

3. Industrial Processes

Greenhouse gas emissions are produced as a by-product of various non-energy-related industrial activities. That is, these emissions are produced from an industrial process itself and are not directly a result of energy consumed during the process. For example, raw materials can be chemically transformed from one state to another. This transformation can result in the release of greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), or nitrous oxide (N₂O). The processes addressed in this chapter include iron and steel production, cement production, ammonia manufacture and urea application, lime manufacture, limestone and dolomite use (e.g., flux stone, flue gas desulfurization, and glass manufacturing), soda ash production and use, titanium dioxide production, ferroalloy production, CO₂ consumption, aluminum production, petrochemical production, silicon carbide production, nitric acid production, adipic acid production, and N₂O from product usage (see Figure 3-1).

In addition to the three greenhouse gases listed above, there are also industrial sources of several classes of man-made fluorinated compounds called hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆). The present contribution of these gases to the radiative forcing effect of all anthropogenic greenhouse gases is small; however, because of their extremely long lifetimes, many of them will continue to accumulate in the atmosphere as long as emissions continue. Usage of HFCs for the substitution of ozone depleting substances is growing rapidly, as they are the primary substitutes for ozone depleting substances (ODSs), which are being phased-out under the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. In addition to ODS substitutes, HFCs, PFCs, and other fluorinated compounds are employed and emitted by a number of other industrial sources in the United States. These industries include aluminum production, HCFC-22 production, semiconductor

manufacture, electric power transmission and distribution, and magnesium metal production and processing. Sulfur hexafluoride is the most potent greenhouse gas the IPCC has evaluated.

In 2001, industrial processes generated emissions of 287.6 Tg CO₂ Eq., or 4.1 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. Carbon dioxide emissions from all industrial processes were 147.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (147,864 Gg) in 2001. This amount accounted for only 2.6 percent of national CO₂ emissions. Methane emissions from petrochemical and silicon carbide production resulted in emissions of approximately 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (71 Gg) in 2001, which was 0.2 percent of U.S. CH₄ emissions. Nitrous oxide emissions from adipic acid and nitric acid production and N₂O from product usage were 27.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (88 Gg) in 2001, or 6.4

