

1. Low Sulfur Diesel

1.1 *Diesel National Environment Protection Measures*

With the establishment of the National Environment Protection Council, as a result of the May 1992 Intergovernmental Agreement on the Environment, Australia decided to declare National Environment Protection Measures (NEPMs) so as to enact uniform national environmental standards. Information on NEPMs may be found at the National Environment Protection Council website at www.nepc.gov.au. The NEPMs that relate, either directly or indirectly, to motor vehicles and their emissions are the NEPM for Ambient Air Quality, the National Pollutant Inventory (NPI), the Diesel Vehicle Emissions NEPM, and the proposed Air Toxics NEPM. The NEPM for Ambient Air Quality sets air quality standards for the ambient environment, and does not deal with emissions, as such. Emission controls on new vehicles are achieved through Australian Design Rules (ADRs). The NPI requires industry to report on emissions.

1.1.1 *Diesel vehicle emissions*

The emissions of most interest in relation to diesel vehicles are oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), hydrocarbons, and fine particles (also known as fine particulates, which is an incorrect elision of fine particulate matter). NO_x are a precursor to the formation of photochemical smog. There is also evidence that NO_x reacts with other pollutants to form particles. Fine particles have been identified as a major health risk. The smaller the particle, the greater the risk.

Motor vehicles, particularly those with diesel engines, are significantly disproportionate contributors of fine particle pollution and oxides of nitrogen in urban areas. Since 1996 diesel vehicle emission standards in the ADRs (<http://www.dot.gov.au/land/environment/envrev99.htm>) have placed limits on the emission of particles for new vehicles. Before 1996, diesel vehicles sold in Australia were required to meet a smoke opacity standard. Amendments to Australian ADRs for diesel vehicle emissions, gazetted in 1999, will bring about the introduction of Euro2, Euro3 and Euro4 standards from 2002.. These standards are described in more detail in section 1.3, below.

1.2 *Diesel Fuel and the Diesel Engine*

1.2.1 *Introduction*

Most heavy vehicles over 10 tonnes gross vehicle mass (GVM) use turbocharged, four-stroke compression ignition engines. Smaller vehicles use normally aspirated engines. All are commonly referred to as 'diesel engines'. Fuel is injected into the diesel engine at over 1000 atmospheres pressure and ignited by the heat of compression, whereas in the petrol engine the fuel is ignited by a spark from a spark plug.

1.2.2 *Fuel quality review*

In 1999, Environment Australia commissioned a comprehensive review of possible new fuel specifications for Australia, designed to reduce emissions of greenhouse gases and air pollutants from Australian road transport. In addition to modelling emissions reductions, the project assessed the impact on Australian refineries, vehicle manufacturers, consumers and the economy-wide effects of changing fuel specifications for petrol and diesel. The reports (Environment Australia, 2000a, 2000b) of the fuel quality review are available at <http://www.ea.gov.au/atmosphere/transport/fuel/index.html>.

Part 2 Details of Fuels

Low sulfur diesel (LSD) is diesel fuel that meets either the Euro2 fuel specifications for diesel fuel, or the fuel specifications for LSD proposed by the Commonwealth for implementation in 2002.

Table 1.1
Diesel fuel quality specifications (Environment Australia, 2000a, 2000b)

Fuel parameter	Euro2 (EN590:1993)	Commonwealth (1 January 2002) ¹
Sulfur (ppm)	500	500
Cetane index	46 (min)	46 (min)
Density at 15°C (kg/m ³)	820 – 860	820 – 860
Distillation T95 (°C)	370 (max)	370 (max)
Ash & suspended solids (ppm)	-	100 (max)
Viscosity (cSt)	-	2.0 – 4.5

Diesel fuel is generally derived from light virgin gas oil that is produced from the distillation of crude oil. The distillation is conducted in Australian refineries. LSD is produced in refineries with a hydro-desulfurisation unit. As at March 2001, Western Australia and Queensland had passed legislation mandating a diesel sulfur content of 500 ppm or less.

1.2.3 Emission factors

A CO₂ emission factor of 69.7 g/MJ for diesel fuel (of energy density 38.6 MJ/L) may be found in Workbook 3.1 on transport of the Australian Greenhouse Gas Inventory methodology (National Greenhouse Gas Inventory Committee, 1998), whereas, for other emissions, the default emission factors are as given in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2
Emission factors for diesel vehicles expressed as g/km

Vehicle	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOC
Light trucks	0.01	0.014	1.18	1.11	0.53
Medium trucks	0.02	0.017	3.1	1.82	0.99
Heavy trucks	0.07	0.025	15.29	7.86	3.78
Buses	0.03	0.025	4.9	2.88	1.56

Source: National Greenhouse Gas Inventory Committee (1998)

1.3 Upstream and Tailpipe Emissions

1.3.1 Upstream

Diesel fuel is manufactured using crude oil as a feedstock. Depending on the characteristics of the crude oil(s) used, a number of different refinery streams may be blended to produce diesel fuel complying with the relevant specification. These streams most commonly include straight run distillate and light cycle oil (LCO) produced from heavier fractions in a fluid catalytic cracker. The sulfur content of these fractions depends on the feedstock crude oil used and may be as high as 2%; their boiling range falls between 150°C and 380°C.

Diesel fuel currently used in Australia has a sulfur content of around 1300 ppm. As from 31 December 2002, new LSD specification will apply, requiring sulfur content of diesel fuel to be 500 ppm or lower.

High levels of sulfur in diesel fuel are undesirable, as during combustion they are converted to volatile sulfur oxides (SO_x). These are corrosive and lead to increased engine wear. They also contribute directly to acid rain and produce solid sulfates, which add to the particulate matter in the exhaust gases.

¹ The sulfur specification takes effect 31 December 2002.

Part 2 Details of Fuels

Hydro-desulfurisation is the process that is most commonly used to reduce sulfur in fuel. The process involves catalytic hydrogenation, which converts chemically bound organic sulfur into hydrogen sulfide (H₂S). It also improves the cetane number.

