



HEALTH IMPACTS OF COAL FIRED POWER GENERATION IN TUZLA



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Tuzla, november 2013.

PUBLISHER:

Centar za ekologiju i energiju

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Stamp:

"OFF-SET" Tuzla

The publication is produced within the framework of the project "Clean air for Tuzla"



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SUMMARY

This report assesses the health impacts of an existing coal-fired power plant in Tuzla and two new coal-fired plants that are planned to be built in the region. Emissions need to be seen against a background of very high ambient concentrations. These are much in exceedance of the WHO Guideline for PM_{2.5} levels, here regarded as the key air quality indicator, though we note that air quality limits for other pollutants, notably SO₂ are also exceeded. High exposure to SO₂ is now very unusual in much of Europe, with concentrations of the gas a small fraction of those in Tuzla in almost all EU cities.

The importance of air pollutant effects on health is emphasised by the recent decision by IARC (the International Agency for Research on Cancer) to classify air pollution as a Group 1 carcinogen, with no qualification on source or global region. The REVIHAAP (Review of Evidence of Health Aspects of Air Pollutants) and HRAPIE (Health Risks of Air Pollution in Europe) studies led by WHO-Europe on behalf of the European Commission provide a consensus view from European and North American experts that air pollution has significant and varied impacts on health in addition to the cancers of concern to IARC. These include reduced life expectancy, increased hospital admissions from respiratory and cardiac effects, the development of bronchitis, and various lesser impacts, for example on lost working days. The HRAPIE recommendations have been used for the analysis presented here.

The analysis presented in this report is performed from two perspectives. The first considers impacts of the air pollutants released from the coal-fired power stations of the Tuzla region at the European scale, bearing in mind the long-range transport of pollutant emissions and associated atmospheric chemistry. The second considers the health impacts associated with current exposure of the population of the Tuzla region, irrespective of source. Results at the European scale indicate that the existing power plant caused an **estimated 4,900 lost years of life expectancy to 131,000 lost working days and over 170 hospital admissions** for cardiac and respiratory illness **in 2013**. Although emissions associated with the proposed new plant are lower, they will of course continue for many more years to come. Analysis addressing the time series of emissions data for the plant over the period 2015 to 2030 indicate that total European scale **damage would be of the order €810 million**, with over **39,000 life years lost** and of course many more new cases of chronic bronchitis, hospital admissions, lost working days and so on.

The following table shows annual impacts associated with population exposure in the Tuzla region assuming that the monitoring sites provide a reliable indication of average conditions. Analysis is based only on exposure to fine particles (PM_{2.5}), so there is potential for additional effects from other pollutants. Impacts are collectively **valued at €61 million/year** (prices adjusted for the Bosnian situation). We have not been able to assess the effect of the power plants, specifically, on the local people, as this would require further detailed dispersion modelling.

Table i) Annual impacts associated with PM_{2.5} concentrations in the Tuzla region

Tuzla and Banovići		Impact
Chronic Mortality (All ages) LYL median VOLY	Life years lost	2,875
Infant Mortality (0-1yr) median VSL	Deaths	3
Chronic Bronchitis (27yr +)	Cases	187
Bronchitis in children aged 6 to 12	Added cases	361
Respiratory Hospital Admissions (All ages)	Cases	113
Cardiac Hospital Admissions (>18 years)	Cases	81
Restricted Activity Days (all ages)	Days	272,914
Asthma symptom days (children 5-19yr)	Days	5,355
Lost working days (15-64 years)	Days	69,924

In conclusion, air quality in the Tuzla region is poor and estimated here to have significant impacts on population health. One source of this air pollution is the reliance on coal fired power generation which is forecast to continue for many years to come as things stand. The effects of new power plant development need to be seen against this background.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Air pollution and health

Air pollution is increasingly recognized as a significant threat to public health. A very recent development is the decision by IARC (the International Agency for Research on Cancer) to classify outdoor air pollution as carcinogenic to humans (Group 1), in relation to lung cancer (IARC, 2013). The Group 1 classification is used where it is considered that the evidence of causality between an agent and an effect is clear. They also noted a positive association with an increased risk of bladder cancer. Particulate matter, a major component of outdoor air pollution, was evaluated separately and was also classified as carcinogenic to humans (also Group 1). Although the composition of air pollution and levels of exposure can vary dramatically between locations, the conclusions of the IARC Working Group apply to all regions of the world. Further review work by WHO-Europe through the REVIHAAP and HRAPIE studies demonstrates that the health impacts of air pollutants are not restricted to cancer, but include also respiratory and cardiac mortality, bronchitis, hospital admissions, and various other effects.

Table 1 provides further information on the health risks of the pollutants with which this report is mainly concerned, sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and particulate matter (PM). It includes reference to WHO guidelines and EU air quality limit values for the three pollutants, expressed in µg.m⁻³ (microgrammes, 10⁻⁶ g, per cubic metre of ambient air) and EU emission limit values for industrial plant expressed in mg.m⁻³ (milligrammes, 10⁻³ g, per cubic metre of discharged gas). Information is based on both WHO recommendations (see Krzyzanowski and Cohen, 2008) and Directives of the European Union. These limit values can be compared with information for the Tuzla region and associated thermal power plants in the sections that follow.

Further information on the health risks of air pollution is provided in Appendix 1.

Table 1. Health risks from various pollutants, pollutant guideline values for ambient air and limit values (WHO recommendations, 2013)

Pollutant	Related Health Risks (WHO)	Air quality guidelines and limit values
Sulfur dioxide (SO ₂)	Can affect respiratory system and lung functions, aggravation of asthma and chronic bronchitis, makes people more prone to infections of the respiratory tract; irritation of eyes; cardiac disease aggravated; ischaemic stroke risk.	<i>WHO Guidelines.</i> 20 µg/m ³ (day) 500µg/m ³ (10min) <i>EU Directive 2008/50/EC:</i> 125 µg/m ³ (24 hours) , not to be exceeded > 3 times/year 350 µg/m ³ (1 hour) , not to be exceeded > 24 times/year
Nitrogen oxides (NOx)	Asthma development (suspected), asthma exacerbation, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, stunted lung development; cardiac arrhythmias, ischemic stroke. Reacts with VOCs in sunlight to form ground- level ozone which is also harmful to health.	<i>WHO Air Quality Guidelines and EU Directive 2008/50/EC:</i> NO ₂ : 40 µg/m ³ (annual) NO ₂ : 200 µg/m ³ (1 hour)

Particulate matter: Coarse particulates (PM ₁₀) Fine particulates (PM _{2.5})	Respiratory: asthma development (suspected), asthma exacerbation, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, stunted lung development (PM _{2.5}); lung cancer Cardiovascular: cardiac arrhythmias, acute myocardial infarction, congestive heart failure (PM _{2.5}) Nervous system: ischaemic stroke.	<i>WHO Guidelines:</i> PM _{2.5} : 10 µg/m ³ (year) PM ₁₀ : 20 µg/m ³ (year) <i>EU Directive 2008/50/EC:</i> PM _{2.5} : 25 µg/m ³ target (year) PM ₁₀ : 40 µg/m ³ (year) limit PM ₁₀ : 50 µg/m ³ (day) limit, not to be exceeded on > 35 days
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Differences are apparent in the WHO Guideline and EU limit values for the concentration of pollutants in ambient air. These differences reflect a view on the feasibility of achieving the WHO Guidelines in the EU on the timescale of Directive 2008/50/EC. As will be seen below, the guideline/limit values do not reflect thresholds for effects on health; impacts will still occur amongst sensitive individuals at lower concentrations.