Figure 3-1

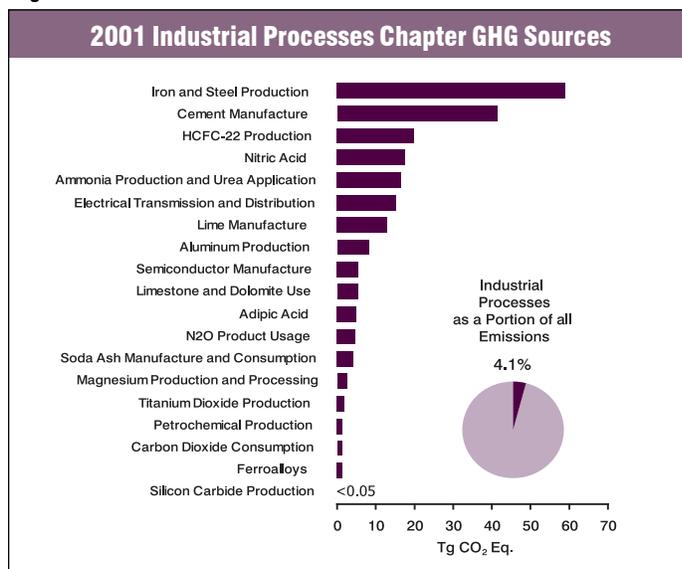


Table 3-1: Emissions from Industrial Processes (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
CO₂	169.3	165.7	161.4	166.6	165.0	161.3	160.1	147.9
Iron and Steel Production	85.4	74.4	68.3	71.9	67.4	64.4	65.8	59.1
Cement Manufacture	33.3	36.8	37.1	38.3	39.2	40.0	41.2	41.4
Ammonia Manufacture & Urea Application	19.3	20.5	20.3	20.7	21.9	20.6	19.6	16.6
Lime Manufacture	11.2	12.8	13.5	13.7	13.9	13.5	13.3	12.9
Limestone and Dolomite Use	5.5	7.0	7.6	7.1	7.3	7.7	5.8	5.3
Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption	4.1	4.3	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.1
Aluminum Production	6.3	5.3	5.6	5.6	5.8	5.9	5.4	4.1
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9
Ferroalloy Production	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.7	1.3
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3
CH₄	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.5
Petrochemical Production	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.5
Silicon Carbide Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	37.3	41.6	42.2	36.3	31.7	30.4	29.9	27.3
Nitric Acid Production	17.8	19.9	20.7	21.2	20.9	20.1	19.1	17.6
Adipic Acid Production	15.2	17.2	17.0	10.3	6.0	5.5	6.0	4.9
N ₂ O Product Usage	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8
HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆	94.4	99.5	113.6	116.8	127.6	120.3	121.0	111.0
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	0.9	21.7	30.4	37.7	44.5	50.9	57.3	63.7
HCFC-22 Production	35.0	27.0	31.1	30.0	40.2	30.4	29.8	19.8
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	32.1	27.5	27.7	25.2	20.9	16.4	15.4	15.3
Aluminum Production	18.1	11.8	12.5	11.0	9.0	8.9	7.9	4.1
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.9	5.9	5.4	6.5	7.3	7.7	7.4	5.5
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	5.6	6.5	6.3	5.8	6.0	3.2	2.5
Total	302.2	308.3	318.8	321.4	325.9	313.7	312.6	287.6

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

percent of total U.S. N₂O emissions. In 2001, combined emissions of HFCs, PFCs and SF₆ totaled 111.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. Overall, emissions from industrial processes decreased by 5 percent from 1990 to 2001, which was the result of decreases in emissions from several industrial processes—such as iron and steel, electrical transmission and distribution, HCFC-22 production, and aluminum production—which was partially offset by increases in emissions in other industrial processes, the largest being substitutes for ozone depleting substances.

Greenhouse gases are also emitted from a number of industrial processes not addressed in this chapter. For example, caprolactam—a chemical feedstock for the manufacture of nylon 6,6—is believed to be an industrial source of N₂O emissions. However, emissions for this and other sources have not been estimated due to a lack of information on the emission processes, manufacturing data, or both. As more information becomes available, emission estimates for these processes will be calculated and included in future greenhouse gas emission inventories, although their contribution is expected to be small.¹

¹ See Annex X for a discussion of emission sources excluded.

The general method employed to estimate emissions for industrial processes, as recommended by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), involves multiplying production data for each process by an emission factor per unit of production. The emission factors used were either derived using calculations that assume precise and efficient chemical reactions or were based upon empirical data in published references. As a result, uncertainties in the emission coefficients can be attributed to, among other things, inefficiencies in the chemical reactions associated with each production process or to the use of empirically derived emission factors that are biased and, therefore, may not represent U.S. national averages. Additional sources of uncertainty specific to an individual source category are discussed in each section.

Table 3-1 summarizes emissions for the Industrial Processes chapter in units of teragrams of CO₂ equivalents (Tg CO₂ Eq.), while unweighted gas emissions in gigagrams (Gg) are provided in Table 3-2.

Table 3-2: Emissions from Industrial Processes (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
CO₂	169,346	165,697	161,362	166,589	164,975	161,291	160,072	147,864
Iron and Steel Production	85,414	74,357	68,324	71,864	67,429	64,376	65,755	59,074
Cement Manufacture	33,278	36,847	37,079	38,323	39,218	39,991	41,190	41,357
Ammonia Manufacture & Urea Application	19,306	20,453	20,282	20,650	21,934	20,615	19,587	16,588
Lime Manufacture	11,238	12,804	13,495	13,685	13,914	13,466	13,315	12,859
Limestone and Dolomite Use	5,470	7,042	7,615	7,055	7,331	7,671	5,763	5,281
Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption	4,141	4,304	4,239	4,354	4,325	4,217	4,181	4,147
Aluminum Production	6,315	5,265	5,580	5,621	5,792	5,895	5,410	4,114
Titanium Dioxide Production	1,308	1,670	1,657	1,836	1,819	1,853	1,918	1,857
Ferroalloy Production	1,980	1,866	1,954	2,038	2,027	1,996	1,719	1,329
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	895	1,088	1,138	1,162	1,186	1,210	1,233	1,257
CH₄	57	73	76	78	79	80	80	71
Petrochemical Production	56	72	75	77	78	80	79	71
Silicon Carbide Production	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
N₂O	120	134	136	117	102	98	96	88
Nitric Acid Production	58	64	67	68	67	65	62	57
Adipic Acid Production	49	56	55	33	19	18	19	16
N ₂ O Product Usage	14	14	14	15	15	15	15	15
HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆	M							
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
HCFC-22 Production ^a	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	2
Electrical Transmission and Distribution ^b	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Aluminum Production	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Semiconductor Manufacture	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Magnesium Production and Processing ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg

M (Mixture of gases)

^a HFC-23 emitted^b SF₆ emitted

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Iron and Steel Production

In addition to being an energy intensive process, the production of iron and steel also generates process-related emissions of CO₂. Iron is produced by first reducing iron oxide (iron ore) with metallurgical coke in a blast furnace to produce pig iron (impure iron containing about 3 to 5 percent carbon by weight). Metallurgical coke is manufactured in a coke plant using coal as a raw material. Coke oven gas and coal tar are carbon by-products of the coke manufacturing process. The metallurgical coke is a raw material supplied to the blast furnace. Coke oven gas is generally burned as a fuel within the steel mill. Coal tar is used as a raw material in the manufacture of anodes used for primary aluminum production and for other electrolytic processes.

Carbon dioxide is produced as the metallurgical coke used in the blast furnace process is oxidized. Steel (containing less than 2 percent carbon by weight) is

produced from pig iron in a variety of specialized steel making furnaces. The majority of CO₂ emissions from the iron and steel process come from the use of coke in the production of pig iron, with smaller amounts evolving from the removal of carbon from pig iron used to produce steel. Some carbon is also stored in the finished iron and steel products.

Emissions of CO₂ from iron and steel production in 2001 were 59.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (59,074 Gg). Emissions have fluctuated significantly from 1990 to 2001 due to changes in domestic economic conditions and changes in product imports and exports (see Table 3-3). For the past several years, pig iron production has experienced a downward trend. Despite recovering somewhat in 2000, domestic production fell again in 2001. Pig iron production in 2001 was 12 percent lower than in 2000 and 18 percent below 1995 levels. A slowdown in the domestic and worldwide economy and the availability of low-priced imports limit growth in domestic production (USGS 2001a).

Table 3-3: CO₂ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	85.4	85,414
1995	74.4	74,357
1996	68.3	68,324
1997	71.9	71,864
1998	67.4	67,429
1999	64.4	64,376
2000	65.8	65,755
2001	59.1	59,074

Methodology

Since coke is consumed as a reducing agent during the manufacture of pig iron, the corresponding quantity of coal consumed during coking operations was identified. This quantity of coal is considered a non-energy use. Data were also collected on the amount of imported coke consumed in the blast furnace process. These data were converted to their energy equivalents. The carbon content of the combusted coal and imported coke was estimated by multiplying their energy consumption by material specific carbon-content coefficients. The carbon-content coefficients used are presented in Annex A.

Emissions from the re-use of scrap steel and imported pig iron in the steel production process were calculated by assuming that all the associated carbon-content of these materials are released on combustion. Steel has an associated carbon-content of approximately 0.4 percent, while pig iron is assumed to contain 4 percent carbon by weight.

Emissions from carbon anodes, used during the production of steel in electric arc furnaces (EAF), were also estimated. Emissions of CO₂ were calculated by multiplying the annual production of steel in electric arc furnaces by an emission factor (4.4 kg CO₂/ton steel_{EAF}). It was assumed that the carbon anodes are composed of 80 percent petroleum coke and 20 percent coal tar pitch (DOE 1997). Since coal tar pitch is a by-product of the coking process and its carbon related emissions are already accounted for during the estimation of emissions from coal combustion, the emission factor was reduced by 20 percent to avoid double counting.

Similarly, an adjustment was made to account for the coal tar pitch component of carbon anodes consumed during the production of aluminum. Again, it was assumed that the

carbon anodes have a composition of 80 percent petroleum coke and 20 percent coal tar. These coal tar emissions are accounted for in the aluminum production section of this chapter. To prevent double counting, 20 percent of the emissions reported in the aluminum section have been subtracted from the estimates for iron and steel production.

Carbon storage was accounted for by assuming that all domestically manufactured steel had a carbon content of 0.4 percent. Furthermore, any pig iron that was not consumed during steel production, but fabricated into finished iron products, was assumed to have a carbon content by weight of 4 percent.