To meet the 500 ppm limit, a single-stage hydro-desulfurisation unit using a Cobalt-Molybdenum (Co-Mo) catalyst, and sometimes Nickel-Molybdenum (Ni-Mo) catalyst, under moderate severity, is adequate. Further sulfur removal — down to <15 ppm in the case of ultra-low sulfur diesel (ULSD) — requires a two-stage, high severity hydro-desulfurisation unit using both the Co-Mo and Ni-Mo catalysts.

Energy use for oil and gas production and transportation, and refinery processing, is taken from the National Greenhouse Gas Inventory for 1998 (NGGIC, 2000) and shown in Table 1.3. This excludes exploration activity.

Note that oil and gas are assumed to be produced together and emissions and extraction energy are allocated between them based on the energy content of each fuel. Similarly, refinery products, such as diesel, petrol, LPG and so on, are treated as co-products with the energy consumption, and consequent emissions being allocated to the output products (diesel, petrol, LPG), based on the energy content of each fuel.

In addition to the energy use detailed in table 1.3, energy and emissions for transportation of crude oil imported into Australia are taken into account. Assumptions for oil imports are also taken from the National Greenhouse Gas Inventory, with 58% of crude taken to be transported 10,000 km predominantly from Malaysia and the Middle East.

Table 1.3
Energy use data for oil and gas production and refinery processing

	Fuel	Energy Use	Production 1998 ³	Energy Use to production energy ratio
		PJ	PJ	GJ/PJ produced
Oil and gas production and field processing	Petroleum	0.9 ¹	2528.6	0.36
	Gas	141.1 ¹	2528.6	55.80
Natural gas transmission	Gas	8.6 ¹	688.5	12.49
Gas production and distribution	Gas	2.4 ¹	371.5	6.46
Petroleum Refining	Petroleum	87.2 ²	1663.8	52.41
	Gas	11.6 ²	1663.8	6.97

¹ Fuel Combustion Activities 1A-2 (sheet 1): Emissions from manufacturing industries and construction (all sources) (NGGIC)

² Fuel Combustion Activities 1A-1 (sheet 2): Emissions from Energy Industries (all sources) (NGGIC)

³ Fugitive Emissions from Fuels 1B-2 (sheet 1): Oil and Natural Gas (NGGIC)

Emissions from combusted fuels and fugitive emissions are also taken from the National Greenhouse Gas Inventory and are shown in Table 1.4.

No Australian aqueous emissions or solid wastes data was available for the crude oil, natural gas production or transport sectors, so data from European studies (Boustead, 1993) was used as a proxy. This data is detailed in Table 1.5 and Table 1.6.

Part 2 Details of Fuels

Table 1.4
Fugitive greenhouse emission data for oil and gas production and refinery processing

		Fuel Quantity	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOC
		(PJ)	(Gg)	(Gg)	(Gg)	(Gg)	(Gg)	(Gg)
Oil	Exploration (for both oil and gas)	1257	14.8	0.2				0.1
	Crude oil production	298		0.3				0.3
	Crude oil transport: domestic	1664		0.2				1.3
	Crude oil refining and storage	1102	153	1.9		0.1	0.5	34
	Petroleum product distribution							57.9
Gas	Production and processing	1272		1.6				1
	Transmission	689		4.9				0.1
	Distribution	372	10.4	171.7				25.5
Venting and flaring for oil and gas production	Venting at gas processing plant	1272	2814	119.6				42.3
	Distributed venting	860	749					
	Flaring	2646	2188	26.6	0.1	1.1	6.6	11.4

Source: Fugitive Emissions from Fuels 1B-2 (sheet 1): Oil and Natural Gas

Table 1.5
Aqueous emissions for Oil and Natural Gas Production data from APME data for Europe

Emissions	mg/MJ Natural Gas	mg/MJ Crude Oil
Acid as H ⁺	1.56	0.53
metallic ions	0.19	0.09
C _x H _y	0.19	0.09
suspended solids	1.56	0.71
dissolved solids	1.36	0.18
dissolved organics	0.78	0.36
oil	1.36	0.53
phenol	0.02	0.02

Source: Boustead (1993)

Table 1.6
Aqueous emissions for oil and natural gas production data from APME data for Europe

Emissions	mg/MJ Natural Gas	mg/MJ Crude Oil
industrial waste	0.78	0.71
mineral waste	0.08	0.07
slags/ash	11.70	10.67
inert chemicals	0.39	0.36

Source: Boustead (1993)

For refineries, data on trace metals and volatile organic fugitive emissions was taken from the National Pollutant Inventory Guide book (Environment Australia, 1999b), together with data submitted by refineries to the National Pollutant Inventory.

The controlled emission factor for particle emissions from Fluid Catalytic Cracking Units is taken as 0.128 kg/m³ feed to the unit (page 19, Table 10 (Environment Australia, 1999b)). From this data, trace metal emission data is estimated using emission factors provided in the NPI guidebook (Environment Australia, 1999b: Table 11, p.20), which are shown in Table 1.7.

Part 2 Details of Fuels

Table 1.7
Metal emissions to air for particulate matter from refinery operations

Metal emission	Controlled emission factor as weight % of total particulate matter
Nickel	0.031
Copper	0.003
Zinc	0.006
Selenium	0.003
Antimony	0.002
Lead	0.01
Cadmium	0.002
Mercury	0.001

Source: Extracted from Environment Australia (1999b: Table 11 page 20)

Volatile organic emissions were estimated using emission factors related to total volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions from fugitive emissions in refineries, given in the NPI guidebook (Environment Australia, 1999b: Table 15 p. 31). Data was given for a range of fugitive leaks such as flanges, valves, drains and pump seals. The lowest and most common was the data for flanges and valves, so this data was used to breakdown the VOC emissions reported in the National Greenhouse Gas Inventory into different organic species as shown in Table 1.8.

