

Impacts of Eskom's planned non-compliance with South Africa's Minimum Emission Standards on the Gauteng City Region

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Executive Summary

Eskom is applying for wide-ranging postponements and/or suspensions from complying with South Africa's Minimum Emission Standards (MES). This would allow the utility to operate its entire existing fleet without even rudimentary controls for three of the most dangerous pollutants emitted from coal-fired power plants: SO₂, NO_x, and mercury.

As Eskom's coal-fired power plants are among the largest sources of air pollutant emissions in South Africa and globally, the air quality and health impacts of failing to comply with the emission standards are potentially very significant.

The fact that Eskom's highly polluting fleet of coal-fired power stations is largely located within 100km of the densely populated region of Gauteng, is a particular public health concern. We assessed the health impacts of Eskom's emissions on the region in detail, on the level of individual municipalities.

This study compared a scenario of full compliance with the MES after the 5-year delay to 2025, excluding units set to retire by 2030, against a scenario including the various postponements, variations and suspensions sought by Eskom, based on the assumption that all units retire after 50 years of operation - a longer operating life would mean larger excess emissions. The approval of these postponements and exemptions would allow the utility to emit an estimated 19 million tonnes more SO₂, 1 million tonnes more NO_x, and 190,000 tonnes of particulate matter. The failure to install SO₂ controls would increase mercury emissions over the remaining operating life of the power plants by a total of an estimated 200,000 kilograms.

To assess the health impacts of these excess emissions, the Greenpeace Global Air Pollution Unit carried out CALPUFF dispersion modeling closely following the methodology of the modeling used in Eskom's Cost-Benefit Analysis, with the modeling domain expanded to cover most of South Africa's population. Separate model runs were carried out for each of the 15 Eskom power stations, and contributions of SO₂, NO_x and primary PM_{2.5} emissions to ambient PM_{2.5} and NO₂ levels were isolated for each station and each pollutant. This allowed us to project the reductions in ambient air pollution levels at each location of the modeling domain over time, as emission reductions from meeting the MES or implementing Eskom's "Emission Reduction" plan are realized. The resulting 'avoided health impacts' were projected following the Global Burden of Disease methodology for PM_{2.5} health impacts (Stanaway et al 2018) and

WHO recommendations for assessing health impacts from acute NO₂ exposure (WHO 2013). The projections take into account expected population growth (UN DESA 2017) and the epidemiological transition associated with improved health care and an aging population (WHO 2018).

After the commissioning of plants currently under construction, and at current emissions rates for existing plants, emissions from Eskom's coal-fired power plants will cause the following estimated premature deaths every year in Gauteng:

- 130 premature deaths¹ due to increased risk of lower respiratory infections, including in young children
- 30 premature deaths due to increased risk of stroke
- 10 premature deaths due to increased risk of death from diabetes
- 40 premature deaths due to increased risk of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
- 50 premature deaths due to increased risk of ischaemic heart disease, and
- 30 premature deaths due to increased risk of lung cancer associated with chronic PM_{2.5} exposure, and
- 130 premature deaths due to increased risk of death associated with acute NO₂ exposure.

In total, Eskom's coal power plant emissions are responsible for approximately 420 premature deaths (95% confidence interval 330 to 500) per year in Gauteng. These impacts break down into 140 premature deaths in Johannesburg, 120 in Tshwane, 120 in Ekurhuleni, 20 in Sedibeng and 20 in West Rand.

We project that, over the current lifetime of Eskom's coal power stations, the excess emissions allowed if Eskom's application for non-compliance with the MES are fully granted will lead to the following avoidable health impacts in Gauteng, compared with full compliance:

- 860 premature deaths due to increased risk of lower respiratory infections, including in young children
- 300 premature deaths due to increased risk of stroke
- 110 premature deaths due to increased risk of death from diabetes
- 500 premature deaths due to increased risk of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
- 600 premature deaths due to increased risk of ischaemic heart disease, and
- 500 premature deaths due to increased risk of lung cancer associated with chronic PM_{2.5} exposure, as well as
- 190 premature deaths due to increased risk of death associated with acute NO₂ exposure.

In total, an estimated 3,100 premature deaths (95% confidence interval: 2,600 to 3,300 deaths) could be avoided by requiring full compliance with the MES. These impacts break

¹ "Premature deaths" are defined as deaths that would be avoided, based on epidemiological risk models, if exposure to air pollution was reduced.

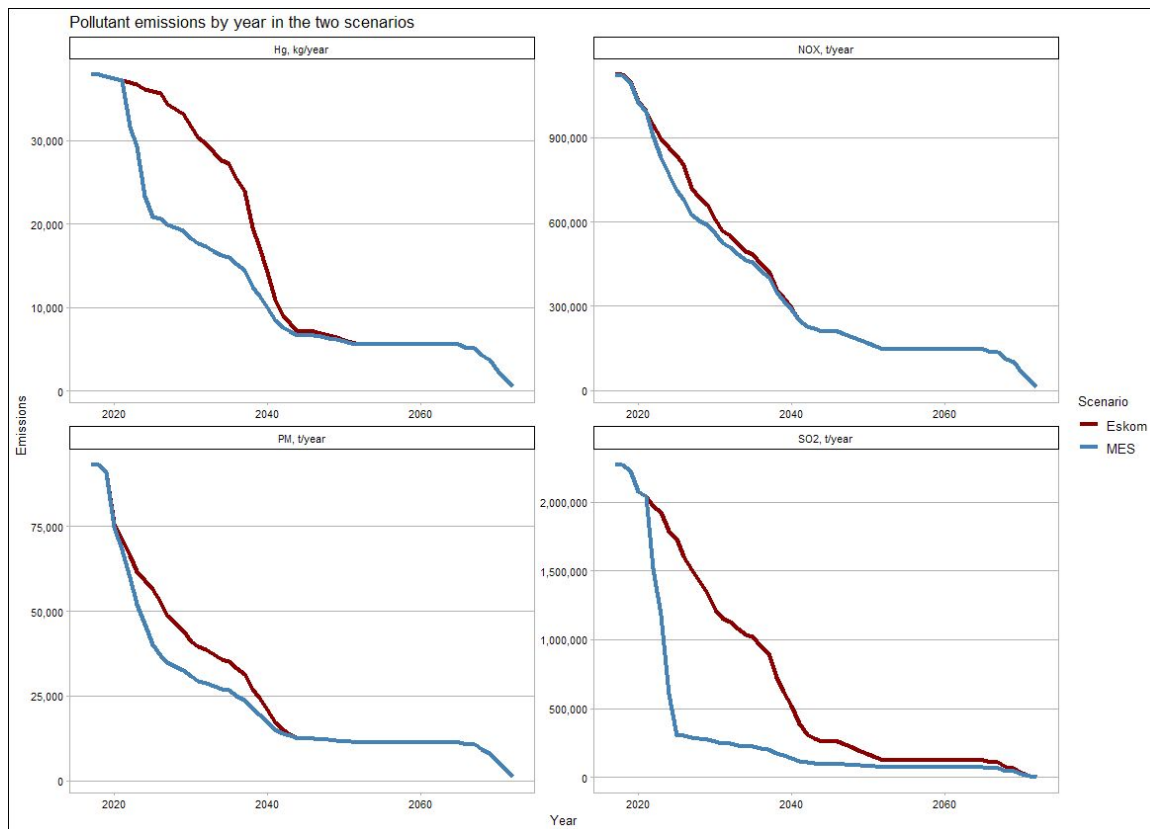
down into 1,000 premature deaths in Johannesburg, 900 in Tshwane, 800 in Ekurhuleni, 150 in Sedibeng and 170 in West Rand.

The power plants with the largest health impact on Gauteng are Medupi and Matimba, due to the prevailing wind direction being from north and northeast.