Data Sources

Data relating to the amount of coal consumed at coke plants, for the production of coke for domestic consumption in blast furnaces, as well as the quantity of coke imported for iron production were taken from Energy Information Administration (EIA), *Quarterly Coal Report* January-March 2002 (EIA 2002); *U.S. Coal Domestic and International Issues* (EIA 2001); *Mineral Yearbook: Iron and Steel* (USGS 2001a, 2000a, 1999, 1997, 1995a, 1993) and American Iron and Steel Institute (AISI), *Annual Statistical* were obtained from *IPCC Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management* (IPCC 2000). Aluminum production data for 1990 through 2001 were obtained from *Mineral Industry Surveys: Aluminum Annual Report* (USGS 2002, 2001b, 2000b, 1998, 1995b). The CO₂ emission factor for carbon anode emissions from aluminum production was taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Estimates for the composition of carbon anodes used during steel and aluminum production were obtained from *Energy and Environmental Profile of the U.S. Aluminum Industry* (DOE 1997).

Uncertainty

Estimating CO₂ emissions from coal and coke combustion is based on energy consumption data, average carbon contents, and the fraction of carbon oxidized produce a relatively accurate estimate of CO₂ emissions. However, there are uncertainties associated with each of these factors. For example, carbon oxidation factors may vary depending on inefficiencies in the combustion process, where varying degrees of ash or soot can remain unoxidized.

Simplifying assumptions were made concerning the composition of carbon anodes (80 percent petroleum coke and 20 percent coal tar). For example, within the aluminum industry, the coal tar pitch content of anodes can vary from 15 percent in prebaked anodes to 24 to 28 percent in Soderberg anode pastes (DOE 1997). An average value was assumed and applied to all carbon anodes utilized during aluminum and steel production. The assumption is also made that all coal tar used during anode production originates as a by-product of the domestic coking process. Similarly, it was assumed that all pig iron and crude steel have carbon contents of 4 percent and 0.4 percent, respectively. The carbon content of pig iron can vary between 3 and 5 percent, while crude steel can have a carbon content of up to 2 percent, although it is typically less than 1 percent (IPCC 2000).

There is uncertainty in the most accurate CO₂ emission factor for carbon anode consumption in aluminum production. Emissions vary depending on the specific technology used by each plant (Prebake or Soderberg). The *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) provide CO₂ emission factors for each technology type. Using information gathered from the Voluntary Aluminum Industrial Partnership (VAIP) program, it was assumed that production was split 80 percent prebake and 20 percent Soderberg for the whole time series. Similarly, the carbon anode emission factor for steel production can vary between 3.7 and 5.5 kg CO₂/ton steel (IPCC 2000). For this analysis, the upper bound value was used.

Cement Manufacture

Cement manufacture is an energy and raw material intensive process resulting in the generation of CO₂ from both the energy consumed in making the cement and the chemical process itself.² Cement production has accounted for about 2.4 percent of total global industrial and energy-related CO₂ emissions (IPCC 1996), and the United States is the world's third largest cement producer. Cement is manufactured in almost every U.S. state. Carbon dioxide emitted from the chemical process of cement production represents one of the largest sources of industrial CO₂ emissions in the United States.

² The CO₂ emissions related to the consumption of energy for cement manufacture are accounted for under CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion in the Energy chapter.

Table 3-4: CO₂ Emissions from Cement Production*

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	33.3	33,278
1995	36.8	36,847
1996	37.1	37,079
1997	38.3	38,323
1998	39.2	39,218
1999	40.0	39,991
2000	41.2	41,190
2001	41.4	41,357

* Totals exclude CO₂ emissions from making masonry cement from clinker, which are accounted for under Lime Manufacture.

During the cement production process, calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) is heated in a cement kiln at a temperature of about 1,300°C (2,400°F) to form lime (i.e., calcium oxide or CaO) and CO₂. This process is known as calcination or calcining. Next, the lime is combined with silica-containing materials to produce clinker (an intermediate product), with the earlier by-product CO₂ being released to the atmosphere. The clinker is then allowed to cool, mixed with a small amount of gypsum, and used to make Portland cement. The production of masonry cement from Portland cement requires additional lime and, thus, results in additional CO₂ emissions. However, this additional lime is already accounted for in the Lime Manufacture source category in this chapter; therefore, the additional emissions from making masonry cement from clinker are not counted in this source category's total. They are presented here for informational purposes only.

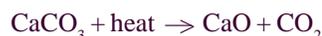
In 2001, U.S. clinker production—including Puerto Rico—totaled 79,979 thousand metric tons, and U.S. masonry cement production was estimated to be 4,450 thousand metric tons (USGS 2002). The resulting emissions of CO₂ from clinker production were estimated to be 41.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (41,357 Gg) (see Table 3-4). Emissions from masonry production from clinker raw material were estimated to be 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (100 Gg) in 2001, but again are accounted for under Lime Manufacture.