Table 1.8
Speciation data for NPI Substances from Equipment Fugitives¹

Compound	Compound Weight Percent in VOCs Released
n-hexane	4.76
Cyclohexane	0.14
Xylenes	0.28
Benzene	0.14
Toluene	0.7

Source: Extracted from Environment Australia (1999b: Table 15 page 32)

¹ Emission factors are for flange and valves

Organic and trace metal emissions to water were also determined from data in the NPI Guide. Metal emissions are provided per cubic metre of waste water (Environment Australia, 1999b: Table 20 p. 41), while organic emissions are provided as a weight percent of dissolved organic carbon (Environment Australia, 1999b: Table 19 p. 40). Waste water effluents and DOC loads per tonne of production was estimated from reported emission data from refineries to the National Pollutant Inventory. The data was conservatively estimated by dividing total flow by capacity, rather than production. This would reduce the result on a per tonne basis. Emission factors for organics to water are presented in Table 1.9, while factors for metals emitted are provided in Table 1.10. The calculated average wastewater emission for Australian refineries was 30 L per tonne of product and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was calculated to be around 0.79 g per tonne of product.

Part 2 Details of Fuels

Table 1.9
Default Speciation Factors for Organics in Refinery Effluent

Organic substance	NPI Substance Weight Percent of DOC
Toluene	0.00092
Benzene	0.00091
Xylenes	0.00140
Phenol	0.00069
1,2-Dichloroethane	0.00027
Hexachlorobenzene	0.00000
Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons	0.00160
Styrene	0.00010
Ethylbenzene	0.00012
1,1,2-trichloroethane	0.00004
Chloroform	0.00250

Source: Environment Australia (1999b: Table 19 p. 40)

Figure 1.1 provides an overview of how the unit processes are put together in the LCA inventory, with flows from each process shown for 1 kg of diesel production.

Table 1.10
Default Emission Factors for Trace Elements and Inorganics in Refinery Effluent

Trace Elements	NPI Substance Emission Factors (kg/m ³ of flow)
Zinc	4.40E-04
Phosphorous	4.10E-07
Arsenic	6.70E-06
Chromium(VI)	7.70E-06
Selenium	3.10E-06
Nickel	3.60E-06
Copper	2.90E-06
Antimony	5.80E-07
Cobalt	1.60E-06
Mercury	1.10E-08
Cadmium	3.30E-07
Lead	1.90E-06
Cyanide	7.60E-09
Ammonia	1.30E-06

All energy use throughout fuel processing is assumed to have a greenhouse emission profile as of standard fuel combustion, as described in the National Greenhouse Gas Inventory in Fuel Combustion Activities 1A-1 (sheet 1): Emissions from Energy Industries (all sources) (NGGIC, 1998). Air emissions of organic and inorganic substances, and particles, are taken from the National Pollutant Inventory Emission Estimation Technique Manual for Combustion in Boilers (Environment Australia, 1999a). Grid-supplied electricity data were taken from the Australian LCA inventory data project, described in (Grant, 2000).

Part 2 Details of Fuels

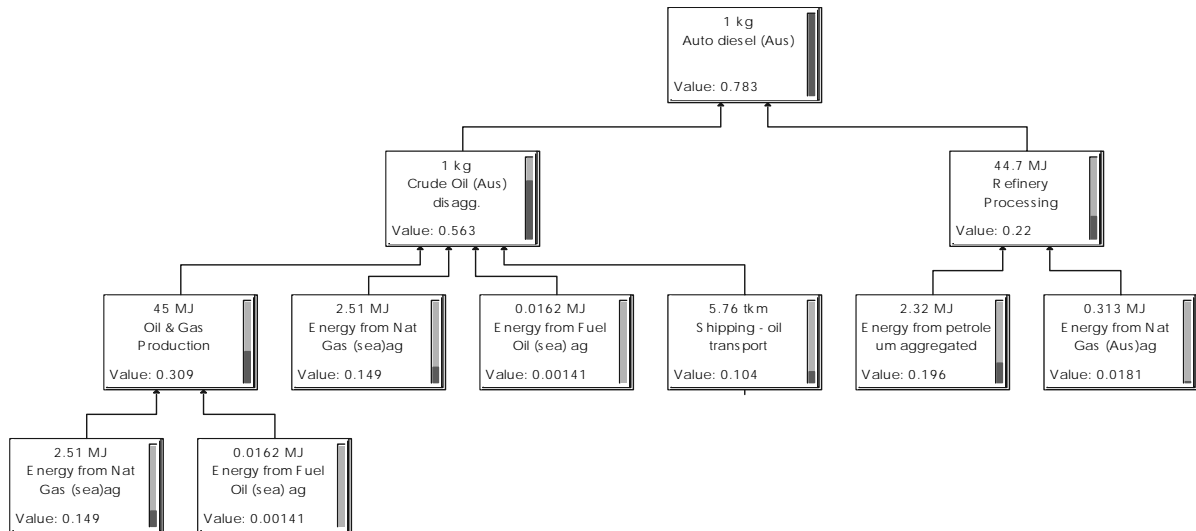


Figure 1.1

Processes leading into diesel production as modelled in LCA software.

(The diagram shows the energy flows per kilogram of LSD. The lower value in each box is set to display cumulative greenhouse gas emissions in kg CO₂-eq.)

Assumptions for Production of LSD

Discussions with Mr Mark Sanders of BP, an expert in refinery operation, updated the previous assumptions that were made regarding additional processing to produce lower sulfur diesel. For LSD (500 ppm S) a hydro-desulfurisation unit would be required on top of current refinery operations. Beer et al. (2000) assumed that for ULSD a hydro-cracking unit would be required on top of normal refinery operations. More recent information indicates that existing hydrofiners can be used to produce ULSD by employing more active catalysts, increased hydrogen purity, and reduced space velocities. In the absence of better data, information on the two processes has been taken from standard equipment specifications. The data for this is shown in Table 1.11.

