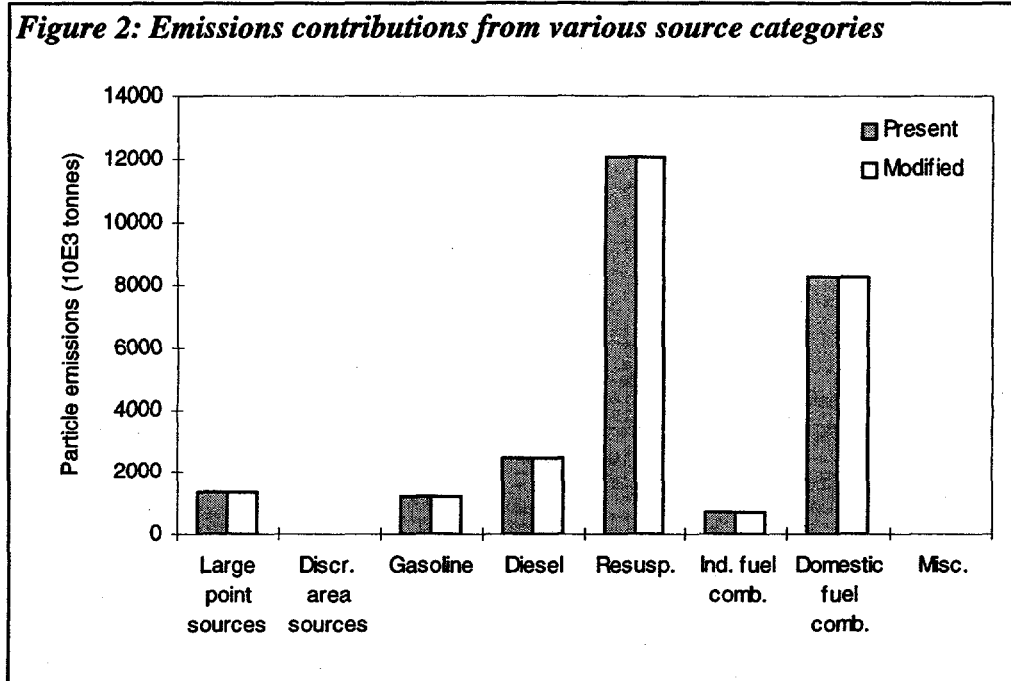
Rows:

- a) Separate rows for each source type and category, "existing" and "new" technology.
- b) "Background": Fictitious emissions, corresponding to an extra-urban background concentration.
- c) Modified emission/emissions: Ratio between modified and base case emissions.

Figure 1: URBAIR spreadsheet for emissions calculations, Greater Bombay, TSP base case, 1992