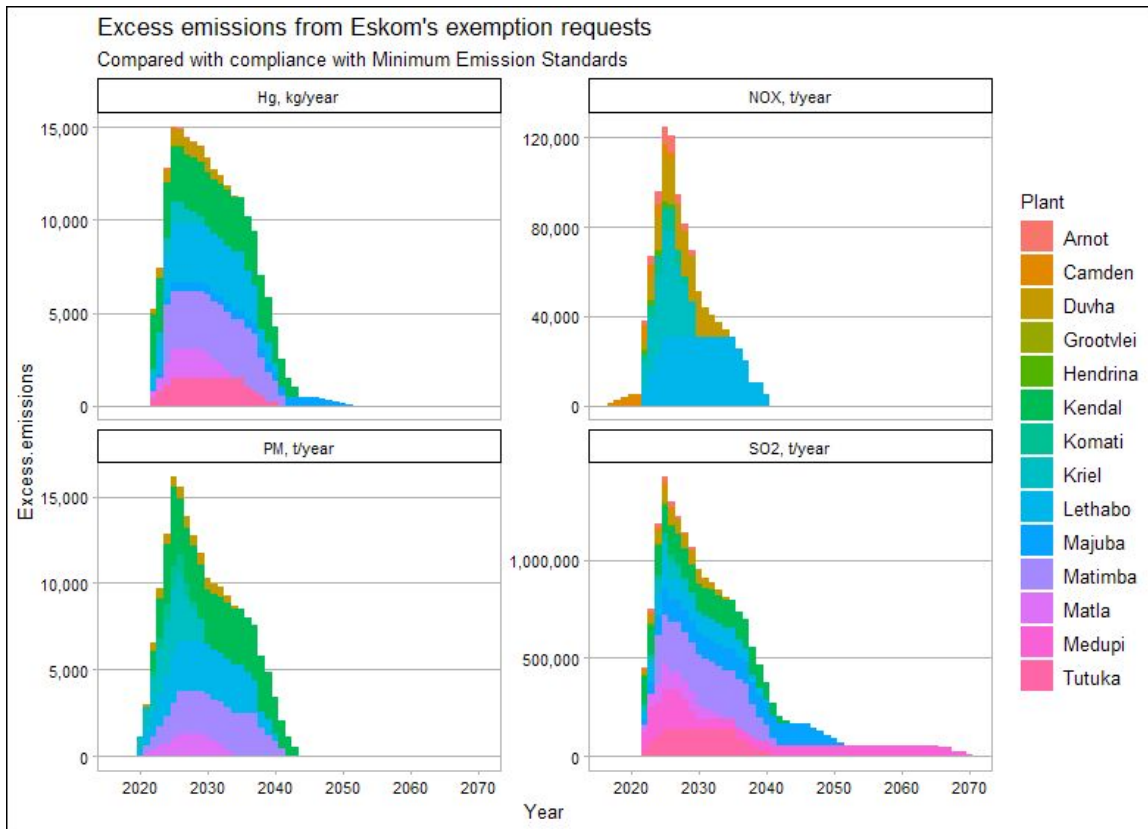
Results

Emissions: Two scenarios are compared, a scenario of full compliance with the MES by 2025 for all units operating beyond 2030, and Eskom's so-called Emission Reduction Plan, which would have emissions from all units except Kusile and Medupi exceed the MES until end-of-life, and Medupi would only comply by 2030. Even in the compliance scenario, units scheduled to close by 2030 are allowed to violate the MES while other units are retrofitted in 2022 to 2025 in a phased manner.

The assumption of completing the retrofits by 2025 is in line with experiences from other emerging economies: China retrofitted approximately 250 gigawatts (GW) of existing coal-fired capacity with Flue-gas Desulfurization systems (FGDs) between 2005 and 2011, bringing the share of capacity with SO₂ controls from 14.3% to 89.1% in six years. These installations were in response to the national emission standards introduced in 2004. Similarly, after the emission standards were updated in 2011 to levels that required selective catalytic NO_x controls (SCR), these retrofits were carried out on approximately 480GW of capacity by 2015, raising penetration from 18.2% to 84.5% in four years. Currently, India is aiming to bring its entire coal fleet into compliance with stricter standards than the MES by 2022, requiring retrofits in much of its 220GW of operating capacity. Eskom exaggerates the costs of compliance with the new source MES for SO₂ at least 5-fold. For example its costing of the installation of FGD equipment is based on outdated research from 2006: before China, India and other emerging countries started deploying FGDs at scale and the costs dropped.



The difference in emissions between these two scenarios is the “excess emissions” allowed by Eskom’s numerous requests for postponements, alternative emission limits and suspensions.



Excess SO2 peaks at over 1 million tonnes per year, and mercury at 15,000 kilograms.

Pollutant	Eskom	MES	Excess emissions	Unit
Hg	455,000	240,000	215,000	kg
NOx	3,570,000	2,550,000	1,020,000	t
PM	551,000	358,000	193,000	t
SO2	26,800,000	7,680,000	19,100,000	t

Total emissions over the remaining operating life of Eskom's fleet in different scenarios.

Air quality: the impacts of these excess emissions are estimated using the state-of-the-art CALPUFF atmospheric modeling system. This model was also used for Eskom's Cost-Benefit study, but with the major difference that the study excluded the majority of South Africa's population from the assessment of the health impacts, and most of the health impact pathways included in Global Burden of Disease and other authoritative studies, capturing only a tiny fraction of the total health impact.

The largest impact on average SO2 and NO2 levels occurs in the area within 10-20 km of each power plant. In contrast, the impact on PM2.5 concentrations is much more widespread, as

most of the concentrations are due to formation of PM_{2.5} particles from SO₂ and NO_x emissions as the flue gases travel downwind. Consequently, the largest contribution to annual PM_{2.5} levels is seen downwind, to the east and southeast of the power plants, but the impact is considerable in the entire region from Limpopo to Johannesburg and Newcastle.

The modeling results indicate that emissions from Eskom coal power plants expose the entire population of Gauteng to exceedances of the World Health Organization guidelines for daily average PM_{2.5} and SO₂ concentrations.

The impact of Eskom's emissions on air quality in Johannesburg is most pronounced in the period from March to July when both north-easterly and westerly winds are more common. The month with the greatest impact is May.

The contributions of each plant's SO₂, NO_x and PM emissions to ambient PM_{2.5} and NO₂ emissions are quantified separately to allow calculation of health impacts under different emissions scenarios.

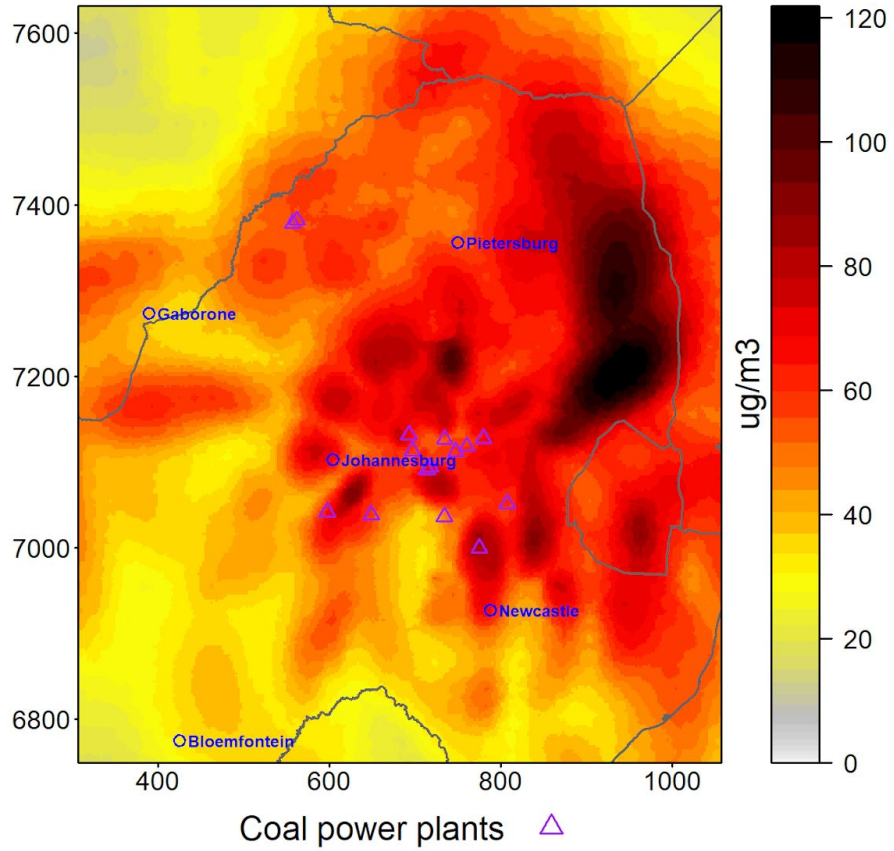
Discussion: The results, obtained using a methodology that closely mimics Eskom's own cost-benefit study, but eliminates its obvious and seemingly intentional shortcomings, show that likely health impacts of Eskom's air pollutant emissions are far larger than reported by the study.