Table 1.11
Additional inputs to produce 1 tonne LSD and ULSD from 1 tonne current diesel

Equipment		Electricity	Energy from gas oil	Steam
		kWh	MJ	kg
Low sulfur	Hydro-desulfurisation unit	7.3	577	0
Ultra low sulfur	Hydro-cracking unit	50.3	1578	95

Source: J. Hydrocarbon Processing as supplied by M. Sanders (pers comm. 8 Feb. 2000)

1.3.2 Tailpipe emissions

There have been two major investigations conducted in Australia of the tailpipe emissions from LSD. Brown et al. (1999) used a four-mode steady-state chassis dynamometer based test derived from the SAE 13-mode test to examine four vehicles — a medium-duty truck with Euro1 engine technology (1992 Ford Trader of 7,075 kg gross vehicle mass), a Euro1 engine technology bus (1987 Mercedes Mark 4 of 16,000 kg GVM), a Euro2 technology bus (1996 Scania 11L Turbo of 19,100 kg GVM), and a Euro1 engine technology heavy duty truck (1991 Volvo NL12 Heavy Tipper of 25,000 kg GVM). The vehicles were examined using diesel fuel, with (D+C) and without (D) a fitted catalytic converter, and using LSD fuel, with (LSD+C) and without (LSD) a fitted catalytic converter. The catalytic converters were oxidation catalysts on metallic or ceramic substrates. The emission results for the main pollutants are given in Table 1.12 to Table 1.15.

Part 2 Details of Fuels

Table 1.12
Tailpipe emissions of CO (g/kWh) for various types of diesel

	MD	Bus	Euro2	HD
	Ford	Mercedes	Bus	Truck
	Trader	Mk4	Scania	Volvo
D	5.96	7.11	0.54	2.68
LSD	5.97	7.95		2.39
D+C	0.63	3.56	0.2	1.51
LSD+C	0.57	3.31	0.1	0.95

Source: Brown et al. (1999)

Table 1.13
Tailpipe emissions of NOx (g/kWh) for various types of diesel

	MD	Bus	Euro2	HD
	Ford	Mercedes	Bus	Truck
	Trader	Mk4	Scania	Volvo
D	8.23	14.1	9.2	9.77
LSD	8.76	13.9		10.5
D+C	7.89	11.9	8.84	10.6
LSD+C	7.41	12.5	9.02	11

Source: Brown et al. (1999)

Table 1.14
Tailpipe emissions of THC (g/kWh) for various types of diesel

	MD	Bus	Euro2	HD
	Ford	Mercedes	Bus	Truck
	Trader	Mk4	Scania	Volvo
D	1.45	1.7	0.42	0.4
LSD	1.62	1.84		0.39
D+C	0.21	1.14	0.2	0.24
LSD+C	0.15	1.12	0.09	0.22

Source: Brown et al. (1999)

Table 1.15
Tailpipe emissions of PM (at rated speed, 75% power) (mg/kWh) for various types of diesel

	MD	Bus	Euro2	HD
	Ford	Mercedes	Bus	Truck
	Trader	Mk4	Scania	Volvo
D	194	133	19	92
LSD	221	155		127
D+C	366	193	27	138
LSD+C	451	167	43	104

Source: Brown et al. (1999)

Part 2 Details of Fuels

Parsons Australia Pty Ltd (2000) examined the emissions from two vehicles using the Australian Composite Urban Emissions Drive Cycle (CUEDC, pronounced Q-DC). Their results, using six different diesel fuels of varying sulfur content, are given in Table 1.16 and Table 1.17. The values in Table 1.17 have been used to determine tailpipe emissions in Table 1.23.

Table 1.16
Emissions from a Euro 1 technology (ADR70) Light Commercial Vehicle (1993 Toyota Hilux) using a range of diesel fuels.

	S content mg/kg	CO ₂ g/km	CO g/km	NO _x g/km	HC g/km	PM (filter) mg/km	FC L/100 km
Base Fuel	1700	464	3.16	1.62	0.04	741	18.21
Euro2	480	444	1.15	1.47	0.02	353	18.22
Euro3	210	435	0.74	1.49	0.04	293	17.53
Euro4	39	439	1.24	1.48	0.04	331	17.86
WorldWide	24	452	1.29	1.42	0.05	301	18.52
CARB	264	439	1.69	1.28	0.04	419	17.68

Source: Parsons Australia Pty Ltd (2000: Table 5.3)

Table 1.17
Emissions from a Euro 1 technology (ADR70) Rigid Truck (1995 Isuzu 900SUR) using a range of diesel fuels.

	S content Mg/kg	CO ₂ g/km	CO g/km	NO _x g/km	HC g/km	PM (filter) mg/km	FC L/100 km
Base Fuel	1700	782	3.45	10.63	1.01	447	32.92
Euro2	480	719	2.48	10.17	0.9	380	30.18
Euro3	210	746	2.75	10.47	0.95	313	31.22
Euro4	39	718	3.13	8.66	0.73	284	30.53
WorldWide	24	692	2.81	8.4	0.73	283	29.6
CARB	264	775	2.63	8.57	0.84	300	31.56

Source: Parsons Australia Pty Ltd (2000: Table 5.4)

1.4 Full Fuel-Cycle Analysis of LSD Emissions

Coffey (2000) conducted modelling studies to estimate life-cycle emissions as a result of improved fuel quality, tighter emission controls on petrol and diesel vehicles, and a lower growth in transportation as the Kyoto Protocol commitments are met. The results may be found at: <http://www.ea.gov.au/atmosphere/transport/fuel/index.html>.

Diesel vehicles reduce their emissions of sulfur dioxide when using low and ultra-low sulfur fuels. The increased processing at the refinery indicates that the life-cycle greenhouse gas emissions are liable to increase. There are strong theoretical arguments to indicate that reducing fuel sulfur, *per se*, will not alter the fuel economy of an engine. Nevertheless, the recent fuel economy results of Parsons Australia Pty Ltd (2000) confirm that there is an approximate 10% increase in fuel efficiency when LSD is substituted for diesel as in Table 1.17.. This confirms the results obtained on London buses that were noted in Table 2.1 of Beer et al. (2000). Desulfurisation produces changes to fuel properties such as the cetane value.. It is likely that the fuel economy will vary among LSDs from different sources.