1.2 Objectives of this report

Extensive coal and lignite deposits around Tuzla have led to a reliance on these fuels for power generation and wider industrial use. The following power stations are either in use, or planned, for the area:

- Tuzla Thermoelectric power plant (TET) blocks G3 to G6, with total installed capacity 730 MW, using brown coal and lignite;
- Replacement block 7 of TE Tuzla with an installed capacity of 450 MW (Tais, 2010; Krstović, 2010; Merić, 2011);
- A new 300 MW thermoelectric plant in the Municipality of Banovići.

The purpose of this report is to quantify the health impacts associated with the existing plant and the two additional plants that are planned to be developed in the coming years. This analysis is performed at two scales. The first considers impacts of the power plants across Europe, recognizing that air pollutants can be transported over distances in excess of 1000 km. The second seeks to describe the local impacts of pollution. The methods used for this quantification reflect the latest advice provided by the World Health Organization (WHO), as recommended in the HRAPIE (Health risks of air pollution in Europe) Project performed for the European Commission, and accounting for the views of European and North American health experts.

2 TUZLA AND THE SURROUNDING AREAS

2.1 The region

The Municipality of Tuzla is one of the 13 municipalities of the Tuzla Canton and covers an area of 294 km² with a population of 132 000 inhabitants. The city of Tuzla is the administrative centre of the Canton and is the largest economic centre of north-eastern Bosnia and Herzegovina. Around 75% of the population of the municipality lives in the urban zone and the remaining population is located in rural local communities.

The Municipality of Banovići is located approximately 15 km southwest of Tuzla and has a population of 32,140. In addition to the urban areas of Banovići city, the Municipality includes the following villages: Omazići, Turija, Čubrić, Breštica, Seona, Grivice, Banovići-village, Tulovići, Pribitak, Treštenica and Hrvati. The area includes surface-coal-mines and the Turija and Grivice underground-coal-mines (Pranjić and Salihović, 2003).

The Tuzla region has substantial coal reserves, thought to be sufficient for 200 to 250 years use. These reserves are estimated at 316 million tons of dark coal and 2.66 billion tons of lignite, equivalent to 24% of Bosnia and Herzegovina's total dark coal reserves and 66% of its lignite reserves. The mines are facing technical and economic problems that reflect the competitiveness of thermal power plant electricity production (Merić, 2011; Kazagić i sar., 2012).

2.2 Air quality in and around Tuzla

Figure 1 shows the location of the air pollutant monitoring stations in the Tuzla region relative to the Thermal Power Plants (TPP).

Inspection of air quality data from these stations shows a significant number of exceedances of alert levels (Musemić et al, 2012). Air quality during the heating season (winter) in the urban areas of Tuzla reaches national category II or III (polluted or very-polluted air) with exceedance of permitted SO_2 levels of $400 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (3 to 4 times the maximum allowable concentration). Levels of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ are also significantly higher in Tuzla in winter (Hadžić et al, 2009). The same applies to Banovići (Figure 2).

Each year $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations exceeded permissible limits in Tuzla (from $+39 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in 2004 on 4 occasions) to $+52 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in 2009 (> 5 times). The Air Quality Index (AQI) calculated during the period from 2003 to 2006 exceeded the $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ on up to 174 days per year and the $300 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ level up to 32 days per year (Musemić et al. 2012).



Figure 1. Location of TPP Tuzla, TPP Banovići and the pollution monitoring stations.

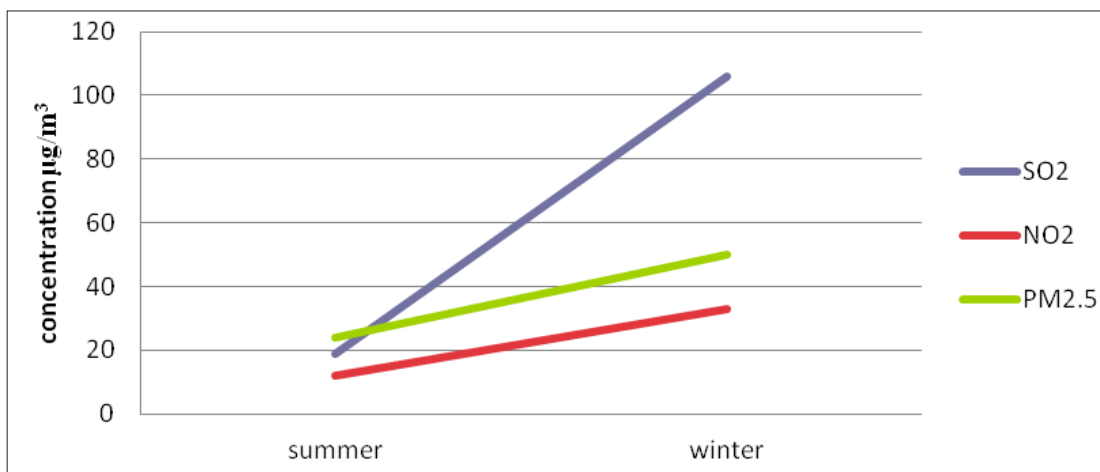


Figure 2. Variation in concentrations of SO₂, NO₂ and PM_{2.5} in 2012 in Banovići.

Summary data on air quality in terms of annual average concentrations for 2012 are provided in Table 2. Trends in PM_{2.5} concentrations from 2008 to 2012 are shown in Figure 3, demonstrating persistent and substantial exceedance of both the EU target value for annual average concentration of 25 µg/m³ and, even more notably, the WHO Guideline of 10 µg/m³.

Table 2. Annual average concentrations of air pollutants in the Tuzla region in 2012 (µg.m⁻³).