Atmospheric modeling and health impact assessment results have considerable uncertainties, both upwards and downwards, as is apparent from the wide uncertainty ranges; however we believe the results reliably demonstrate the magnitude of the health benefits from requiring Eskom to install basic air pollution controls in its power plants.

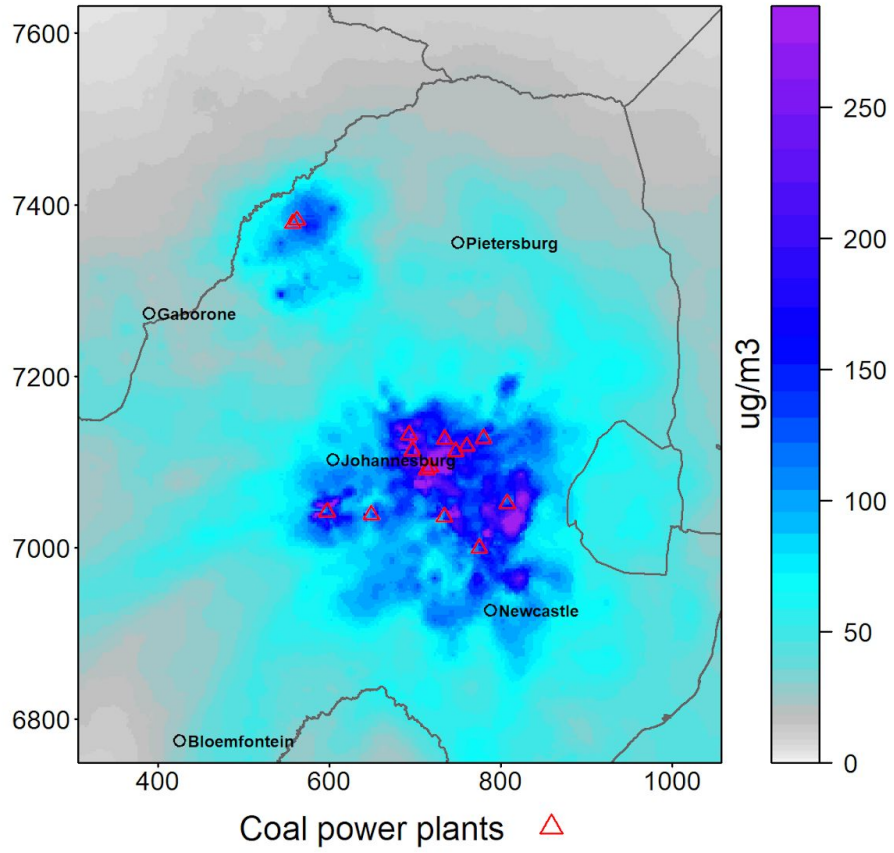
This health impact assessment is an update of the report "*Health impacts and social costs of Eskom's proposed non-compliance with South Africa's air emission standards*" published in 2014 (Myllyvirta 2014). That report was reviewed, among other similar studies on health impacts of power plant emissions in South Africa, by authors from University of Johannesburg and The Nova Institute, who concluded that the study "appears to be a reasonable quantification of the health risk in remote areas, but is probably a large over-estimation of the health risk in more polluted areas," because the exposure-response relationships used "may well not be" applicable in industrialized areas due to the high overall pollution levels (Langerman & Pauw 2018).

For this update of the results, the recommendations of the authors for exposure-response relationships better suited to these conditions were adopted, resulting in lower projected overall health impacts. Furthermore, the risk models used for PM_{2.5} are taken from the latest annual Global Burden of Disease study (2017), which revised risk ratios (RRs) down quite significantly for stroke in particular, based on new epidemiological evidence. This is partially offset by higher estimated population exposure from the more detailed atmospheric modeling, compared with the modeling undertaken in the earlier study (Myllyvirta 2014).

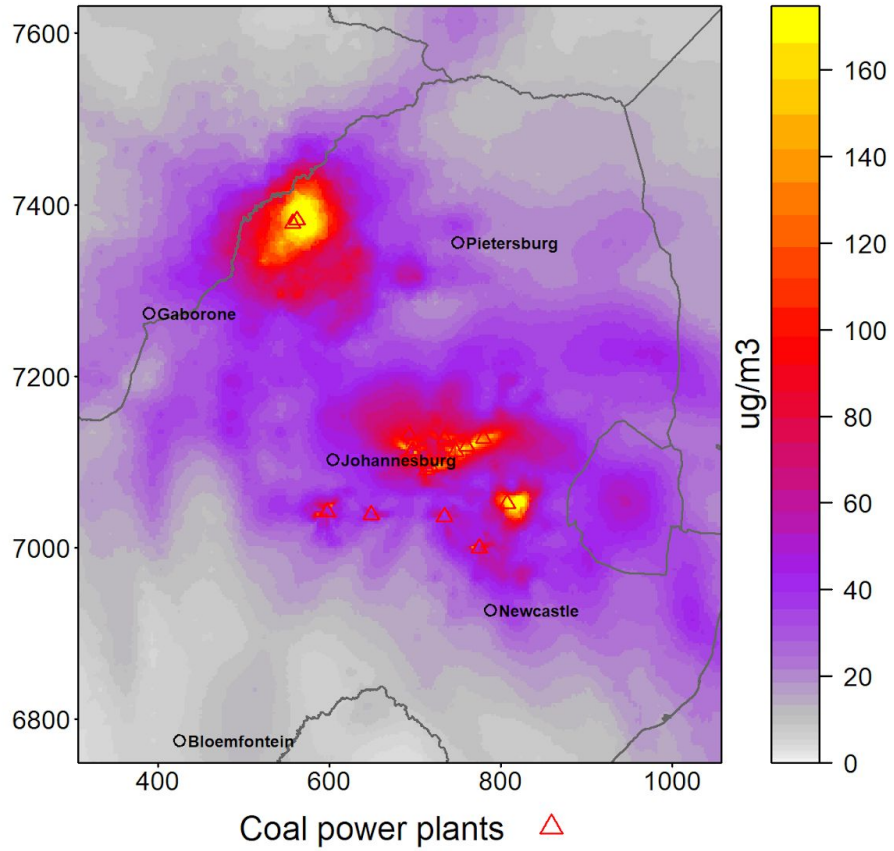
Maximum 24-hour PM2.5 concentration from all Eskom coal plants