The pre-combustion estimates for LSD were based on the assumption that existing Australian refineries will need to install a hydro-desulfurisation unit to produce LSD. The Stage 1 report (Beer et al. 2000) assumed that a hydro-cracker was needed to produce ULSD. Recent analyses (M. Sanders, pers. comm.) indicate that Australian refineries may be able to produce

Part 2 Details of Fuels

ULSD using hydro-desulfurisation units by modifications as described earlier, or for new units by increasing the operating pressures.

1.4.1 Emissions on a mass per unit energy basis

The results obtained by using the SimaPro life-cycle model along with the upstream and tailpipe emissions data is given in Table 1.18 for the full life cycle for greenhouse gases and criteria pollutants. The upstream emissions and the tailpipe emissions that comprise these totals are given in Table 1.19 and Table 1.20, respectively. They have also been used to represent bus emissions by using the Leung and Williams (2000) model to represent emissions from a bus generating the same tractive force as the truck.

Table 1.18
Urban and total life-cycle emissions calculated for LSD

Full Lifecycle	Units (per MJ)	LS Diesel engine
Greenhouse	kg CO ₂	0.0858
NMHC total	g HC	0.140
NMHC urban	g HC	0.111
NOx total	g NOx	1.044
NOx urban	g NOx	0.987
CO total	g CO	0.253
CO urban	g CO	0.242
PM10 total	mg PM10	40.7
PM10 urban	mg PM10	39.3
Energy Embodied	MJ LHV	1.18

The results separate urban and rural emissions, rural being the difference between total emissions and urban emissions. Emissions were assumed to occur in urban areas unless they were produced by a known rural or maritime activity.

The apparent discrepancies in certain values, when compared with tabulations earlier in this report, arise because many of the values reported in the main text are in terms of g/MJ measured as useable energy from the engine driveshaft (normally represented as g/kWh), whereas the life-cycle calculations are consistent in setting all the calculations in terms of g/MJ, based on the inherent chemical energy of the fuel. On average, this reduces quoted engine dynamometer values by a factor of 3.

Table 1.19
Urban and total upstream emissions (per MJ) for LSD

Precombustion	Units	LSD
Greenhouse	kg CO ₂	0.0191
NMHC total	g HC	0.0565
NMHC urban	g HC	0.027
NOx total	g NOx	0.100
NOx urban	g NOx	0.043
CO total	g CO	0.023
CO urban	g CO	0.012
PM10 total	mg PM10	5.42
PM10 urban	mg PM10	4
Energy Embodied	MJ LHV	1.18

Part 2 Details of Fuels

Table 1.20
Urban and total tailpipe emissions (per MJ) from LSD

Combustion	Units	LSD
Greenhouse	kg CO ₂	0.067
NMHC total	g HC	0.084
NMHC urban	g HC	0.084
NOx total	g NOx	0.944
NOx urban	g NOx	0.944
CO total	g CO	0.230
CO urban	g CO	0.230
PM10 total	mg PM10	35.26
PM10 urban	mg PM10	35.26
Energy Embodied	MJ LHV	0

1.4.2 Vehicle emissions - trucks (g/km)

This section gives the calculated values for the emissions from trucks, on a per-kilometre basis.

Table 1.21
Urban and total life-cycle emissions (per km) for trucks calculated for LSD

Full LC	Units	LSD
Greenhouse	kg CO ₂	0.9250
NMHC total	g HC	1.509
NMHC urban	g HC	1.192
NOx total	g NOx	11.250
NOx urban	g NOx	10.638
CO total	g CO	2.723
CO urban	g CO	2.612
PM10 total	mg PM10	438.4
PM10 urban	mg PM10	423.1
Energy Embodied	MJ LHV	12.70

Table 1.22
Urban and total precombustion emissions (per km) for trucks calculated for LSD

Precombustion	Units	LSD (Aus)
Greenhouse	kg CO ₂	0.2060
NMHC total	g HC	0.609
NMHC urban	g HC	0.292
NOx total	g NOx	1.080
NOx urban	g NOx	0.468
CO total	g CO	0.243
CO urban	g CO	0.132
PM10 total	mg PM10	58.4
PM10 urban	mg PM10	43.1
Energy Embodied	MJ LHV	12.7

Part 2 Details of Fuels

Table 1.23
Urban and total tailpipe emissions (per km) for trucks calculated for LSD

Combustion	Units	LSD (Aus)
Greenhouse	kg CO ₂	0.719
NMHC total	g HC	0.900
NMHC urban	g HC	0.900
NOx total	g NOx	10.170
NOx urban	g NOx	10.170
CO total	g CO	2.480
CO urban	g CO	2.480
PM10 total	mg PM10	380.00
PM10 urban	mg PM10	380.00
Energy Embodied	MJ LHV	0

1.4.3 Vehicle emissions - buses (g/km)

This section gives the calculated values for the emissions from buses, on a per-kilometre basis.