Monitoring station	SO ₂	PM _{2.5}	NO ₂
Skver	55	52	38
BKC	56	40	35
Bukinje	58	41	23
Bektići	No data	44	No data
Cerik	43	No data	40
Banovići	61	38	21
Average for all sites	55	43	31

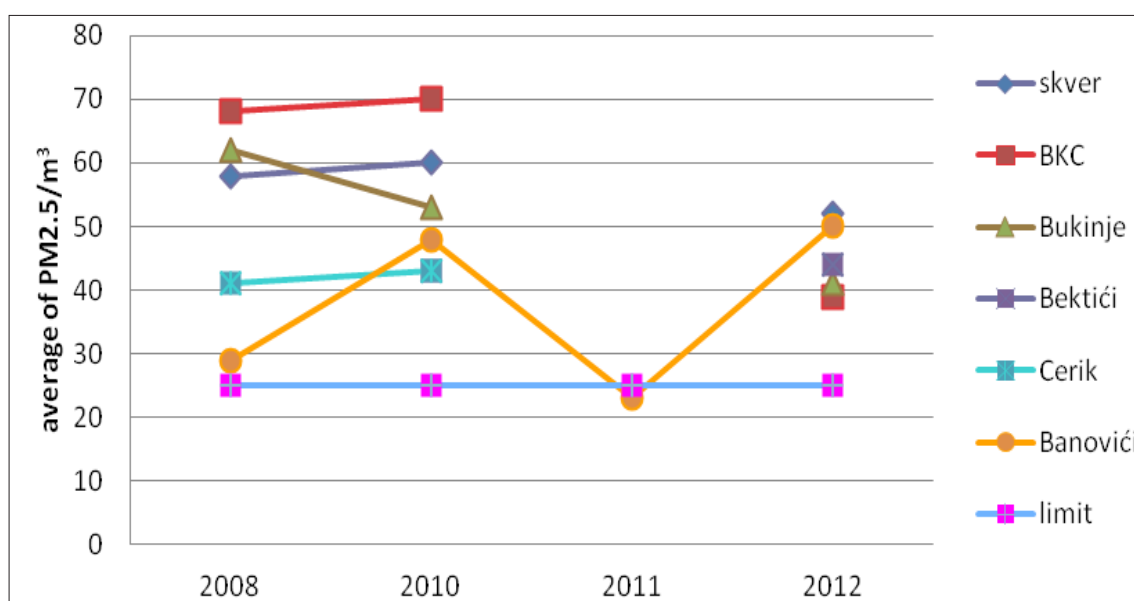


Figure 3. Mean PM_{2.5} µg/m³ per year for the air quality monitoring stations in Tuzla and Banovići from 2008 to 2012.

The results demonstrate that air quality in the Tuzla region is poor, and thus likely to have a significant impact on the health of the local population. It is against this background that the impact of additional coal-fired power generation capacity must be considered.

3 METHODS

3.1 Scenarios

The health effects of air pollution are considered for the following situations:

Scenario 1: The total annual impact associated with the emissions from the three power plants at the European scale;

Scenario 2: The total impact associated with exposure to air pollution in the Tuzla region, irrespective of source;

3.2 The impact pathway approach

Analysis follows the Impact Pathway Approach developed in the ExternE Project funded by the European Commission through the 1990s. The IPA describes a logical pathway from emission through exposure of the population to pollution to impact assessment and finally monetisation.

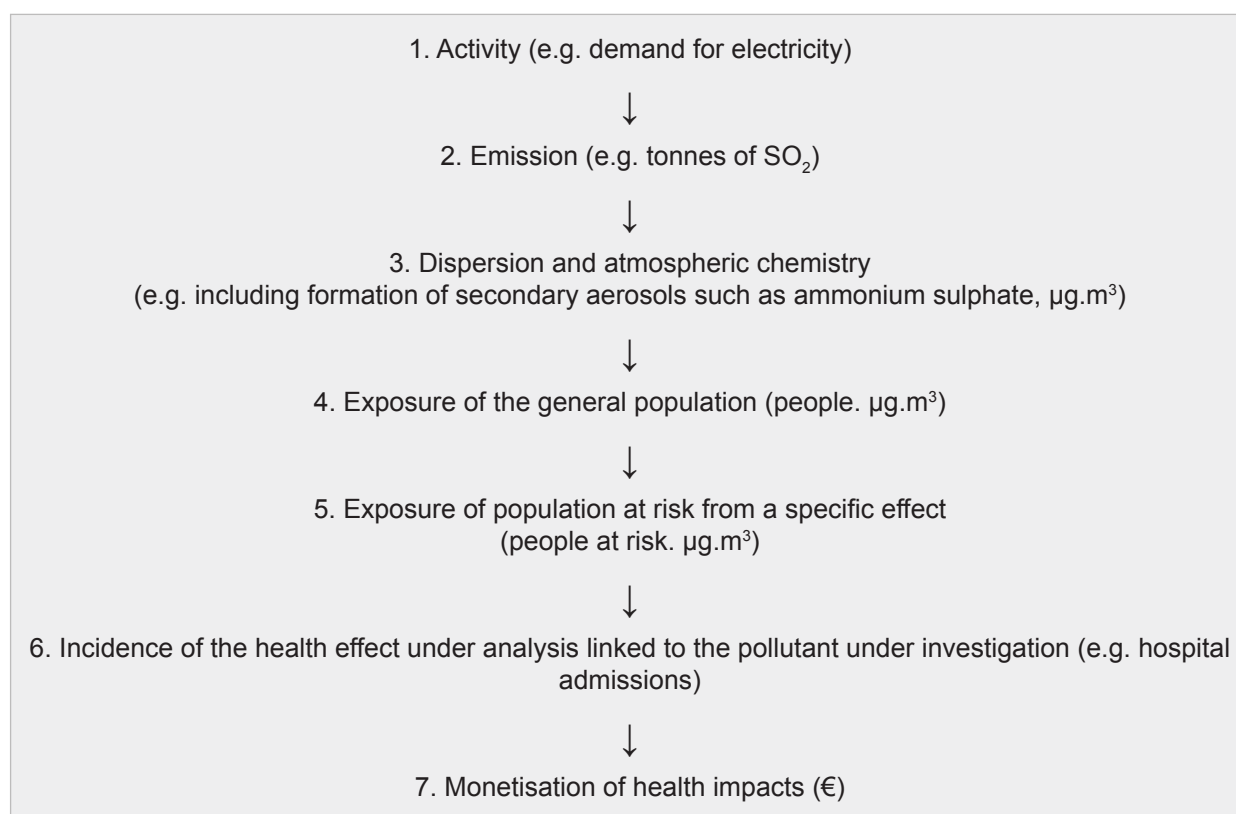


Figure 4. *The impact pathway approach (ExternE, 1995; 1998; 2005)*

The example shown in the Figure deals with assessment of the impacts of sulphur dioxide (SO₂) emissions on health, mediated through the formation of 'secondary' ammonium sulphate aerosols in the atmosphere¹. However, the same general approach works for any air pollutant.