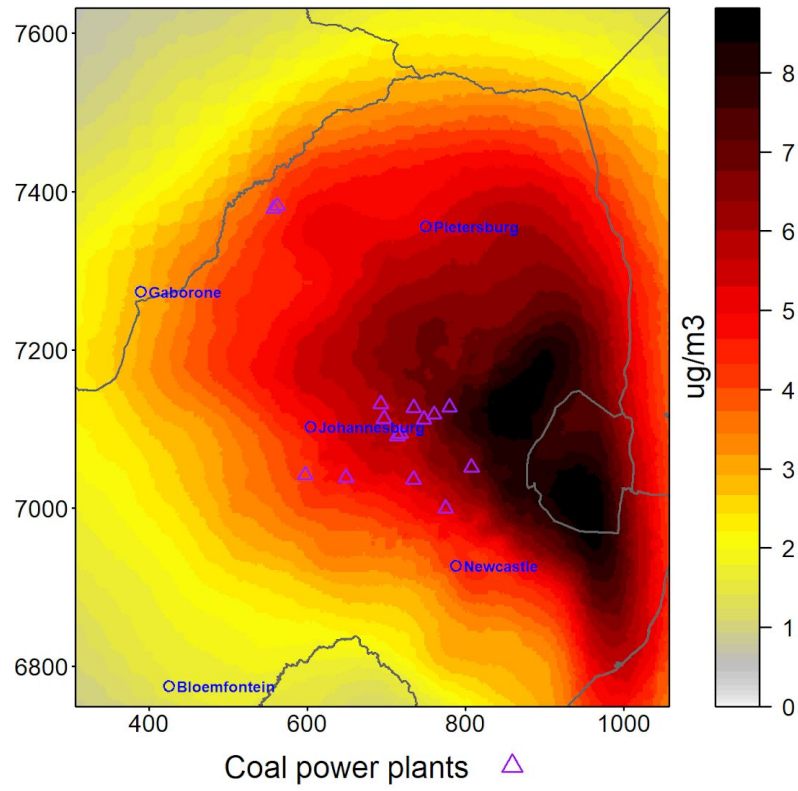
Maximum 1-hour NO2 concentration from all Eskom coal plants



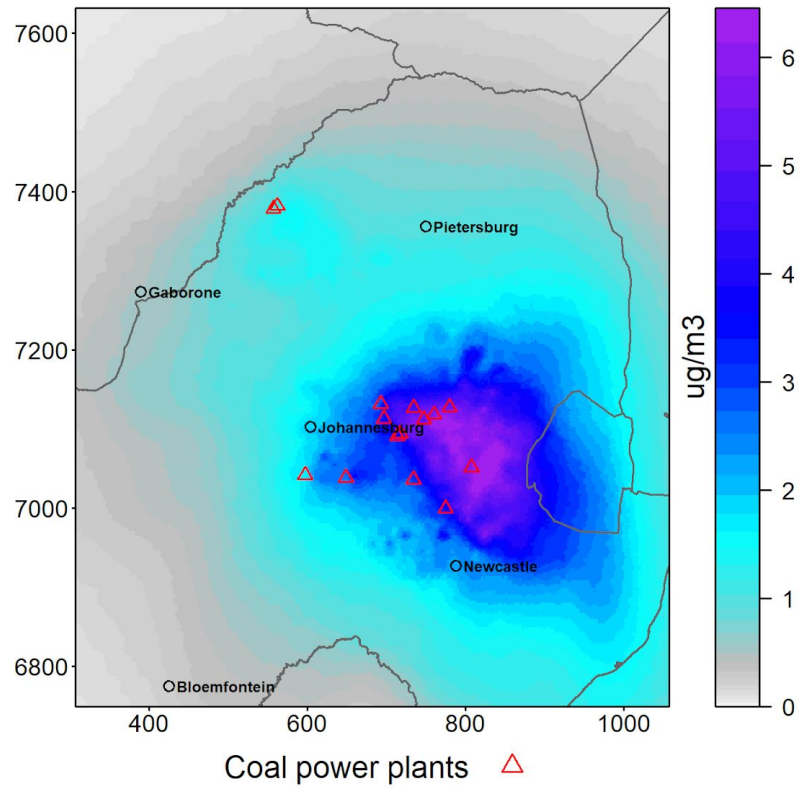
Maximum 24-hour SO₂ concentration from all Eskom coal plants



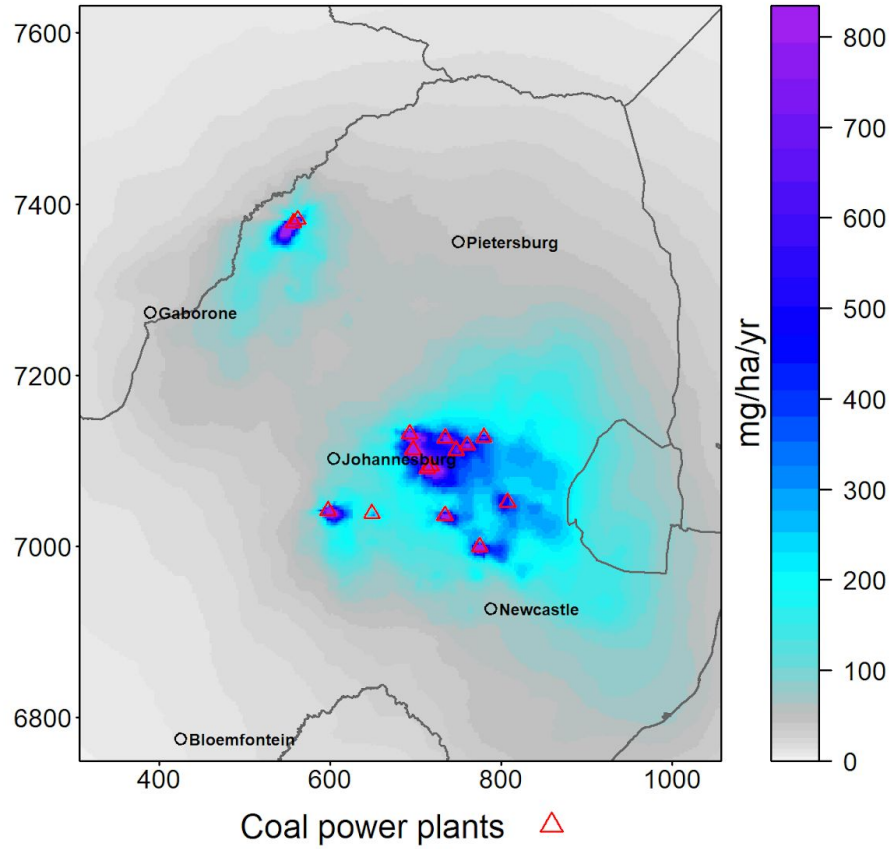
Annual mean PM2.5 concentration from all Eskom coal plants