Table 1.24
Urban and total life cycle emissions (per km) for buses calculated for LSD

Full LC	Units	LSD
Greenhouse	kg CO ₂	1.66
NMHC total	g HC	2.71
NMHC urban	g HC	2.14
NOx total	g NOx	20.20
NOx urban	g NOx	19.10
CO total	g CO	4.89
CO urban	g CO	4.69
PM10 total	mg PM10	787
PM10 urban	mg PM10	760
Energy Embodied	MJ LHV	22.8

Table 1.25
Urban and total precombustion emissions (per km) for buses calculated for LSD

Precombustion	Units	LSD (Aus)
Greenhouse	kg CO ₂	0.37
NMHC total	g HC	1.09
NMHC urban	g HC	0.52
NOx total	g NOx	1.94
NOx urban	g NOx	0.84
CO total	g CO	0.44
CO urban	g CO	0.24
PM10 total	mg PM10	104.9
PM10 urban	mg PM10	77.4
Energy Embodied	MJ LHV	22.8

Part 2 Details of Fuels

Table 1.26
Urban and total tailpipe emissions (per km) for buses calculated for LSD

Combustion	Units	LSD (Aus)
Greenhouse	kg CO ₂	1.2910
NMHC total	g HC	1.616
NMHC urban	g HC	1.616
NOx total	g NOx	18.270
NOx urban	g NOx	18.270
CO total	g CO	4.453
CO urban	g CO	4.453
PM10 total	mg PM10	682.3
PM10 urban	mg PM10	682.3
Energy Embodied	MJ LHV	0.00

1.4.4 Uncertainties

We use the uncertainty estimates given by Beer et al. (2000) on the basis of the tailpipe emissions to estimate the uncertainties associated with the above results to be as given in Table 1.27.

Table 1.27
Estimated one standard deviation uncertainties (in percent) for LSD emissions

	g/MJ	g/t-km	g/p-km
CO ₂	10	9	11
NMHC	34	50	17
NOx	29	30	27
CO	111	144	78
PM10	45	39	50

1.5 Viability and Functionality

LSD is diesel fuel that meets either the Euro2 fuel specification for diesel fuel, or the fuel specification for LSD proposed by the Commonwealth for implementation in 2002. Reformulation of diesel to LSD requires no change to the current diesel distribution system or engines.

Changing diesel fuel composition and exhaust treatment can reduce emissions of toxic substances. Low sulfur content reduces emissions of PM. Reducing the polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and aromatic content reduces the emissions of some, but not all polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon compounds. For heavy vehicles these changes do not reduce emissions of gaseous toxics such as formaldehyde, benzene, and 1,3 butadiene (different results are obtained from light vehicle emissions). Particle traps in conjunction with low sulfur fuels reduce emissions of organic compounds and particulate matter, but not always to the same degree. Although the emissions of toxics are lower, the limited data does not indicate that the kind of substances emitted, or the profile of toxic substances, are altered.

According to a news report in the Australian Financial Review (8 January 2001, page 4) the Royal Automobile Club of Queensland advised owners of affected diesel-engined vehicles to lodge compensation claims for fuel pump seal leaks resulting from the use of LSD refined in Brisbane. We are advised (M. Sanders, pers. comm.) that the problem was due to lowering of the aromatics content of the fuel. The rubber oil seals in pre-1994 Japanese diesel vehicles use a type of rubber that expands with high aromatic content. The sudden drop in aromatics

Part 2 Details of Fuels

associated with the transition to LSD caused the seals to shrink and led to fuel leakage. Similar problems also occurred with certain pieces of agricultural machinery.

BP will rectify the problem by paying for new seals. The problems did not arise as a result of the lowering of the sulfur content as such, but because of the use of a hydro-cracker instead of a hydro-refiner.

1.6 Health and OHS

1.6.1 Production and transport

Estimated trace metal emissions to air for particulate matter from refinery operations are shown in Table 1.7. The emitted metals include nickel, copper, zinc, selenium, antimony, lead, cadmium and mercury.

Estimates of organic (including benzene, toluene and xylene) and trace metal emissions to water in refinery effluent are in Table 1.9 and Table 1.10.

Particles

The estimated PM bus emissions during production and transport taken from Beer et al. (2000) is 0.17 g/km. The use of more recent Australian data (Table 1.25) has reduced this figure to 0.10 g/km. The urban precombustion (truck) PM10 estimate from this LCA is 43 mg/km, as given in Table 1.22.

Air Toxics

Refinery equipment fugitive emissions leaks for NPI estimated as a percentage of total VOC released are in Table 1.8. The estimated percentages of VOC are:

Xylene: 0.28

Benzene: 0.14

Toluene: 0.7.

The LSD upstream emissions estimate of non-methanic volatile organic compounds (NMVOC) taken from Beer et al. (2000) is 2.01 g/km. The use of more recent Australian data (Table 1.25) has reduced this figure to 1.09 g/km. The urban precombustion (truck) NMHC estimate from the LCA is 0.292 g/km, as given in Table 1.22.

An accompanying disk to this report provides details, on a per km basis, of air toxics emissions from upstream activities.

1.6.2 Use

Particulate matter

Beer et al. (2000) found that PM combustion emissions from LSD from a Swedish Euro2 bus were 0.200 g/km. The use of more recent Australian data (Table 1.26) has led to an estimate of 0.68 g/km. The combustion (truck) PM10 estimate from this LCA is 0.038 g/km, as given in Table 1.23.

Air Toxics

The use of more recent Australian data (Table 1.26) has led to an estimate for buses of 1.62 g/km of NMVOC. Emissions are given for the other air toxics, however, no data was available for toluene and xylene combustion emissions. There is a substantial difference between the APACE 1999 Sydney bus results for HC and those reported in the Stage 1 Report of Beer et al. (2000). The combustion (truck) HC (assumed to be equivalent to NMVOC) estimate from the LCA is 0.900 g/km as given in Table 1.23.

Part 2 Details of Fuels

1.6.3 LSD emissions summary

The LCA emissions analysis given in Section 1.4 indicates that:

- The primary source of CO emissions is during the fuel production phase.
- The primary source of NO_x emissions is during the combustion phase.
- The primary source of NMHC emissions is during the fuel production phase.
- The primary source of PM emissions is during the combustion phase. The combustion (truck) PM₁₀ estimate of 38 mg/km will be used in comparisons with the other fuels.
- There is considerable variability in estimates of combustion HC emissions for LSD. This complicates comparisons between LSD and the various fuels in the absence of more detailed air toxics data. The combustion (truck) HC (assumed to be equivalent to NMVOC) estimate from the LCA of 0.900 g/km will be used in comparisons with the other fuels.
- Benzene emissions are estimated at 0.002 g/km
- 1,3 butadiene emissions are estimated at 0.017 g/km
- Formaldehyde and acetaldehyde emissions are very variable.
- polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon emissions are estimated at 0.076 g/km

1.6.4 OHS issues

Diesel is hazardous according to Worksafe Australia criteria, with moderate toxicity, a moderate hazard in relation to body contact, and a moderate hazard in relation to chronic effects. It is less hazardous than petrol, but as refineries produce both petrol and diesel from crude oil, many of the precautions needed to guard against the high flammability of petrol are also needed during the manufacture of diesel.