After falling in 1991 by 2 percent from 1990 levels, cement production emissions have grown every year since. Overall, from 1990 to 2001, emissions increased by 24 percent. In 2001, output by cement plants increased by less than 1

percent over 2000, to 79,979 thousand metric tons. Cement is a critical component of the construction industry; therefore, the availability of public construction funding, as well as overall economic growth, have had considerable influence on cement production.

Methodology

Carbon dioxide emissions from cement manufacture are created by the chemical reaction of carbon-containing minerals (i.e., calcining limestone). While in the kiln, limestone is broken down into CO₂ and lime with the CO₂ released to the atmosphere. The quantity of the CO₂ emitted during cement production is directly proportional to the lime content of the clinker. During calcination, each mole of CaCO₃ (i.e., limestone) heated in the clinker kiln forms one mole of lime (CaO) and one mole of CO₂:



Carbon dioxide emissions were estimated by applying an emission factor, in tons of CO₂ released per ton of clinker produced, to the total amount of clinker produced. The emission factor used in this analysis is the product of the average lime fraction for clinker of 64.6 percent (IPCC 2000) and a constant reflecting the mass of CO₂ released per unit of lime. This calculation yields an emission factor of 0.507 tons of CO₂ per ton of clinker produced, which was determined as follows:

$$\text{EF}_{\text{Clinker}} = 0.646 \text{ CaO} \times \left[\frac{44.01 \text{ g/mole CO}_2}{56.08 \text{ g/mole CaO}} \right] = 0.507 \text{ tons CO}_2/\text{ton clinker}$$

Table 3-5: Cement Production (Gg)

Year	Clinker	Masonry
1990	64,355	3,209
1991	62,918	2,856
1992	63,415	3,093
1993	66,957	2,975
1994	69,786	3,283
1995	71,257	3,603
1996	71,706	3,469
1997	74,112	3,634
1998	75,842	3,989
1999	77,337	4,375
2000	79,656	4,332
2001	79,979	4,450

During clinker production, some of the clinker precursor materials remain in the kiln as non-calcinated, partially calcinated, or fully calcinated cement kiln dust (CKD). The emissions attributable to the calcinated portion of the CKD are not accounted for by the clinker emission factor. The IPCC recommends that these additional CKD CO₂ emissions should be estimated as 2 percent of the CO₂ emissions calculated from clinker production. Total cement production emissions were calculated by adding the emissions from clinker production to the emissions assigned to CKD (IPCC 2000).

Masonry cement requires additional lime over and above the lime used in clinker production. In particular, non-plasticizer additives such as lime, slag, and shale are added to the cement, increasing its weight by approximately 5 percent. Lime accounts for approximately 60 percent of this added weight. Thus, the additional lime is equivalent to roughly 2.86 percent of the starting amount of the product, since:

$$0.6 \times 0.05 / (1 + 0.05) = 2.86\%$$

An emission factor for this added lime can then be calculated by multiplying this percentage (2.86 percent) by the molecular weight ratio of CO₂ to CaO (0.785) to yield 0.0224 metric tons of additional CO₂ emitted for every metric ton of masonry cement produced.

As previously mentioned, the CO₂ emissions from the additional lime added during masonry cement production are accounted for in the section on CO₂ emissions from Lime Manufacture. Thus, these emissions were estimated in this chapter for informational purposes only, and are not included in the cement emission totals.

Data Sources

The activity data for clinker and masonry cement production (see Table 3-5) were obtained from U.S. Geological Survey (USGS 1992, 1995a, 1995b, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002). The data were compiled by USGS through questionnaires sent to domestic clinker and cement manufacturing plants.

Uncertainty

The uncertainties contained in these estimates are primarily due to uncertainties in the lime content of clinker, in the amount of lime added to masonry cement, and in the percentage of CKD recycled inside the clinker kiln. The lime content of clinker varies from 64 to 66 percent. CKD loss can range from 1.5 to 8 percent depending upon plant

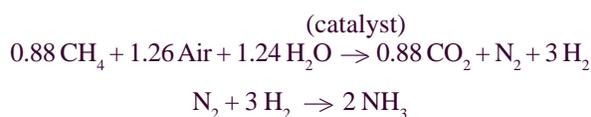
specifications. Additionally, some amount of CO₂ is reabsorbed when the cement is used for construction. As cement reacts with water, alkaline substances such as calcium hydroxide are formed. During this curing process, these compounds may react with CO₂ in the atmosphere to create calcium carbonate. This reaction only occurs in roughly the outer 0.2 inches of surface area. Because the amount of CO₂ reabsorbed is thought to be minimal, it was not estimated.