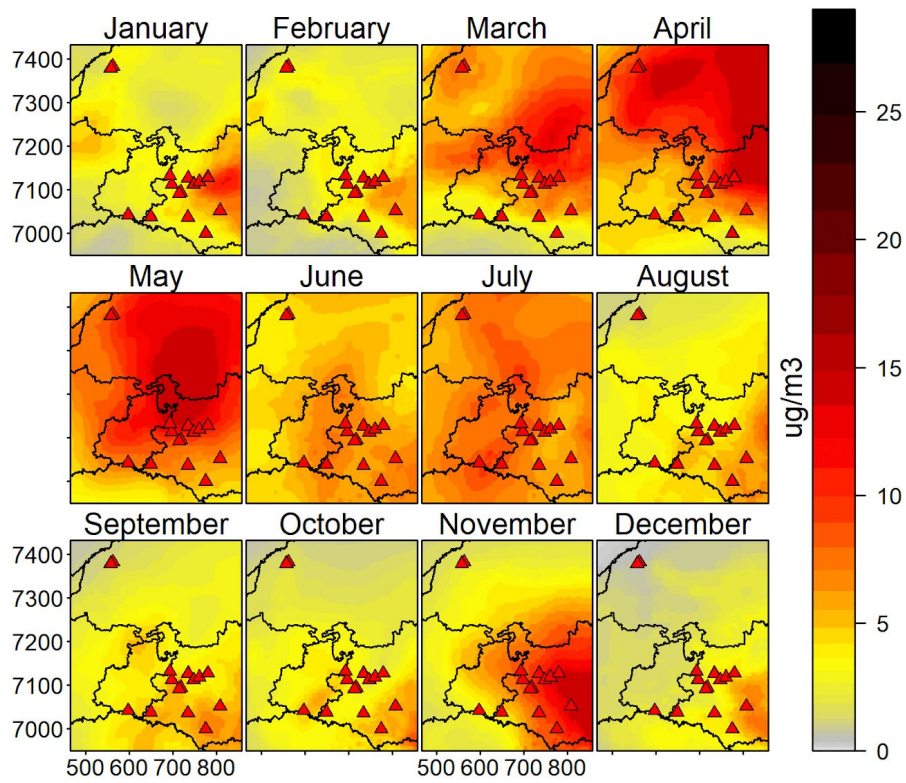
Annual mean NO2 concentration from all Eskom coal plants



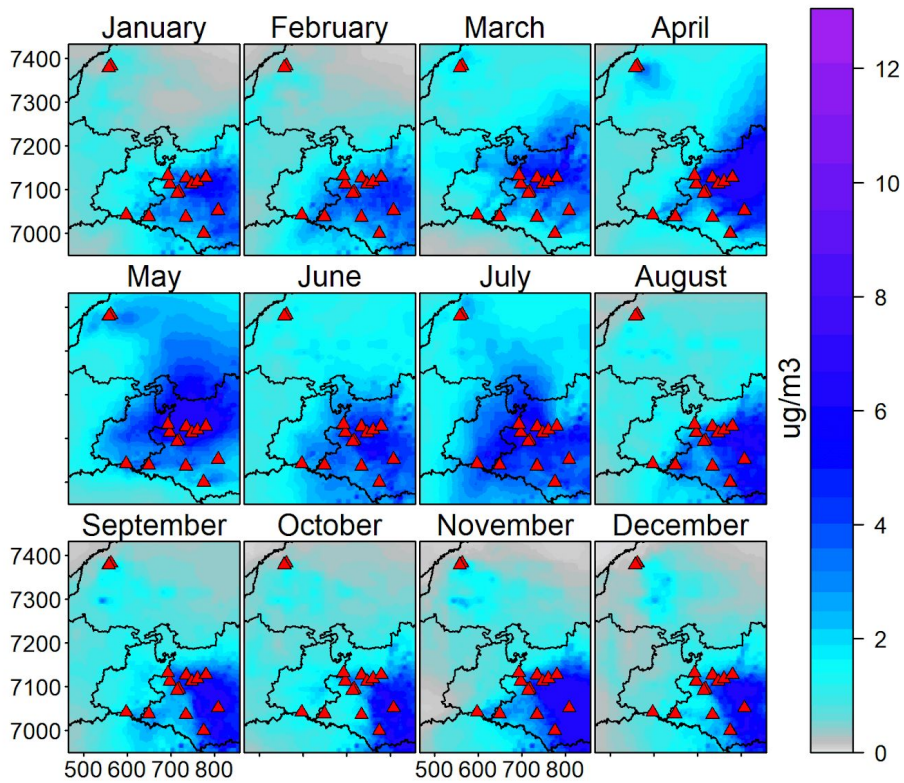
Annual total mercury deposition from all Eskom coal plants