		Emission factor	Amount	Base-case Emissions	Control measures			Modified emissions	Relative emissions per category	Relative emissions total
LARGE POINT SOURCES										
		q	F	qF	f _q	f _F	f ₋	qF f _q f _F f ₋	(dqF f _q f _F)	(dqF f _q f _F)tot
		(kg/t)	(10E3 t/a)	(tonnes)				(10E3 tonnes)	(percent)	(percent)
Power plant	LSHS	0.10	927	93	1.00	1.00	1.00	93		6.7
	Coal	0.50	298	149	1.00	1.00	1.00	149		10.8
	Gas	0.06	496	30	1.00	1.00	1.00	30		2.2
Petrochem. ind.	LSHS	0.28	279	78	1.00	1.00	1.00	78		5.6
Large/med. ind.	LSHS	0.28	164	46	1.00	1.00	1.00	46		3.3
	FO	5.40	183	988	1.00	1.00	1.00	988		71.4
Sum large point sources				1384				1384		100.0
Modified emissions/emissions, point sourc.								1		
DISCRETE AREA SOURCES										
Waste dumps					1.00	1.00	1.00			
Stone crushers					1.00	1.00	1.00			
Sum discrete area sources				0.00				0		
Modified emissions/emissions, discr. area sourc.										
DISTRIBUTED AREA SOURCES										
Vehicles										
		q	T	qT	f _q	f _T	f ₋	qT f _q f _T f ₋	(dqT f _q f _T)	(dqT f _q f _T)tot
		(g/tm)	(10E9 veh/m/a)	(tonnes)				(10E3 tonnes)	(percent)	(percent)
Gasoline exhaust										
	Cars, taxis	0.20	2.46	492	1	1	1	492	13.4	2.0
	MC/TC	0.50	1.47	735	1	1	1	735	20.0	3.0
Sum gasoline				1227				1227		5.0
Modified emissions/emissions, gasoline								1		
Diesel exhaust										
	Cars, taxis	0.6	1.27	762	1	1	1	762	20.8	3.1
	Trucks	2.0	0.62	1240	1	1	1	1240	33.8	5.0
	Buses	2.0	0.22	440	1	1	1	440	12.0	1.8
Sum diesel				2442				2442	100.0	9.9
Modified emissions/emissions, diesel								1		
Sum total vehicle exhaust				3669				3669		14.8
Modified emissions/emissions, total vehicle exhaust								1.00		
Resuspension		2.0	6.04	12080	1	1	1	12080		48.8
Sum total vehicles (exh.+resusp.)				15749				15749		63.7
Modified emissions/emissions, total vehicles (exh.+resusp.)								1.00		
Fuel combustion										
		q	F	qF	f _q	f _F	f ₋	qF f _q f _F f ₋	(dqF f _q f _F)fuel	(dqF f _q f _F)tot
		(kg/t)	(10E3 t/a)	(tonnes)				(10E3 t/a)	(percent)	(percent)
Industrial										
	LHSH	0.28	56	15.68	1.00	1.00	1.00	15.68	0.2	0.1
	FO	5.40	123	664.20	1.00	1.00	1.00	664.20	7.4	2.7
	LDO	0.28	42	11.76	1.00	1.00	1.00	11.76	0.1	0.0
	Diesel (HSD)	0.28	40	11.20	1.00	1.00	1.00	11.20	0.1	0.0
	LPG	0.06	7	0.42	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.42	0.0	0.0
Sum industrial				703.26				703.26		2.8
Modified emissions/emissions, industrial								1.00		
Domestic										
	Wood	15.00	293	4395.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	4395.00	48.9	17.8
	SKO	0.06	480	28.80	1.00	1.00	1.00	28.80	0.3	0.1
	LPG	0.06	233	13.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	13.98	0.2	0.1
	Coal	10.00		0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.0	0.0
	Dung	10.00		0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.0	0.0
	Refuse	37.00	104	3848.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	3848.00	42.8	15.6
Sum domestic				8285.78				8285.78		33.5
Modified emissions/emissions, domestic								1.00		
Sum fuel combustion				8989.04				8989.04	100.0	36.3
Modified emissions/emissions, fuel								1.00		
Miscellaneous										
		q	M	qM	f _q	f _M	f ₋	qM f _q f _M f ₋	(dqM f _q f _M)misc	(dqM f _q f _M)tot
									(percent)	(percent)
Construction										
Sum miscellaneous				0	1	1	1	0	0.0	0.0
Modified emissions/emissions, misc.								#DIV/0!		
Sum total distributed area sources				24738.04				24738.04		100.00
Modified emissions/emissions, distr. area sources								1.00		

Figure 2: Emissions contributions from various source categories



APPENDIX 8: PROJECT DESCRIPTIONS, LOCAL CONSULTANTS

PROJECT DESCRIPTION REGARDING AIR QUALITY ASSESSMENT

Information should be collected regarding the items described below. The information to be collected *shall go beyond* the information contained in the material referenced in the Draft Report from NILU and Institute of Environmental Studies (IES) of the Free University of Amsterdam prepared for the Workshop, and summarized in that report.

Available information shall be collected regarding the following items, and other items of interest for Air Quality Management System Development in Bombay:

- Meteorological measurements in and near the city.
- Activities/population data for Bombay:
 - Fuel Consumption data:
 - Total fuel consumption (1) per type (high/low sulfur oil, coal, gas, firewood and other biomass fuels, other) and (2) per sector (industry, commercial, domestic)
 - Industrial plants:
 - Location (on map), type/process, emissions, stack data (height, diameter, effluent velocity and temperature)
 - Vehicle statistics:
 1. number of vehicles in each class (passenger cars, small/medium/large trucks, buses, motorcycles (2- and 3-wheels, 2- and 4-stroke));
 2. Age distribution;
 3. Average annual driving distance per vehicle class.
 - Traffic data:
 - Definition of the main road network marked on map.
 - Traffic data for the main roads:
 1. annual average daily traffic (vehicles/day)
 2. traffic speed (average, and during rush hours)
 3. vehicle composition (passenger cars, motorcycles, trucks/buses).
 - Population data:
 - Per city district (as small districts as possible)
 1. total population;
 2. age distribution.