Ammonia Manufacture and Urea Application

Emissions of CO₂ occur during the production of synthetic ammonia. In the United States, roughly 98 percent of synthetic ammonia is produced by catalytic steam reforming of natural gas. The remainder is produced using naphtha (a petroleum fraction) as a feedstock or through the electrolysis of brine at chlorine plants (EPA 1997). The natural gas-based and naphtha-based processes produce CO₂ and hydrogen (H₂), the latter of which is used in the production of ammonia. The brine electrolysis process does not lead to CO₂ emissions.

There are five principal process steps in synthetic ammonia production from natural gas feedstock. The primary reforming step converts CH₄ to CO₂, carbon monoxide (CO), and H₂ in the presence of a catalyst. Only 30 to 40 percent of the CH₄ feedstock to the primary reformer is converted to CO and CO₂. The secondary reforming step converts the remaining CH₄ feedstock to CO and CO₂. The CO in the process gas from the secondary reforming step (representing approximately 15 percent of the process gas) is converted to CO₂ in the presence of a catalyst, water, and air in the shift conversion step. Carbon dioxide is removed from the process gas by the shift conversion process, and the hydrogen gas is combined with the nitrogen gas in the process gas during the ammonia synthesis step to produce ammonia. The CO₂ is included in a waste gas stream with other process impurities and is absorbed by a scrubber solution. In regenerating the scrubber solution, CO₂ is released.

The conversion process for conventional steam reforming of CH₄, including primary and secondary reforming and the shift conversion processes, is approximately as follows:



Not all of the CO₂ produced in the production of ammonia is emitted directly to the atmosphere. Both ammonia and carbon dioxide are used as raw materials in the production of urea [CO(NH₂)₂], which is another type of nitrogenous fertilizer that contains carbon as well as nitrogen. The chemical reaction that produces urea is:



The carbon in the urea that is produced and assumed to be subsequently applied to agricultural land as a nitrogenous fertilizer is ultimately released into the environment as CO₂; therefore, the CO₂ produced by ammonia production and subsequently used in the production of urea does not change overall CO₂ emissions. However, the CO₂ emissions are allocated to the ammonia and urea production processes in accordance to the amount of ammonia and urea produced.

Net emissions of CO₂ from ammonia production in 2001 were 9.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (9,104 Gg). Carbon dioxide emissions from this source are summarized in Table 3-6. Emissions of CO₂ from urea application in 2001 totaled 7.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (7,485 Gg). Carbon dioxide emissions from this source are summarized in Table 3-7.

Table 3-6: CO₂ Emissions from Ammonia Manufacture

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	12.6	12,553
1995	13.5	13,546
1996	13.8	13,825
1997	14.0	14,028
1998	14.2	14,215
1999	12.9	12,948
2000	12.1	12,100
2001	9.1	9,104

Table 3-7: CO₂ Emissions from Urea Application

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	6.8	6,753
1995	6.9	6,907
1996	6.5	6,457
1997	6.6	6,622
1998	7.7	7,719
1999	7.7	7,667
2000	7.5	7,488
2001	7.5	7,485

Table 3-8: Ammonia Production

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	15,425
1991	15,576
1992	16,261
1993	15,599
1994	16,211
1995	15,788
1996	16,260
1997	16,231
1998	16,761
1999	15,728
2000	14,342
2001	11,374

Table 3-9: Urea Production

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	8,124
1991	7,373
1992	8,142
1993	7,557
1994	7,584
1995	7,363
1996	7,755
1997	7,430
1998	8,042
1999	8,080
2000	6,969
2001	6,199

Methodology

The calculation methodology for non-combustion CO₂ emissions from production of nitrogenous fertilizers is based on a CO₂ emission factor published by the European Fertilizer Manufacturers Association (EFMA). The CO₂ emission factor (1.2 tons CO₂/ton NH₃) is applied to the total annual domestic ammonia production. Emissions of CO₂ from ammonia production are then adjusted to account for the use of some of the CO₂ produced from ammonia production as a raw material in the production of urea. For each ton of urea produced, 8.8 of every 12 tons of CO₂ are consumed and 6.8 of every 12 tons of ammonia are consumed. The CO₂ emissions reported for ammonia production are therefore reduced by a factor of 0.73 multiplied by total annual domestic urea production, and that amount of CO₂ emissions is allocated to urea fertilizer application. Total CO₂ emissions resulting from nitrogenous fertilizer production does not

change as a result of this calculation, but some of the CO₂ emissions are attributed to ammonia production and some of the CO₂ emissions are attributed to urea application.