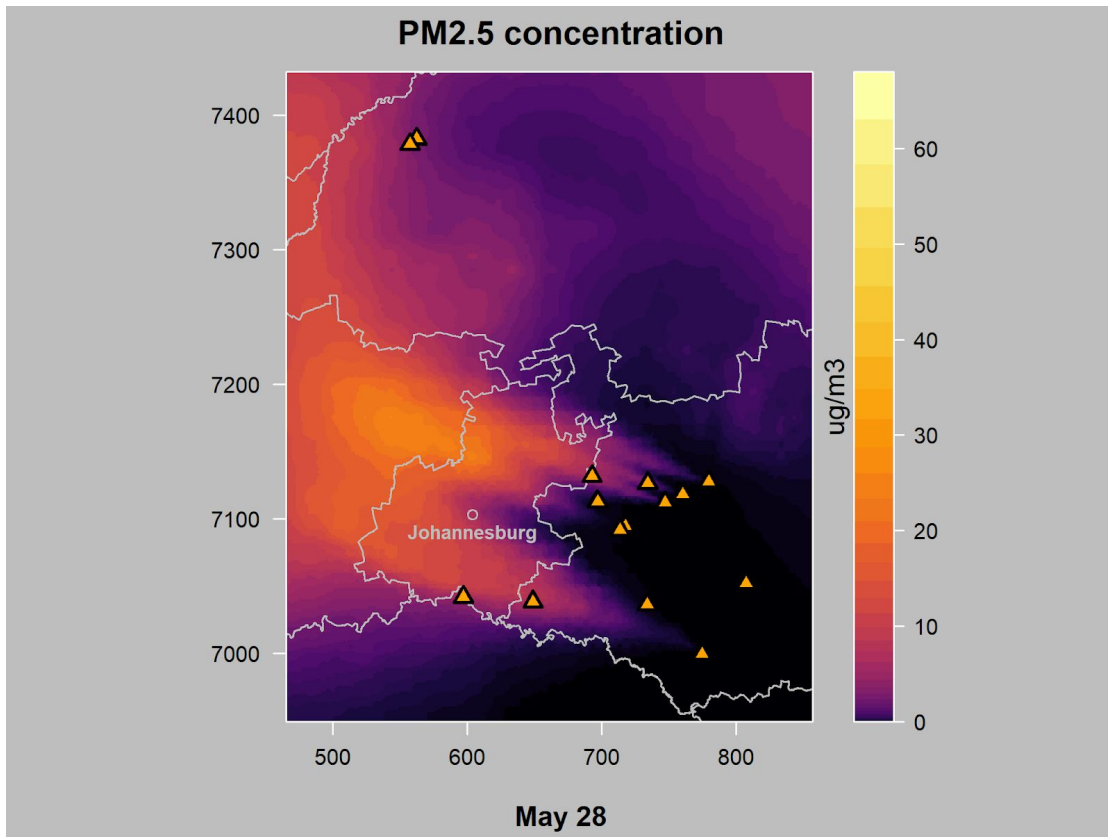
PM2.5 concentration

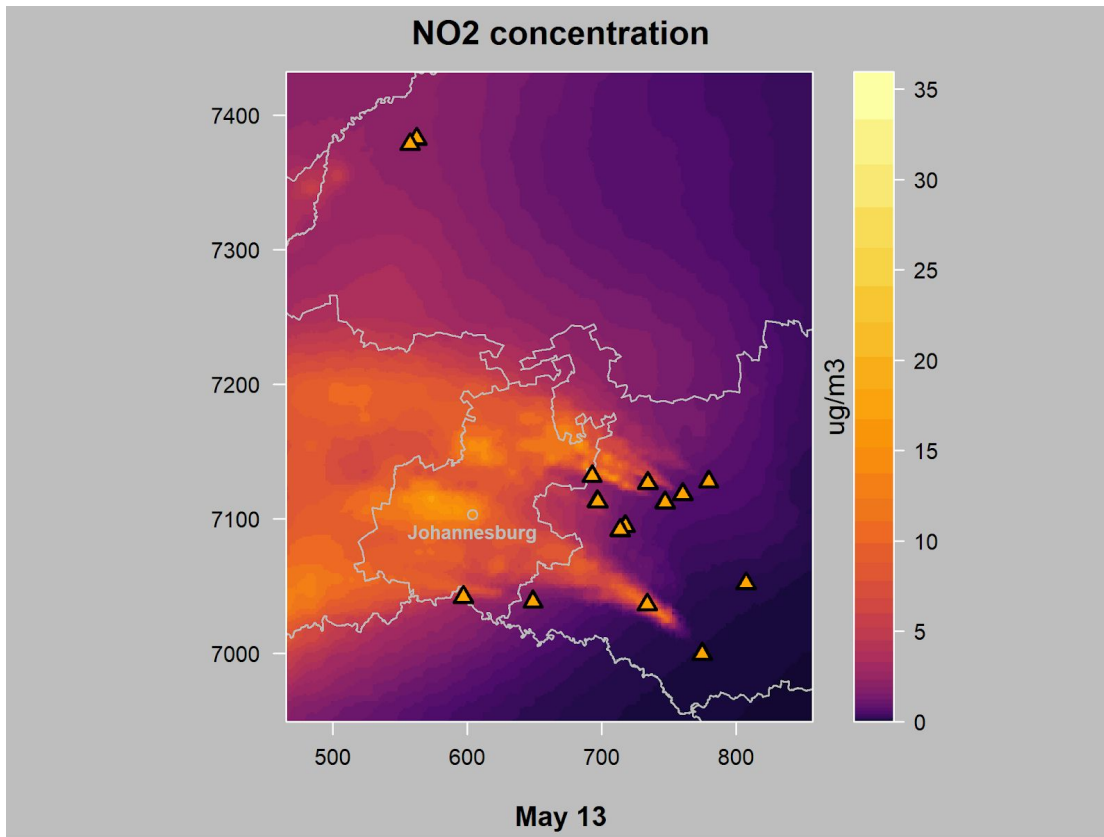


NO2 concentration



Examples of conditions in May in which plumes from the coal-fired power plants in Highveld are transported to Gauteng, causing severe air quality impacts.





Health impacts: The health impacts of the changes in air quality are quantified using the Global Burden of Disease methodology for PM2.5, and WHO recommendations for NO2.

Table 1: Projected health impacts of Eskom’s emissions in the current situation, in Gauteng by municipality

Cause of death	Pollutant	City of Johannesburg	City of Tshwane	Ekurhuleni	Sedibeng	West Rand	Total
Lower respiratory infections	PM2.5	43 (38-47)	40 (38-42)	34 (31-38)	6 (5-7)	7 (7-8)	130 (120-141)
Chronic obstructive	PM2.5	14 (13-15)	13 (12-13)	11 (10-12)	2 (2-2)	2 (2-2)	43 (39-44)

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pulmonary disease							
Diabetes	PM2.5	3 (2-5)	4 (4-5)	2 (2-4)	0 (0-1)	1 (0-1)	10 (9-15)
Ischemic heart disease	PM2.5	16 (15-16)	15 (14-15)	13 (12-13)	2 (2-2)	3 (2-3)	49 (45-50)
Lung cancer	PM2.5	11 (10-11)	9 (8-10)	8 (8-9)	2 (1-2)	2 (2-2)	32 (28-34)
Stroke	PM2.5	8 (6-9)	8 (5-8)	7 (5-7)	1 (1-1)	1 (1-1)	25 (17-27)
All causes	NO2	46 (25-67)	29 (16-43)	42 (23-60)	8 (4-11)	6 (4-9)	132 (72-191)
Total		142 (109-170)	118 (97-136)	118 (90-143)	22 (16-26)	22 (18-27)	421 (330-501)

Table 2: Projected cumulative health impacts of excess emissions from Eskom’s proposed non-compliance with the MES, in Gauteng by municipality

Cause of death	Pollutant	City of Johannesburg	City of Tshwane	Ekurhuleni	Sedibeng	West Rand	Total
Lower respiratory infections	PM2.5	287 (255-311)	263 (254-278)	221 (199-242)	41 (35-44)	48 (46-54)	860 (789-929)
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	PM2.5	168 (154-173)	151 (137-157)	130 (118-133)	22 (22-24)	29 (26-29)	500 (457-516)
Diabetes	PM2.5	32 (23-53)	40 (36-49)	25 (20-41)	4 (3-7)	5 (5-9)	107 (87-159)
Ischemic heart disease	PM2.5	202 (182-203)	183 (166-184)	155 (140-156)	29 (26-29)	34 (30-34)	603 (544-606)
Lung cancer	PM2.5	170 (154-180)	151 (133-161)	130 (118-138)	24 (22-25)	28 (26-30)	504 (452-535)
Stroke	PM2.5	99 (69-104)	90 (61-94)	76 (53-80)	14 (10-15)	17 (11-17)	296 (203-310)
All causes	NO2	67 (37-98)	34 (19-49)	65 (36-95)	14 (8-20)	8 (4-11)	188 (104-273)
Total		1026 (874-1122)	911 (804-973)	803 (683-884)	148 (126-164)	169 (148-184)	3058 (2635-3328)

Table 3: Premature deaths in Gauteng attributed to Eskom coal power plant emissions in the current situation, cases per year

Plant	Central	High	Low
Medupi	82	89	71
Matimba	65	70	56
Lethabo	44	53	33
Kendal	33	39	26
Komati	30	36	22
Matla	28	34	21
Kriel	25	31	19
Tutuka	20	23	16
Duvha	17	21	14
Majuba	17	20	13
Hendrina	16	19	13
Kusile	15	21	10
Grootvlei	11	13	8
Arnot	10	12	8
Camden	10	12	7

Materials and methods

Emissions projections

To model the current situation, annual air pollutant emissions are compiled from Eskom’s Annual Emissions Reports and emissions data reported in Eskom’s MES postponement applications. For Medupi and Kusile, annual emissions are taken from their Environmental Impact Statements, except Kusile SO₂ emissions are calculated based on stated emissions

without flue gas desulfurization and the reported 93% SO₂ removal efficiency in performance tests².

Emissions of SO₂, NO_x and PM in the scenarios are estimated based on reported current annual emissions and current emission limits. In cases where an alternative emission limit is requested until 2020, and this limit is higher than the current limit, the alternative limit is assumed to be representative of current emission control performance. Annual emissions under new, stricter emissions limits are calculated as:

$$[\text{current annual emissions}] * [\text{new emission limit}] / [\text{current emission limit}]$$

The rationale for this calculation is that average pollutant flue gas concentrations have to be significantly below the emission limit value in order to ensure emission limits are consistently met. The ratio of average emission values and emission limit is assumed to stay the same when a new emission limit is applied. In reality, given that the MES are extremely weak by international standards, retrofits are likely to result in significantly lower emissions rates than required by the standards, making the calculation conservative.

The operating rates of each power plant are assumed to stay constant over time. This is another potentially conservative assumption, as operating rates would seem likely to increase substantially in 2030s when a large number of older existing units retire. This would result in higher emissions from the remaining units.