Long-term occupational exposure of workers in refineries can lead to lympho-haematopoietic cancers, which include leukaemia, multiple myeloma, and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. The Health Watch study of refinery workers (Bisby, 1993) found that the incidence of these diseases in ex-refinery workers was twice that expected in the general population.

The OHS issues in the lifecycle of LSD are covered by a range of State and Commonwealth occupation health and safety provisions.

Vapour Pressure Issues

There are minimal evaporative emission issues during the transport and use of LSD due to its relatively low volatility.

Evaporative emissions are a considerably more important issue for petrol- or gasoline-fuelled vehicles, compared with diesel vehicles. There is evidence (see for example NRC, 1991) that evaporative emissions from petrol vehicles have been consistently under-estimated, and recent studies have continued to demonstrate the importance of evaporative emissions.

1.7 Environmental Impact

Ecologically sustainable development is based on the principles of equity, efficiency and ecological integrity. The modern western economy is based on petroleum products, of which diesel is one. Though substantial arguments can be advanced that such an economy is not sustainable, in the sense that fossil fuels constitute a non-renewable resource, over the past three decades exploration activity has continually discovered new hydrocarbon reserves. In addition, the current concern over climate change has highlighted the burning of fossil fuels as one of the main causes. Thus even if one argues that the fossil fuel economy is economically efficient, it is more difficult to argue that it encourages equity or ecological integrity.

Diesel is refined from crude oil. Spills of crude oil, especially during transport in oil tankers at sea, pose an environmental hazard that contaminates marine life and bird life. Environmental

Part 2 Details of Fuels

damage from diesel itself can also occur, especially from leaks at service stations and refuelling depots that have been known to contaminate groundwater supplies.

1.8 Process trees

Figure 1.2 and 1.3 indicate process trees obtained from the SimaPro software used to undertake the quantitative life-cycle components of the study. These trees indicate, in an abbreviated form, the upstream components used to evaluate each component of the life-cycle.

To interpret the process tree, one starts at the top. Thus, in Figure 1.2, the values in the box refer to the mass (in kg) of CO₂-equ. To travel 1 km using LSD, there is a total of 0.926 kg emitted, as shown in the top box and summarised in Table 1.21. The fuel energy expended in travelling this 1 km is 10.8 MJ, as depicted in the second box down. The box below, which we shall call the fuel box, indicates that prior to combustion, the fuel tank contained 0.251 kg of fuel and that the upstream emissions of CO₂-equ to manufacture this fuel amounted to 0.207 kg CO₂-eq., as shown in Table 1.22.

Two separate process trees are depicted below the fuel box. The left hand side shows the upstream emissions involved in refining crude oil to produce diesel fuel. The process tree on the right shows the upstream emissions involved in hydro-processing to reduce the sulfur content of the fuel. For clarity, not all upstream processes are shown. If various upstream processes are not included, this is apparent by examining the bottom of the box. Small lines (tick marks) indicate that the full analysis consists of upstream processes feeding in to that box.

The computer software produces output in colour. On the right of each box there is a green line, with a red lower portion. The red lower proportion represents the proportion of the total value (0.926) accumulated up to that point. This can be seen by carefully examining the fuel box. The bottom 20% of the bar on the right of the box is darker than the remainder. The two top boxes have bars that are completely red.