The calculation of the total non-combustion CO₂ emissions from nitrogenous fertilizers accounts for CO₂ emissions from the application of imported and domestically produced urea. For each ton of imported urea applied, 0.73 tons of CO₂ are emitted to the atmosphere. The amount of imported urea applied is calculated based on the net of urea imports and exports.

All ammonia production and subsequent urea production was assumed to be from the same process—conventional catalytic reforming of natural gas feedstock. Further, ammonia and urea are assumed to be manufactured in the same manufacturing complex, as both the raw materials needed for urea production are produced by the ammonia production process.

Data Sources

The emission factor of 1.2 ton CO₂/ton NH₃ was taken from the European Fertilizer Manufacturers Association Best Available Techniques publication, *Production of Ammonia* (EFMA 1995). The EFMA reported an emission factor range of 1.15 to 1.30 ton CO₂/ton NH₃, with 1.2 ton CO₂/ton NH₃ as a typical value. The EFMA reference also indicates that more than 99 percent of the CH₄ feedstock to the catalytic reforming process is ultimately converted to CO₂. Ammonia and urea production data (see Table 3-8 and Table 3-9, respectively) were obtained from the Census Bureau of the U.S. Department of Commerce (U.S. Census Bureau 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c) as reported in *Current Industrial Reports Fertilizer Materials and Related Products* annual and quarterly reports. Import and export data were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau *Current Industrial Reports Fertilizer Materials and Related Products* annual reports (U.S. Census Bureau) for 1997 through 2001, The Fertilizer Institute (TFI 2002) for 1993 through 1996, and the United States International Trade Commission Interactive Tariff and Trade DataWeb (U.S. ITC 2002) for 1990 through 1992.

Uncertainty

It is uncertain how accurately the emission factor used represents an average across all ammonia plants. The EFMA reported an emission factor range of 1.15 to 1.30 ton CO₂/ton NH₃, with 1.2 ton CO₂/ton NH₃ reported as a typical value. The actual emission factor depends upon the amount of air used in the ammonia production process, with 1.15 ton CO₂/ton NH₃ being the approximate stoichiometric minimum that is achievable for the conventional reforming process. By using natural gas consumption data for each ammonia plant, more accurate estimates of CO₂ emissions from ammonia production could be calculated. However, these consumption data are often considered confidential. Also, natural gas is consumed at ammonia plants both as a feedstock to the reforming process and for generating process heat and steam. Natural gas consumption data, if available, would need to be divided into feedstock use (non-energy) and process heat and steam (fuel) use, as CO₂ emissions from fuel use and non-energy use are calculated separately.³

Natural gas feedstock consumption data for the U.S. ammonia industry as a whole is available from the Energy Information Administration (EIA) *Manufacturers Energy Consumption Survey* (MECS) for the years 1985, 1988, 1991, 1994 and 1998 (EIA 1994; EIA 1998). These feedstock consumption data collectively correspond to an effective average emission factor of 1.0 ton CO₂/ton NH₃, which appears to be below the stoichiometric minimum that is achievable for the conventional steam reforming process. The EIA data for natural gas consumption for the years 1994 and 1998 correspond more closely to the CO₂ emissions calculated using the EFMA emission factor than do data for previous years. The 1994 and 1998 data alone yield an effective emission factor of 1.1 ton CO₂/ton NH₃, corresponding to CO₂ emissions estimates that are approximately 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. below the estimates calculated using the EFMA emission factor of 1.2 ton CO₂/ton NH₃. Natural gas feedstock consumption data are not available

³ It appears, for example, that the IPCC emission factor for ammonia production of 1.5 ton CO₂ per ton ammonia may include both CO₂ emissions from the natural gas feedstock to the process and some CO₂ emissions from the natural gas used to generate process heat and steam for the process. Table 2-5, Ammonia Production Emission Factors, in Volume 3 of the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories Reference Manual (IPCC 1997) includes two emission factors, one reported for Norway and one reported for Canada. The footnotes to the table indicate that the factor for Norway does not include natural gas used as fuel but that it is unclear whether the factor for Canada includes natural gas used as fuel. However, the factors for Norway and Canada are nearly identical (1.5 and 1.6 tons CO₂ per ton ammonia, respectively) and it is likely that if one value includes fuel use the other value also does. Further, for the conventional steam reforming process, the EFMA reports an emission factor range for feedstock CO₂ of 1.15 to 1.30 ton per ton (with a typical value of 1.2 ton per ton) and an emission factor for fuel CO₂ of 0.5 tons per ton. This corresponds to a total CO₂ emission factor for the ammonia production process, including both feedstock CO₂ and process heat CO₂, of 1.7 ton per ton which is closer to the emission factors reported in the IPCC 1996 Reference Guidelines than to the feedstock-only CO₂ emission factor of 1.2 ton CO₂ per ton ammonia reported by the EFMA.