Table 4: Properties of modeled stacks

Power station	Stack	Stack height, m	Effective stack diameter, m	Lat UTM	Lon UTM	Stack exit temperature (°C)	Stack exit velocity, m/s
Arnot	1	193	11	779.601	7127.669	145	27.5
Arnot	2	193	11	779.631	7127.459	145	27.5
Camden	1	154.5	8.74	807.5673	7051.729	150	10
Camden	2	154.5	8.74	807.6571	7051.745	150	10
Camden	3	154.5	8.74	807.737	7051.76	150	10
Camden	4	154.5	8.74	807.836	7051.78	150	10
Duvha	1	300	12.47	734.213	7126.385	120	23.2

²

<https://www.powermag.com/press-releases/eskoms-kusile-wet-flue-gas-desulphurization-plant-achieves-93-removal-efficiency-rate-upon-completion-and-performance-test-evaluation/>

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Duvha	2	300	12.47	734.308	7126.61 2	120	23.2
Grootvlei	1	152	8.99	648.888	7038.36 4	140	19.57
Grootvlei	2	152	8.99	648.924	7038.25 1	140	19.57
Hendrina	1	155.5	11.14	760.383	7118.30 6	128	15.4
Hendrina	2	155.5	11.14	760.304	7118.04 7	128	15.4
Kendal	1	210	13.51	696.808	7112.86	125	27
Kendal	2	210	13.51	697.053	7112.78 6	125	27
Kriel	1	213	14.3	717.541	7094.47 4	130	17
Kriel	2	213	14.3	717.645	7094.27 5	130	17
Komati	1	220	8	747.225	7112.05 2	150	24
Komati	2	220	8	747.348	7111.99 7	145	24
Lethabo	1	275	13.34	597.261	7041.79 8	145	24.7
Lethabo	2	275	13.34	597.029	7041.69 3	145	24.7
Majuba	1	250	12.3	774.816	6999.52 5	125	22
Majuba	2	250	12.3	774.683	6999.30 7	125	22
Matimba	1	250	12.82	562.317	7382.19 9	127.5	22.5
Matimba	2	250	12.82	562.259	7382.44 6	127.5	22.5
Matla	1	213	14.3	713.89	7091.28 6	138	24
Matla	2	275	12.47	713.785	7091.51 9	138	24
Medupi	1	220	15.58846	557.231	7378.55 3	140	18
Medupi	2	220	15.58846	557.271	7378.34 2	140	18
Tutuka	1	275	12.3	733.759	7036.08 8	135	35
Tutuka	2	275	12.3	733.999	7036.10 6	135	35

Kusile	1	250	15.58846	692.3035	7132.023	80	18
Kusile	2	250	15.58846	692.0672	7131.792	80	18

Table 5: Modeled emissions in the ‘current situation’, tonnes per year

Power station	Stack	NOX	SO2	PM
Arnot	1	22864	32406	768
Arnot	2	22864	32406	768
Camden	1	9656	17443	290
Camden	2	9656	17443	290
Camden	3	9656	17443	290
Camden	4	9656	17443	290
Duvha	1	31992	62346	2134
Duvha	2	31992	62346	2134
Grootvlei	1	12376	23939	4084
Grootvlei	2	12376	23929	4084
Hendrina	1	18231	42531	469
Hendrina	2	19751	46177	469
Kendal	1	37967	115019	4591
Kendal	2	37967	92015	4591
Kriel	1	44653	60937	4786
Kriel	2	44653	60937	4786
Komati	1	54179	76910	3326
Komati	2	54179	76910	3326
Lethabo	1	47927	89690	4718
Lethabo	2	47927	89690	4718
Majuba	1	62705	78030	1104
Majuba	2	62705	78030	1104
Matimba	1	33796	154631	2452
Matimba	2	33796	154631	2452
Matla	1	54179	76910	4390.32
Matla	2	54179	76910	2195.16
Medupi	1	35336	205333	215
Medupi	2	35336	205333	2150
Tutuka	1	47166	80108	8581
Tutuka	2	47166	80108	8581
Kusile	1	38827	11327	3532
Kusile	2	38827	11327	3532

The new South African emission control requirements would have significant ancillary mercury control benefits, and hence the failure by Eskom to install the required emission controls would lead to higher mercury emissions than in the case of full compliance.

As Eskom has neglected to report mercury emissions, these are estimated based on UNEP 2009. Meeting the New Source MES is assumed to require the installation of FGDs but not SCRs at all units. Resulting reductions in mercury emissions are estimated based on UNEP 2017.

Table 6: Mercury removal rates assumed for different air pollution control technologies.

ESP	30%
Fabric filter	50%
Fabric filter + FGD	70%

Atmospheric modeling

Atmospheric dispersion modeling for the study was carried out using version 7 (June 2015) of the CALPUFF modeling system. CALPUFF is an advanced non-steady-state meteorological and air quality modeling system adopted by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) in its Guideline on Air Quality Models as the preferred model for assessing long range transport of pollutants and their impacts.

Meteorological data for the simulations was generated by combining two sources: hourly observations from 18 meteorological stations in South Africa and neighboring countries, and prognostic 3-dimensional weather fields generated using the TAPM modeling system, developed by Australia’s national science agency CSIRO, and also used for Eskom’s own cost-benefit study. TAPM uses as its inputs global weather data from the GASP model of the Australian Bureau of Meteorology, combined with higher-resolution terrain data. TAPM outputs were converted into formats accepted by CALPUFF’s meteorological preprocessor, CALMET, using the CALTAPM utility, and the meteorological data were then prepared for CALPUFF execution using CALMET.

CALMET generates a set of time-varying micrometeorological parameters (hourly 3-dimensional temperature fields, and hourly gridded stability class, surface friction velocity, mixing height, Monin-Obukhov length, convective velocity scale, air density, short-wave solar radiation, surface relative humidity and temperature, precipitation code, and precipitation rate) for input to CALPUFF.

Terrain height and land-use data were also prepared using the TAPM system and global datasets made available by CSIRO. Two sets of nested grids with a 50x50 grid size and 30km, 10km and 5km horizontal resolutions and 12 vertical levels was used, centered on Highveld and Limpopo.

It was assumed that 30% of emitted fly ash was PM_{2.5}, and 67.5% PM₁₀, in line with the U.S. EPA (1998) default value for electrostatic precipitators. Particles larger than 10 microns were modeled with a mean aerodynamic diameter of 15 microns. Reported annual emissions were converted into hourly emission rates using monthly and diurnal emissions profiles reported by Eskom.

For modeling mercury, the recommended parameter values from EPA (1997) were adopted. Mercury speciation was based on Lee et al. (2006).

Chemical transformation of sulphur and nitrogen species was modeled using the ISORROPIA/RIVAD chemistry module within CALPUFF. The chemical reaction set requires background pollutant concentration parameters (ozone, ammonia and H₂O₂ levels). For ozone, monitoring data for 2017 was available for 11 stations within the modeling domain. Monthly average background ammonia levels were obtained from a study by North-West university (Martins et al 2007).

As H₂O₂ data was not available, the U.S. EPA default (1ppb) was used, and a sensitivity test was carried out to ensure the results are not sensitive to this assumption by repeating one of the simulations with an 80% lower value; resulting average PM_{2.5} concentrations were 5% lower due to less secondary particle formation, showing that this parameter was not a significant source of uncertainty.

The CALPUFF results were reprocessed using the POSTUTIL utility to repartition different nitrogen species (NO, NO₂, NO₃ and HNO₃) based on background ammonia concentrations.

Health impact assessment

The health impacts of the changes in ambient air pollution concentrations were assessed following the Global Burden of Disease methodology. The basic foundation for the health impact estimates are numeric scientific studies that show that the risk of chronic diseases such as stroke and lung cancer is increased for people who live in areas with higher PM2.5 levels. The Global Burden of Disease project has developed “integrated risk functions” that combine studies covering a very wide range of PM2.5 exposure levels and thereby avoid extrapolating epidemiological results beyond the concentration range in which they were obtained.

The implementation of the GBD methodology followed two steps: first, reproduction of the GBD results for total mortality related to PM2.5 for each grid cell, and second, modifying the PM2.5 concentration to remove the contribution from Eskom power plants, and calculating the change in health impacts.