¹ 'Primary' particles, in contrast, are those emitted directly from combustion sources and numerous other activities.

3.3 Health impact assessment

The core reference for the health impact assessment is the HRAPIE (Health Response to Air Pollutants In Europe) Project coordinated by WHO-Europe for the European Commission, and bringing together a large number of senior experts on the health effects of air pollution from Europe and North America (WHO-Europe, 2013; and Holland, 2013, for a description of the practical implementation of the recommended response functions). This is the most up to date review of the science available. For analysis for the European Commission it supersedes the earlier work of Hurley et al (2005) developed under the Clean Air For Europe (CAFE) Programme.

HRAPIE provides response functions for exposure to three pollutants, fine particles (PM_{2.5} or PM₁₀), NO₂ and ozone. No account was taken of effects of SO₂ specifically, largely on the grounds that concentrations of SO₂ in EU cities are now very low (unlike the situation in Tuzla). The omission of effects of SO₂ may well lead to underestimation of the health impacts of air pollution in the Tuzla region. The following health outcomes are considered (Table 3):

Table 3. Summary of information from HRAPIE showing endpoints for health impact assessment.

Effect	Pollutant	Exposure period	Relative risk from a 10µg.m ⁻³ change in exposure
All cause mortality, age 30+	PM	Long	1.062
All cause mortality, age 30+	NO ₂	Long	1.055
All cause mortality	O ₃	Short	1.0029
Respiratory mortality	O ₃	Long	1.014
Post -neonatal infant mortality	PM	Long	1.04
Respiratory hospital admissions	PM	Short	1.019
Respiratory hospital admissions	NO ₂	Short	1.018
Respiratory hospital admissions	O ₃	Short	1.0044
CVD hospital admissions	PM	Short	1.0091
CVD hospital admissions	O ₃	Short	1.0089
Bronchitic symptoms in asthmatic children	NO ₂	Long	1.021
Prevalance of bronchitis in children	PM	Long	1.08
Incidence of chronic bronchitis in adults	PM	Long	1.117
Restricted activity days	PM	Short	1.047
Work loss days	PM	Short	1.046
Asthma symptoms in asthmatic children	PM	Short	1.028
Minor restricted activity days	O ₃	Short	1.0154

The response functions shown are not fully additive. This applies especially to effects of long term exposure to PM, NO₂ and O₃ on mortality, and to effects of PM on restricted activity days (RADs), work loss days and childhood asthma. For effects of long term exposure on mortality, at the present time it is recommended only to perform the quantification for PM. For the effects of PM on RADs (etc.) it is recommended to subtract results for work loss days and childhood asthma from the result for RADs to avoid double counting.

The HRAPIE recommendations do not propose use of a threshold for quantification of impacts, except (effectively) in the case of ozone. For ozone, only exposure above a level of 35 parts per billion is factored into the analysis. This is stated to be an analytical 'cut point', above which the quantification of impacts can be done with greater confidence than below. The authors are, however, quite clear that this is not a threshold. Given the relative magnitude of impacts, however, the view that there is no threshold for effects of exposure to particles is especially important. This has been re-inforced by the publication of Canadian

research that found no evidence for a threshold of effect even in areas where concentrations of particles were very low indeed ($<5 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) (Crouse et al, 2012). This is an important conclusion in its own right, as it indicates that statutory limits for air pollution, and even the lower guidelines published by WHO, are not fully protective of the population.

With respect to mortality assessment, two indicators are available. The first, not surprisingly, is the number of deaths linked to air pollution exposure. The second is the loss of life expectancy. For assessment of long term impacts the second indicator is considered more robust. This then leads to a question that at first sounds strange: When, in effect, does the loss of life expectancy occur? Does it simply curtail the final days or months of life, when quality of life may be very low, or does it reduce one's healthy life expectancy? There is general agreement amongst health experts that it is the latter, a reduction in healthy life expectancy.

3.4 Exposure assessment

The exposure assessment is performed differently for each of the scenarios identified above:

Scenario 1: The total impact associated with emissions of SO_2 , $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and NO_x from the three power plants at the European scale;

For this scenario, analysis is based on results from the Unified EMEP model², the dispersion and atmospheric chemistry model that underpins most European air quality analysis. The EMEP Model has been used to generate a transfer matrix based on a large number of model runs. Each run describes the effects of releasing a quantity of a specific pollutant (ammonia [NH_3], NO_x , $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, SO_2 and volatile organic compounds [VOCs]) from one country on the pollution climate of Europe as a whole. The transfer matrix has been used to provide damage per tonne of emission estimates as used by the European Environment Agency in assessing the external costs of industrial facilities in Europe (EEA, 2011; 2013). Effects are quantified against exposure to primary $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, secondary $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ linked to emissions of SO_2 and NO_x and ozone formed as a consequence of NO_x emissions.

Scenario 2: The total impact associated with exposure to air pollution in the Tuzla region, irrespective of source;

For this scenario the results from the monitoring stations are used, on the assumption that they provide an appropriate estimate of population exposure to air pollution. Analysis is based only on exposure to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. This would appear to bias results to underestimation of effects, but is unavoidable given data limitations.

This part of the analysis uses the following data for the existing and proposed power plants (Table 4). Total annual emissions from the plants are shown in Appendix 2.

Table 4. Production characteristics and pollutant emissions for TE Tuzla (Blocks G3-G6) and the proposed new replacement block 7 and TE Banovići.

Parameter	Block TE Tuzla G3-G6 (for year 2013)	Block of TE Tuzla G7 (also G8)	TE Banovići
Capacity	730 MW	450 MW	300 MW
Fuel	Coal Lignite Brown Coal	Coal Lignite/ Hd=9,500 KJ/kg	Brown Coal Hd=14,050 KJ/kg
Sulphur content of fuel **	0.39 to 2.3%	0.51 to 0.6%	1.46%
Ash content of fuel **	10 to 26%	7 to 28%	21%
Emission of SO_2	51,661 t/year	877 t/year* <200 $\text{mg}/\mu\text{m}^3$	1,050 t/year*** <200 $\text{mg}/\mu\text{m}^3$

2 http://emep.int/mscw/index_mscw.html

Emission of NO _x	9,843 t/year	1,316 t/year* <200 mg/μm ³	590 t/year*** <200 mg/μm ³
Emission of PM ₁₀	1,990 t/year	132 t/year* <30 mg/μm ³	60 t/year*** <30 mg/μm ³

Sources: FIPA energy sector, 2012: *Merić, 2011 (and appendix 1): Sulphur and ash content: **Studija energetskeg sektora u BiH – Modul 8 – Rudnici uglja. *** Calculated from difference in energy density of fuel and plant output, and sulphur/ash content (where appropriate).