Part 2 Details of Fuels

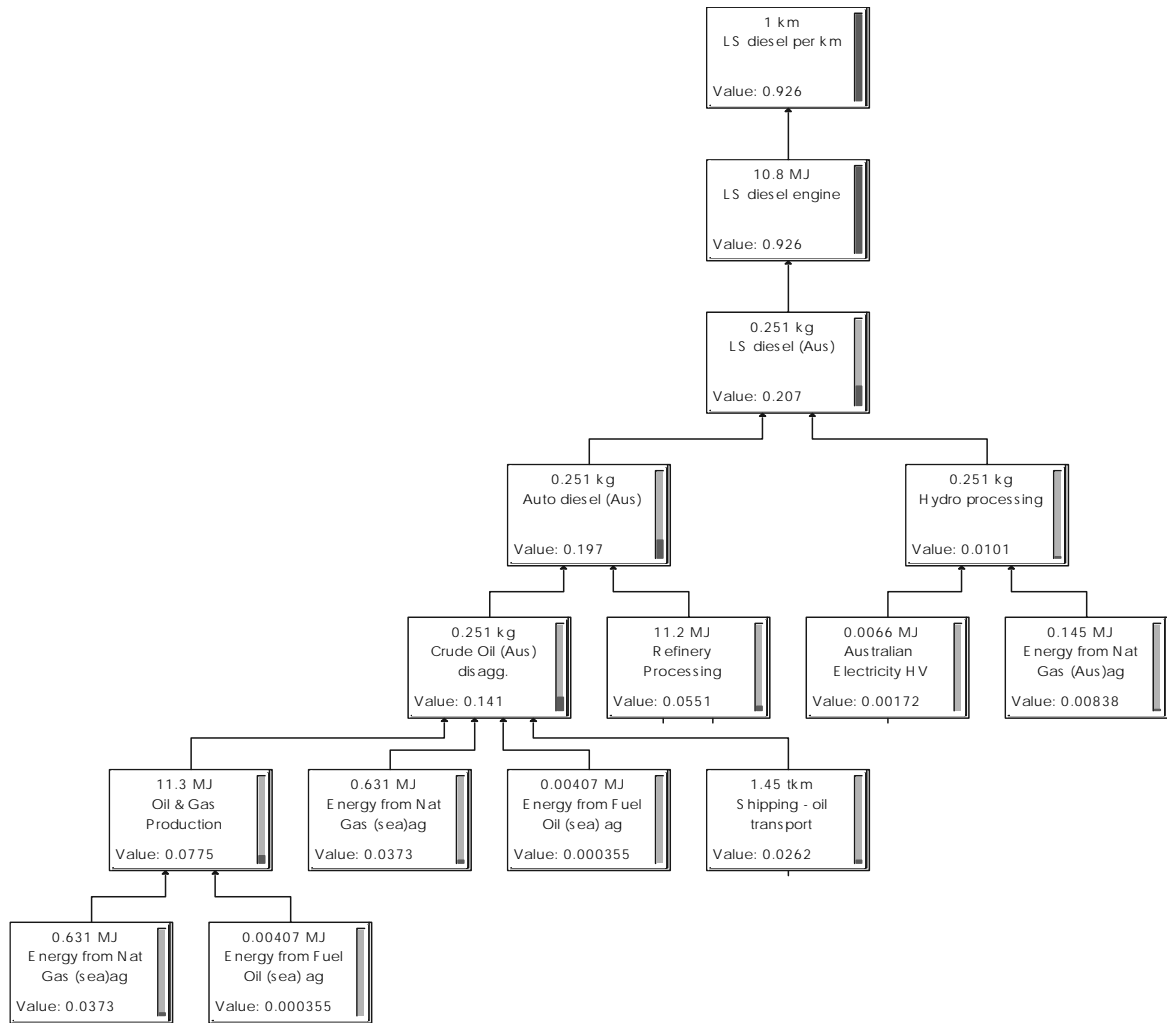


Figure 1.2
Embodied greenhouse gases emissions (kg CO₂-eq) from LSD production, processing and use in vehicle. The value is given in the bottom of each box.

Part 2 Details of Fuels

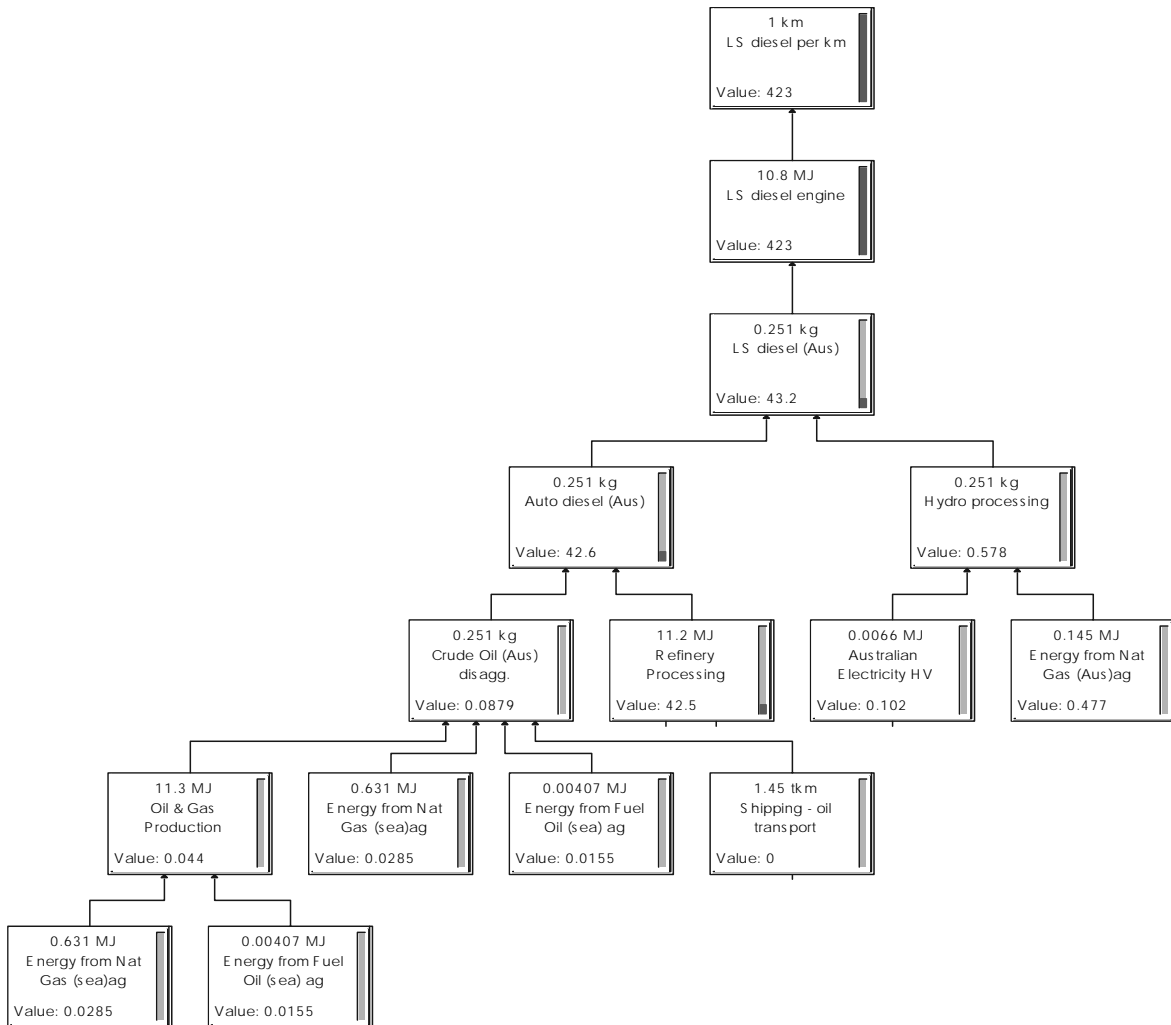


Figure 1.3
Embodied particulate matter (mg - urban) from LSD production, processing and use.
The value is given in the bottom of each box.