Health impact assessment was implemented in a 1x1km grid, with atmospheric modeling results interpolated linearly and population data aggregated to the grid. Premature deaths in a given grid cell are calculated as

$Pd = PAF * DR * pop * AF$, and

$PAF(conc) = 1 - 1 / RR(conc)$,

in which $RR(conc)$ is the cause-specific risk ratio for the average PM2.5 concentration $conc$ in the grid cell, based on the non-linear concentration-response function RR integrated for the GBD project from dozens of epidemiological studies in Stanaway et al (2018). PAF is the population attributable fraction, share of deaths from cause c in the relevant age group that are attributable to PM2.5 exposure, DR is the baseline death rate from cause c in the relevant age group, pop is the total population in the grid cell, and age fraction AF is the fraction of population that belongs to the relevant age group (25 years and above for chronic diseases and under 5 years for Acute Respiratory Infections).

Given baseline mean PM2.5 concentration $conc_{base}$, and concentration attributed to the modeled coal-fired power plants $conc_{coal}$, the PAF for the coal plants specifically is obtained as:

$$PAF_{coal} = PAF(conc_{base}) - PAF(conc_{base} - conc_{coal})$$

Put another way, PAF_{coal} is the projected reduction in mortality from a specific cause if the modeled power plant emissions are completely eliminated.

For stroke and ischaemic heart disease, the GBD concentration-response functions are age-specific. Appropriate functions for the entire South African adult population are derived as averages of the age-specific functions weighted by the population share of each age group in South Africa.

To get baseline PM2.5 concentrations we used global gridded PM2.5 data for 2016 derived by combining available ground-level measurements with satellite-based aerosol retrievals and atmospheric model outputs (van Donkelaar et al 2016). Using 2016 baseline concentrations as the basis for future impacts can be seen as conservative, if overall air quality is likely to improve in the future, which would increase the health impacts attributed to the power plants due to the concave shape of the risk functions.

To further apportion the health impacts to individual power plants, the share of total mortality in a given grid cell attributed to emissions of species s from power plant i was calculated as:

$$PAF_{i,s} = PAF_{coal} \times \text{conc}_{i,s} / \text{conc}_{coal}$$

where $\text{conc}_{i,s}$ is the modeled PM2.5 concentration at the given grid cell that is attributable to emissions of s from the power plant i. Apportionment was done linearly rather than using the non-linear function as otherwise results would depend on the order in which impacts are apportioned to different power plants. Obtaining the $PAF_{i,s}$ values for each power plant, pollutant and grid cell enabled us to project the impacts of changes in emissions by scaling each value in proportion to changes in emissions.

For stroke and IHD, the RR function is derived separately for different age groups, at 5-year intervals. The appropriate aggregate RR functions were derived as the mean of age-specific RR function values at each concentration level, weighted by the share of the age group in total cause-specific mortality.

In addition, to PM2.5 health impacts, premature deaths from NO2 exposure were assessed using the risk ratio for daily mortality based on WHO (2013) recommendations, from Mills et al (2016). This choice of risk ratio is conservative as it only includes the short-term effects of PM2.5 exposure; including chronic effects could result in impacts almost 10 times as high current health impacts. However, the effect on projected health impacts of “excess emissions” would be small as these are dominated by the health impacts of excess SO2 emissions.

We obtained current death rates by cause and by country from Global Burden of Disease data (IHME 2018). The projections take into account expected population growth and epidemiological transition associated with improved health care and aging population. High-resolution spatial distribution of population from NASA SEDAC (CIESIN 2018) was used. Birth rates and incidence of low birth weight were obtained from World Bank (undated).

For future projections of health impacts, population growth is assumed to follow the UNPD ‘Medium variant’. Incidence of different causes of death in 2015 is based on WHO Global Health Estimates (2018). For future incidence, the change projected GHE for sub-Saharan Africa is used to adjust the incidences, entailing reductions in baseline child mortality from Lower Respiratory Infections and increases in chronic cardiovascular diseases and cancers for adults.

Concentration-response functions developed for the Global Burden of Disease study and applied to assessing the health impacts.

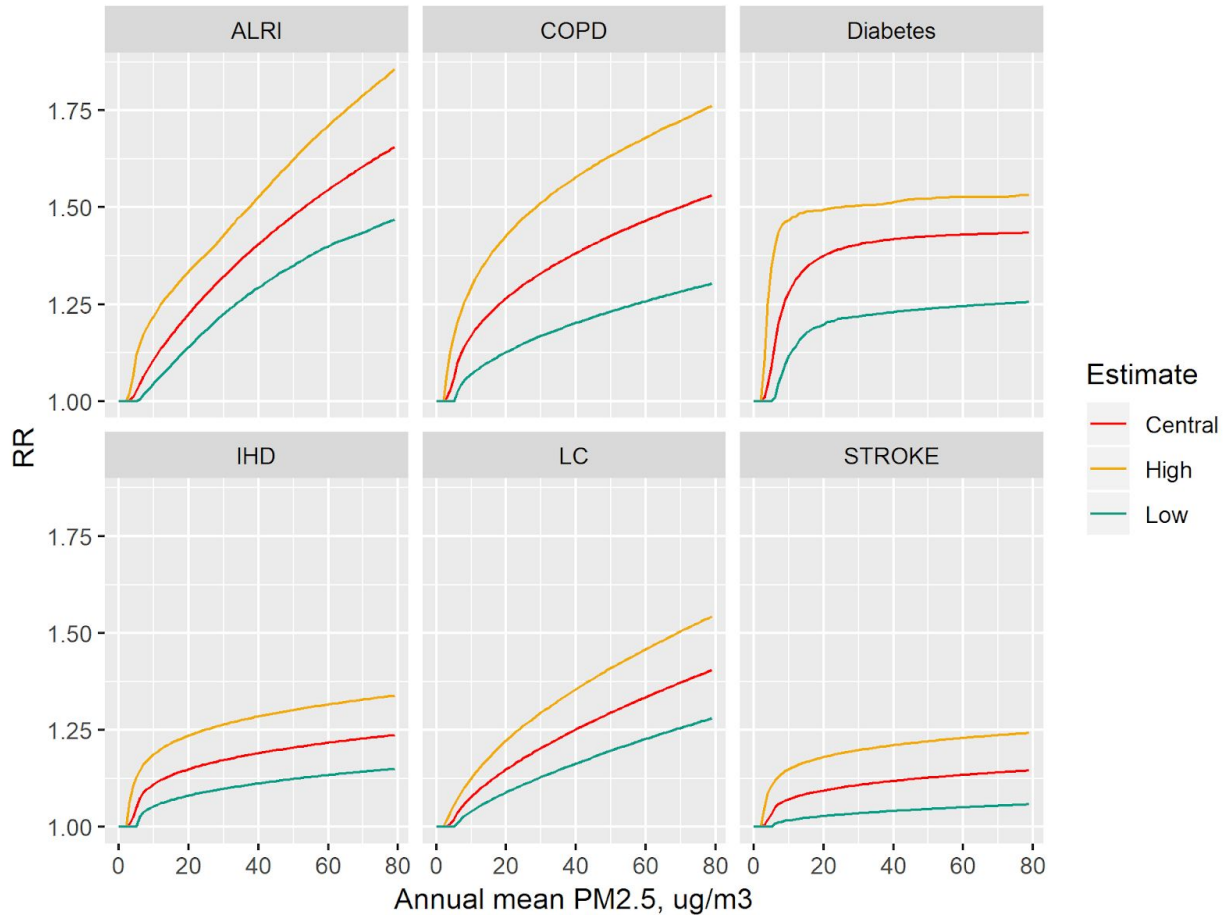


Table 7: Additional risk ratios used for health impact assessment

Risk ratio for 10µg/m ³ increase in exposure (Pollutant)	Central	95% CI, low	95% CI, high	Reference
Deaths, all causes (NO2)	1.0060	1.0033	1.0087	Mills et al 2016

Deposition results were differentiated by land use type using the European Space Agency global land use map for the year 2015 at 300m resolution (ESA 2018; see Figure 12). Land use codes 10-30 were mapped as cropland; codes 50-100 and 160-170 were mapped as forest.

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