3.5 Baseline data on the incidence of health impacts

To the extent possible, these data (mortality rates, hospital admissions, etc.) are specific to the region or to Bosnia and Herzegovina. For some effects (restricted activity days, prevalence of bronchitis) it is necessary to use data from the original epidemiological studies.

3.6 Monetisation of impacts

Monetisation of impacts is useful in the context of cost-benefit analysis, to test the extent to which society is willing to pay for (in this case) improvement in air quality. Monetary valuation reflects the 'willingness to pay' (WTP) of the population for reduced health risk. WTP will vary from country to country, reflecting differences in income and other factors (perhaps collectively defined in terms of attitude to risk). This variation in health values does not signify that one set of people are any more valuable than any other: it simply reflects the fact that in a world where resources and money are not evenly distributed, preference for expenditure will vary. Analysis for the European Commission uses estimates of average willingness to pay for the EU as a whole, irrespective of the location of impact. For the present case, however, we are considering the situation from the perspective of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and so should seek to adopt an estimate of WTP to avoid risks to health that is in line with the Bosnian average. For this, we multiply results calculated at the EU average by the ratio of Bosnian Gross Domestic Product per head of population (GDP per capita) to EU GDP per capita (both GDP per capita estimates being adjusted for purchasing power parity, PPP), a factor of 0.28 (\$US9,235/\$US33,527, based on World Bank data for 2012). An elasticity of 1 is used, on the assumption that income and WTP for health protection will vary together (e.g. a 50% change in income will lead to a 50% change in WTP). The question of what elasticity to select in this situation is discussed by Hammitt and Robinson (2011). An elasticity of 1 is broadly central to figures adopted across the literature.

4 RESULTS

4.1 Scenario 1: Total impact of the coal fired power plants at the European scale

4.1.1 Health impacts

This part of the analysis models the impacts of the 3 power plants across Europe, recognising the transboundary nature of the emitted air pollutants. Emissions data are taken from Table 4 above, with PM_{2.5} emissions calculated by multiplying PM₁₀ emissions by a factor of 0.65, a factor commonly employed elsewhere. Dispersion modelling is based on the EMEP transfer matrices. Response functions are from the WHO-led HRAPIE Project. Results for each power plant are described in the following tables, dealing first with annual effects for Tuzla Blocks G3 to G6 (Table 5), Tuzla Block 7 (Table 6) and Banovići (Table 7).

Table 5. Annual emissions and associated health impacts at the European scale for the Tuzla power station, Blocks G3-G6 in 2013.

TET Blocks G3-G6	NOx	PM_{2.5}	SO₂	Total
Emissions (tonnes/year)	9,843	1,990	51,661	
Chronic mortality (life years lost)	755	327	3,835	4,918
Infant mortality (1 – 11 months, cases)	0	0	1	1
Chronic bronchitis, population aged >27, cases	35	15	180	231
Respiratory hospital admissions, all ages	3	1	13	17
Cardiac hospital admissions, all ages	24	10	122	157
Restricted activity days (RADs) working age	76,571	33,154	388,748	498,473
Work loss days	20,124	8,713	102,171	131,008
Child asthma	1,895	820	9,620	12,335
Child bronchitis	176	76	892	1,143

For TET Blocks G3-G6, damage is dominated by the high emissions of SO₂, which are modelled through the long range formation of sulphate aerosols in the PM_{2.5} size fraction. The effects of NOx (via the formation of secondary nitrate aerosols) and direct emissions of PM_{2.5} generate about 20% of total estimated health impacts for the plant.

Table 6. Annual emissions and associated health impacts at the European scale for the Tuzla power station, proposed Block 7.

TET Block 7	NOx	PM_{2.5}	SO₂	Total
<i>Emissions (tonnes/year)</i>	1,316	86	877	
Chronic mortality (life years lost)	101	14	65	180
Infant mortality (1 – 11 months, cases)	0	0	0	0
Chronic bronchitis, population aged >27, cases	5	1	3	8
Respiratory hospital admissions, all ages	0	0	0	1
Cardiac hospital admissions, all ages	3	0	2	6
Restricted activity days (RADs) working age	10,237	1,429	6,599	18,266
Work loss days	2,691	376	1,734	4,801
Child asthma	253	35	163	452
Child bronchitis	23	3	15	42

For the proposed block 7 addition to the Tuzla power plant it is emissions of NOx that are considered likely to dominate, providing 56% of estimated health impact.

Table 7. Annual emissions and associated health impacts at the European scale for the proposed Banovići power station.

TPP Banovići	NOx	PM_{2.5}	SO₂	Total
<i>Emissions (tonnes/year)</i>	590	39	1,050	
Chronic mortality (life years lost)	45	6	78	130
Infant mortality (1 – 11 months, cases)	0	0	0	0
Chronic bronchitis, population aged >27, cases	2	0	4	6
Respiratory hospital admissions, all ages	0	0	0	0
Cardiac hospital admissions, all ages	1	0	2	4
Restricted activity days (RADs) working age	4,590	650	7,901	13,141
Work loss days	1,206	171	2,077	3,454
Child asthma	114	16	196	325
Child bronchitis	11	1	18	30

SO₂ emissions are again dominant for the proposed plant at Banovići. These results are dependent on estimates of emissions made above in this report (Table 4), and reflect the factor 3 higher fuel sulphur content between Banovići and Tuzla Block 7.

Results for all operational and proposed Blocks at the Tuzla power station are provided for the years 2013, 2015, 2020, 2025 and 2030 in Table 8, based on the emissions data provided in Appendix 2, noting the retirement of old plant and introduction of new plant according to the following schedule:

G3: Up to 2016

G4: Up to 2019

G5: Up to 2023

G6: Up to 2025

G7 and Banovići: 2017

G8: 2024 to 2030

Table 8. Annual damage at the European scale from the power plants for Tuzla and Banovići, 2013 and 2015 to 2030 at 5-year intervals.