- Air pollution emissions
 - Emission inventory data (annual emissions)
 1. per compound (SO₂, NO_x, particles in size fractions: <2 µg, 2-10 µg, >10 µg, VOC, lead);
 2. emissions per sector (industry, transport, domestic, etc.).
- Air pollution data:
 - concentration statistics per monitoring station:
 1. annual average, 98 percentile, maximum concentrations (24-hour, 1 hour);
 2. trend information;
 3. methods description, and quality control information on methods.
- Dispersion modeling: Reports describing studies and results.
- Air pollution laws and regulations: Summary of existing laws and regulations.
- Institutions:
 - Description of existing institutions working in and with responsibilities within the air pollution sector, regarding:
 1. monitoring,
 2. emission inventories,
 3. law making,
 4. enforcement.
 - The information shall include:
 1. responsibilities and tasks of the institution,
 2. authority,
 3. manpower,
 4. expertise,
 5. equipment (monitoring, analysis, data, hard/software),
 6. funds.

It is important that the gathering of information is *as complete as possible* regarding each of the items, so that we have a basis of data which is as updated and complete as possible. Remember that this updated completed information database is to form the basis for an action plan regarding Air Quality Management in Bombay. Such an action plan will also include the need to collect more data. In that respect, it is very important that the gathering of existing data is *complete*.

PROJECT DESCRIPTION REGARDING DAMAGE ASSESSMENT AND ECONOMIC VALUATION

URBAIR: topics for research

Physical impacts

1. Describe available studies on relations between air pollution and health.
2. Decide on the acceptability of dose-effect relationships from U.S.A.
 - a) Mortality: 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ TSP leads to 0.682 (range: 0.48-0.89) percentage change in mortality.
 - b) Work loss days (WLD): 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ TSP leads to 0.00145 percentage change in WLD.
 - c) Restricted activity days (RAD): 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ TSP leads to 0.0028 percentage change in RAD per year.
 - d) Respiratory hospital diseases (RHD): 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ TSP leads to 5.59 (range: 3.44-7.71) cases of RHD per 100,000 persons per year.
 - e) Emergency room visits (ERV): 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ TSP leads to 12.95 (range: 7.1-18.8) cases of ERV per 100,000 persons per year.
 - f) Bronchitis (children): 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ TSP leads to 0.00086 (range: 0.00043-0.00129) change in bronchitis.
 - g) Asthma attacks: 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ TSP leads to 0.0053 (range: 0.0027-0.0079) change in daily asthma attacks per asthmatic persons.
 - h) Respiratory symptoms days (RSD): 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ TSP leads to 1.13 (range: 0.90-1.41) RSD per person per year.
 - i) Diastolic blood pressure (DBP): change in DBP = 2.74 ($[\text{Pb in blood}]_{\text{old}} - [\text{Pb in blood}]_{\text{new}}$) with $[\text{Pb in blood}]$ is blood lead level ($\mu\text{g}/\text{dl}$).
 - j) Coronary heart disease (CHD): change in probability of a CHD event in the following ten years is --

$$[1 + \exp\{-4.996 + 0.030365(\text{DBP}_1)\}]^{-1} - [1 + \exp\{-4.996 + 0.030365(\text{DBP}_2)\}]^{-1}$$
 - i) Decrement IQ points: IQ decrement = 0.975 x change in air lead ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)

Calculation example:

- Let population be 10 million people.
 - Let threshold value of TSP be 75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (the WHO guideline).
 - Let the concentration TSP be 317 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.
 - ⇒ Concentration - threshold = 317 - 75 = 242 = 24.2 (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).
 - ⇒ Change in mortality = 24.2 x 0.682 = 16.5%.
 - Let crude mortality be 1% per year.
 - ⇒ Crude mortality = 100,000 people per year.
 - ⇒ Change in mortality due to TSP = 16.5% of 100,000 people = 16,500 people per year.
3. For those dose-effect relationships that are acceptable, base value must be gathered, e.g.:
 - a) crude mortality
 - b) present work days lost