2013	NOx	PM_{2.5}	SO₂	Total
<i>Emissions (tonnes/year)</i>	9,843	1,294	51,661	
Chronic mortality (life years lost)	755	213	3,835	4,803
Infant mortality (1 – 11 months)	0	0	1	1
Chronic bronchitis, population aged >27	35	10	180	226
Respiratory hospital admissions, all ages	3	1	13	17
Cardiac hospital admissions, all ages	24	7	122	153
Restricted activity days (RADs) all ages	76,571	21,550	388,748	486,869
Work loss days	20,124	5,664	102,171	127,959
Child asthma, days	1,895	533	9,620	12,048
Child bronchitis, cases	176	49	892	1,117

2015	NOx	PM_{2.5}	SO₂	Total
<i>Emissions (tonnes/year)</i>	9,588	1,278	50,799	
Chronic mortality (life years lost)	736	210	3,771	4,717
Infant mortality (1 – 11 months)	0	0	1	1
Chronic bronchitis, population aged >27	35	10	177	222
Respiratory hospital admissions, all ages	3	1	13	16
Cardiac hospital admissions, all ages	23	7	120	151
Restricted activity days (RADs) all ages	74,587	21,290	382,262	478,139
Work loss days	19,603	5,595	100,466	125,664
Child asthma, days	1,846	527	9,459	11,832
Child bronchitis, cases	171	49	877	1,097
2020	NOx	PM_{2.5}	SO₂	Total
<i>Emissions (tonnes/year)</i>	8,234	1,051	32,723	
Chronic mortality (life years lost)	632	173	2,429	3,234
Infant mortality (1 – 11 months)	0	0	0	1
Chronic bronchitis, population aged >27	30	8	114	152
Respiratory hospital admissions, all ages	2	1	8	11
Cardiac hospital admissions, all ages	20	6	78	103
Restricted activity days (RADs) all ages	64,054	17,511	246,240	327,805
Work loss days	16,835	4,602	64,717	86,153
Child asthma, days	1,585	433	6,093	8,112
Child bronchitis, cases	147	40	565	752
2025	NOx	PM_{2.5}	SO₂	Total
<i>Emissions (tonnes/year)</i>	5,606	529	16,938	
Chronic mortality (life years lost)	430	87	1,257	1,775
Infant mortality (1 – 11 months)	0	0	0	0
Chronic bronchitis, population aged >27	20	4	59	83
Respiratory hospital admissions, all ages	1	0	4	6
Cardiac hospital admissions, all ages	14	3	40	57
Restricted activity days (RADs) all ages	43,610	8,815	127,458	179,883
Work loss days	11,462	2,317	33,498	47,277
Child asthma, days	1,079	218	3,154	4,451
Child bronchitis, cases	100	20	292	413

2030	NOx	PM_{2.5}	SO₂	Total
<i>Emissions (tonnes/year)</i>	3,222	197	2,804	
Chronic mortality (life years lost)	247	32	208	488
Infant mortality (1 – 11 months)	0	0	0	0
Chronic bronchitis, population aged >27	12	2	10	23
Respiratory hospital admissions, all ages	1	0	1	2
Cardiac hospital admissions, all ages	8	1	7	16
Restricted activity days (RADs) all ages	25,065	3,281	21,100	49,446
Work loss days	6,587	862	5,546	12,995
Child asthma, days	620	81	522	1,224
Child bronchitis, cases	57	8	48	113

Table 9 shows total impacts estimated for the emissions profile of Appendix 2, Again including emissions from Banovići) from 2017 through to 2030.

Table 9. Total impacts from all plant, European scale, 2015-2030.

Total impacts, 2015-2030	NOx	PM_{2.5}	SO₂	Total
<i>Emissions (tonnes/year)</i>	104,444	12,080	394,143	
Chronic mortality (life years lost)	8,015	1,985	29,259	39,260
Infant mortality (1 – 11 months)	1	0	5	6
Chronic bronchitis, population aged >27	377	93	1,375	1,845
Respiratory hospital admissions, all ages	28	7	101	136
Cardiac hospital admissions, all ages	256	63	934	1,253
Restricted activity days (RADs) all ages	812,495	201,259	2,965,919	3,979,673
Work loss days	213,539	52,895	779,501	1,045,935
Child asthma, days	20,106	4,980	73,393	98,479
Child bronchitis, cases	1,864	462	6,803	9,128

4.1.2 Monetized values

Converting the health impacts from Table 5, Table 6 and Table 7 to a monetary equivalent gives the following results (valued using data for the EU average, adjusted by Bosnian PPP adjusted GDP/capita)³:

³ Given the assumption of an elasticity of 1 in the costing between EU averages and Bosnian willingness to pay and the broad range considered in the paper of Hammitt and Robinson, these figures should be regarded as uncertain, but we can have reasonable confidence that public willingness to pay to avoid impacts at this level would broadly be of this order of magnitude.

- Tuzla Blocks G3 to G6: **€99 million / year**
- Tuzla Block 7: **€3.7 million / year**
- Banovići: **€2.7 million / year**

It is clear that Tuzla Blocks G3 to G6 generate substantially higher damage than the two proposed plants. However, together the two new plants would generate an **annual health externality of €6.4 million/year**. Also, in the event that Tuzla Block G8 is also constructed, additional emissions (and hence damage) equivalent to those calculated for Tuzla Block G7 would arise, bringing total damage for the **new facilities to €10 million / year**.

Turning to the results for the time series from 2013 to 2030, monetised equivalents, adjusted for Bosnian conditions are as follows:

- **2013: €99 million**
- **2015: €97 million**
- **2020: €67 million**
- **2025: €37 million**
- **2030: €10 million**
- **Total, 2015 to 2030: €810 million**

4.2 Scenario 2: Total impact of exposure to pollution in the Tuzla region (irrespective of the source of pollution)

4.2.1 Health impacts

Given a small level of variation in the PM_{2.5} concentrations reported from the monitoring sites (average 43 µg.m⁻³ in a range of 38 to 52 µg.m⁻³, see Table 2), it is assumed that the full population for the region (132,000 in Tuzla, 32,140 in Banovići) is exposed to the average of 43 µg.m⁻³. This of course assumes that the monitoring stations are representative of exposure for the population rather than peak ('hot-spot') concentrations. The response functions applied are again taken from the HRAPIE Project led by WHO-Europe.

Table 10. Health impacts associated with exposure to air pollution in Tuzla and Banovići.

Tuzla and Banovići		Impact
Chronic Mortality (All ages) LYL median VOLY	Life years lost	2,875
Infant Mortality (0-1yr) median VSL	Deaths	3
Chronic Bronchitis (27yr +)	Cases	187
Bronchitis in children aged 6 to 12	Added cases	361
Respiratory Hospital Admissions (All ages)	Cases	113
Cardiac Hospital Admissions (>18 years)	Cases	81
Restricted Activity Days (all ages)	Days	272,914
Asthma symptom days (children 5-19yr)	Days	5,355
Lost working days (15-64 years)	Days	69,924

Applying the EU valuations adjusted by per capita PPP adjusted GDP gives a total damage associated with these **impacts of €61 million/year**. The mortality result in the top row of the table should be put in context of the number of deaths over which it is aggregated. Dividing by the number of deaths expected in the region gives an **estimated loss of life expectancy per person of 3.2 years**. Similar estimates have been derived for cities in China and India (IIASA, 2011), though there are questions as to the linearity of the response functions at higher concentrations. Whilst this may imply a bias to overestimation in the impacts, it is to be remembered that results exclude assessment against SO₂, NO₂ and ozone exposure.

5 DISCUSSION

The report summarises evidence of poor air quality as recorded at the pollution monitoring stations in the Tuzla region. There are frequent exceedances of alert thresholds in the area, emphasising the problems that exist.

This is a matter of considerable concern given that air pollution is linked to a wide range of health problems, from days of restricted activity all the way through to mortality (WHO, 2013). At the time that this report was being written, the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) published new findings, concluding that air pollution is carcinogenic. It is notable that effects will occur even when air quality limit values are being complied with, given the conclusion that there is no threshold for the effects of some important pollutants, including fine particles (PM_{2.5}, see for example, Crouse, 2012).

The existing power plant in Tuzla has high emissions of NO_x, SO₂ and PM_{2.5}. It is estimated that this plant **is linked to 4,918 'years of life lost'** (an expression of longevity) across Europe **each year** and a variety of effects on morbidity. In total, and adjusting valuation to Bosnian conditions, **this and other health impacts are valued at €99 million/year**, based on current day values. **Two further power plant units** are proposed, **at Tuzla and Banovići**. Being more modern these plants would emit less pollution per unit of electricity generated, but **are still estimated here to be associated with 310 years of life lost annually**, and **damage of €6.4 million/year** (increasing to €10 million/year if Block G8 is included). These damages would continue for as long as each plant is operational, potentially 40 years or more for the proposed facilities, and 10 or more years for the existing plant. **Over the period 2015 to 2030 it is estimated that the Tuzla and Banovići plants would cause cumulative impacts of 39,260 years of life lost, numerous cases of morbidity and damage totaling €810 million.**

Analysis of the health impacts of local air pollution on the population of Tuzla and Banovići is also provided, with an **estimated 2,875 years of life lost** and various other health impacts, combining to give a **monetary value of €61million/year**.

The analysis has not sought to apportion the impacts of poor local air quality between the power stations and other sources (e.g. domestic burning) as this would require further data and modeling. However, the plants will contribute to poor air quality in the region as well as further afield.

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Appendix 1: Further information on health impacts

Fine particles in the PM_{10} size class⁴ are readily inhalable and because of their small size are not filtered and penetrate deeply into the cardiovascular system where they cause damage. Those smaller than $2.5 \mu m$ ($PM_{2.5}$) penetrate deeper than those closer to $10 \mu m$. These particles have strong associations with most types of respiratory illness and mortality. They also have a strong association with circulatory (heart disease and strokes) disease and mortality. Particles allow many chemicals harmful to human health to be carried to many of our internal organs causing a wide range of illness and mortality including cancer, especially lung cancer, brain damage and damage to the unborn child (EEA, 2010; Lim et al, 2012; WHO, 2013; Mehinović et al, 2004).

A broadly similar list of health effects for elevated particulate concentrations has been compiled by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA):

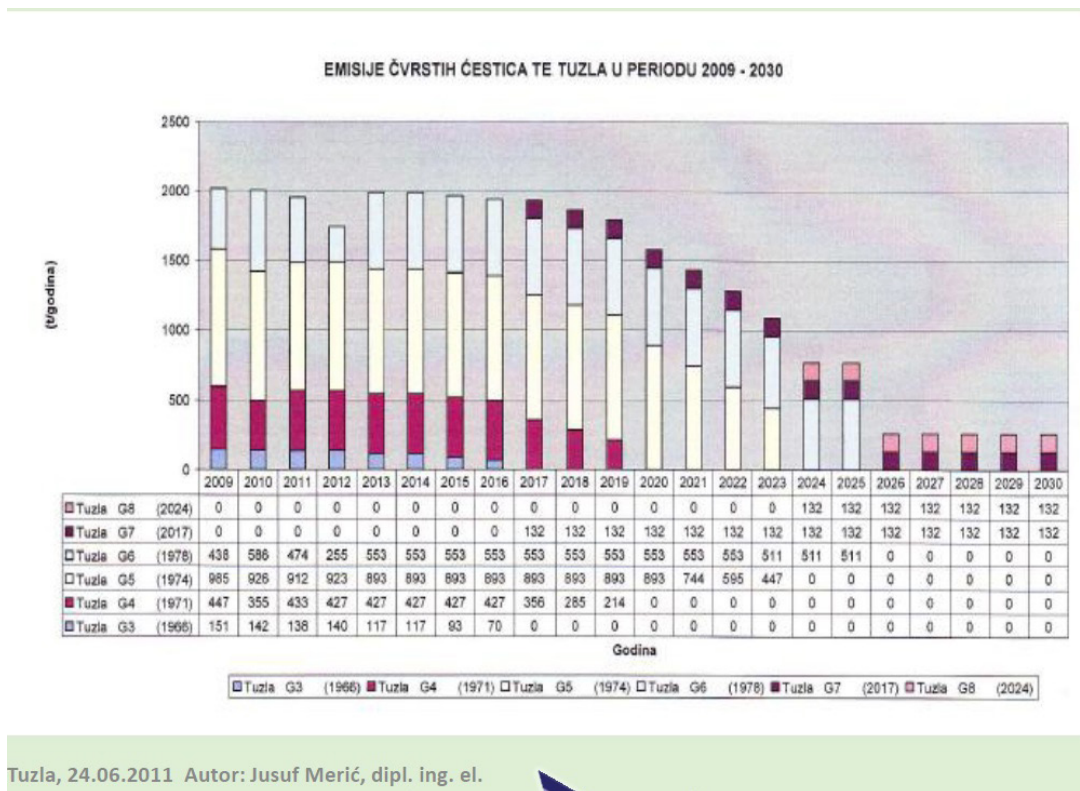
- Increased total mortality, respiratory deaths; cardiovascular deaths, cancer death;
- Increased risk of premature births and infant mortality;
- Increased risk of pneumonia;
- Increased hospital admissions and emergency room visits;
- Exacerbation of asthma attacks;
- Increased bronchodilator use;
- Increased respiratory symptoms in both lower and upper respiratory tract;
- Decreased lung function;
- Increased incidence of rhinitis;
- Increased absenteeism/number of days of restricted activity

Older people, children and patients with chronic respiratory or cardiovascular diseases experience the largest threat to their health and well-being from air pollution (Pranjić, 2006; EEA, 2010; Brunekreef et al., 2012), as they are more susceptible to the damage done by the pollutants. Children, even before birth, are particularly susceptible to air pollutants (Dadvand et al, 2013; Pranjić and Begic, 1998; Begic et al, 2002). Recent studies found associations between exposure to outdoor air pollution during pregnancy and lower birth weight, as well as higher rates of preterm birth and pre-eclampsia. Across the EU it is estimated that air pollution is responsible for an average reduction in life expectancy of 8.6 months or, in other words, for 492 000 premature deaths every year.