Valuation

1. Mortality.

a) *Willingness to Pay*. In the United States, research has been carried out on the relation between risks of jobs and wages. It appeared that 1 promille of change in risk of mortality leads to a wage difference of ca. US\$1,000. If this figure is applicable to all persons of a large population (10 million), the whole population values 1 promille change in risk of mortality at $US\$1,000 \times 10 \times 10^6 = \10 billion. An increase in risk of 1 promille will lead to ca. 10,000 death cases, so per death case the valuation is US\$1 million. It should be decided if in other countries, c.q. cities, this valuation should be corrected for wage differences (e.g. if the average wage is 40 times lower than in the United States the valuation of 1 death case is US\$25,000). If this approach is acceptable, the only information needed is average wage.

b) *Production loss*. If the approach of willingness to pay is not acceptable, the alternative is valuing human life through production loss, i.e. foregone income of the deceased. Again, the information needed is average wage. Moreover, information is needed on the average number of years that people have a job. However, those without a job should also be assigned a value. An estimate of the income from informal activities can be an indication. Otherwise a value derived from the wages (e.g. half the average wage) can be a (somewhat arbitrary) estimation.

2. *Morbidity*. Estimates are needed for all cases of morbidity of the duration of the illness, so as to derive an estimation of foregone production due to illness. Just as in the case of mortality (B.1.b) wages can be used for valuation of a lost working day. Moreover, the hospital costs and other medical costs are to be estimated. These costs still do not yet include the subjective costs of illness, which can be estimated using the willingness-to-pay approach to pay to prevent a day of illness.
3. *Willingness to pay to prevent a day of illness*. Valuation in the United States, based on surveys among respondents, indicate that the willingness to pay to prevent a day of illness is ca. US\$15. This amount could, just like the amount of willingness to pay for risk to human health, be corrected for wage differences. The acceptability of such a procedure is, perhaps, somewhat lower.
4. *IQ points*. Loss of IQ of children may lead to a lower earning capacity. A U.S. estimate is ca. US\$4,600 per child, per IQ point, summed over the child's lifetime. If this is acceptable, the figure could be corrected for wage differences between the United States and the city.

Other impacts

1. *Buildings*. An estimate by Jackson et al is that prevented cleaning costs per household per year are US\$42 for a reduction in TSP concentration, from 235 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to 115 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. This would imply a benefit of US\$0.35 per household per $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ reduction. This figure could be corrected for wage differences between the United States and the city. If that is acceptable, the information needed is the number of households in the city.
2. *Monuments*. It is difficult to say which value is attached to monuments, as they are often unique and their value is of a subjective character. Nevertheless, the restoration and cleaning costs of monuments could be an indication of the order of magnitude of damage to monuments. Revenue of tourism might also give a certain indication of valuation of future damage to monuments.

Remark

- In most cases, the valuation of damage is not very precise, and certainly not more than an indication of the order of magnitude.

Technological reduction options. To give a reliable estimate of the costs of technological reduction options, one needs a reliable emission inventory in which is included the currently used technologies and the age and replacement period of the installed equipment. In the absence of this, the study by the city team might wish to concentrate on a case study (e.g. traffic, fertilizer industry, large combustion sources.)

- The first step is to identify options. Cooperation with IES is possible, once a case study is identified.
- The second step is to estimate the costs, i.e. investment costs and O&M (operation and maintenance) costs. Based on the economic lifetime of the invested equipment, the investment costs can be transformed to annual costs, using writing-of procedures. Costs will often depend to a large extent on local conditions.
- The third step is to estimate the emission reductions of the various reduction options.
- The fourth step is to rank the options according to cost-effectiveness. For this purpose the various types of pollution have to be brought under a common denominator. A suggestion could be to calculate a weighed sum of the pollutants, using as weights the amount by which ambient standards are exceeded on average.

The calculation of the cost-effectiveness consists then of the calculation of the ratio of reduction over annual cost (R/C). The options with the highest ration R/C are the most cost-effective ones.

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