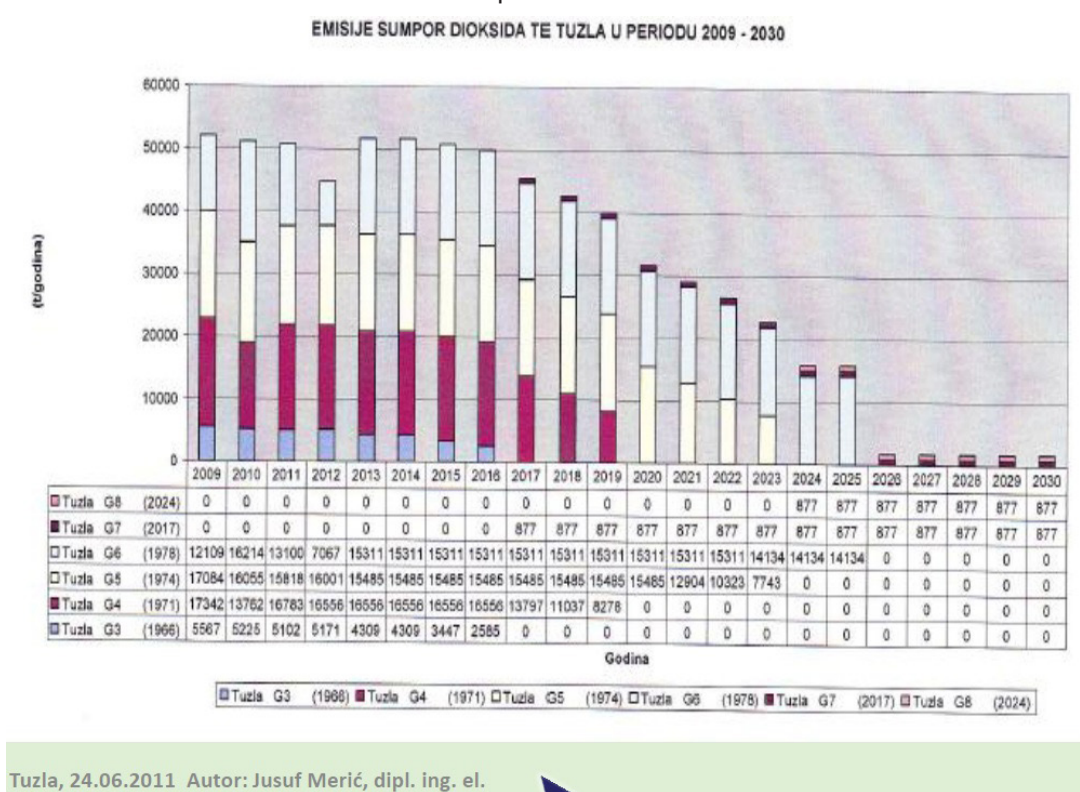
With the exception of a few countries, cardiovascular disease is the leading cause of death in Europe and accounts for approximately 40% of deaths or 2 million deaths per year. Public health costs related to cardiovascular disease were estimated at €196 billion a year for the EU, the respective estimate for chronic respiratory diseases, coming from the European Lung Foundation (ELF) and the European Respiratory Society (ERS), being €102 billion per year.

⁴ PM_{10} = fine particles with an aerodynamic diameter of less than 10 microns. $PM_{2.5}$ = fine particles with an aerodynamic diameter of less than 2.5 microns.

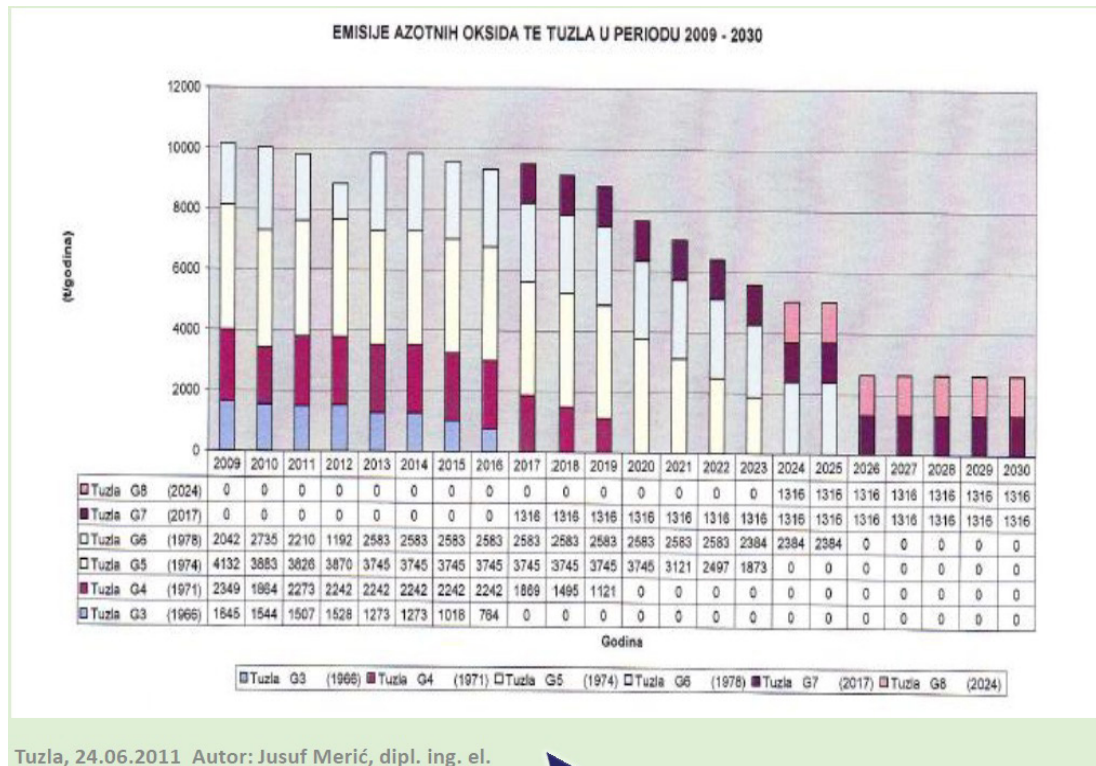
Fine Particles



Sulphur dioxide



Nitrogen oxides (NOx)



Tuzla, 24.06.2011 Autor: Jusuf Merić, dipl. ing. el.



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