Table 3-10: Urea Net Imports

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	1,086
1991	648
1992	656
1993	2,305
1994	2,249
1995	2,055
1996	1,051
1997	1,600
1998	2,483
1999	2,374
2000	3,241
2001	4,008

from EIA for other years, and data for 1991 and previous years may underestimate feedstock natural gas consumption, and therefore the emission factor was used to estimate CO₂ emissions from ammonia production, rather than EIA data.

All ammonia production and subsequent urea production was assumed to be from the same process—conventional catalytic reforming of natural gas feedstock. However, actual emissions may differ because processes other than catalytic steam reformation and feedstocks other than natural gas may have been used for ammonia production. Urea is also used for other purposes than as a nitrogenous fertilizer. It was assumed that 100 percent of the urea production and net imports are used as fertilizer or in otherwise emissive uses. It is also assumed that ammonia and urea are produced at collocated plants from the same natural gas raw material.

Lime Manufacture

Lime is an important manufactured product with many industrial, chemical, and environmental applications. Its major uses are in steel making, flue gas desulfurization (FGD) systems at coal-fired electric power plants, construction,

Table 3-11: Net CO₂ Emissions from Lime Manufacture

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.
1990	11.2
1995	12.8
1996	13.5
1997	13.7
1998	13.9
1999	13.5
2000	13.3
2001	12.9

Table 3-12: CO₂ Emissions from Lime Manufacture (Gg)

Year	Potential	Recovered*	Net Emissions
1990	11,730	(493)	11,238
1995	13,701	(896)	12,804
1996	14,347	(852)	13,495
1997	14,649	(964)	13,685
1998	14,975	(1,061)	13,914
1999	14,655	(1,188)	13,466
2000	14,548	(1,233)	13,315
2001	14,016	(1,156)	12,859

* For sugar refining and precipitated calcium carbonate production
 Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

and water purification. Lime has historically ranked fifth in total production of all chemicals in the United States. For U.S. operations, the term “lime” actually refers to a variety of chemical compounds. These include calcium oxide (CaO), or high-calcium quicklime; calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂), or hydrated lime; dolomitic quicklime ([CaO•MgO]); and dolomitic hydrate ([Ca(OH)₂•MgO] or [Ca(OH)₂•Mg(OH)₂]).

Lime production involves three main processes: stone preparation, calcination, and hydration. Carbon dioxide is generated during the calcination stage, when limestone—mostly calcium carbonate (CaCO₃)—is roasted at high temperatures in a kiln to produce CaO and CO₂. The CO₂ is driven off as a gas and is normally emitted to the atmosphere. Some of the CO₂ generated during the production process, however, is recovered at some facilities for use in sugar refining and precipitated calcium carbonate (PCC)⁴ production. It is also important to note that, for certain applications, lime reabsorbs CO₂ during use (see Uncertainty, below).

Lime production in the United States—including Puerto Rico—was reported to be 18,957 thousand metric tons in 2001 (USGS 2002). This resulted in estimated CO₂ emissions of 12.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (12,859 Gg) (see Table 3-11 and Table 3-12).

At the turn of the 20th Century, over 80 percent of lime consumed in the United States went for construction uses. The contemporary quicklime market is distributed across its four end-use categories as follows: metallurgical uses, 35 percent; environmental uses, 27 percent; chemical and industrial uses, 24 percent; and construction uses, 13 percent. Construction end-uses account for the largest segment of the hydrated lime market, however, hydrated lime constitutes less than 10 percent of the total lime market (USGS 2002).

Lime production in 2001 declined 3 percent from 2000, the third consecutive drop in annual production. Overall, from 1990 to 2001, lime production increased by 20 percent. The increase in production is attributed in part to growth in demand for environmental applications, especially flue gas desulfurization (FGD) technologies. In 1993, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) completed regulations under the Clean Air Act capping sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emissions from electric utilities. Lime scrubbers’ high efficiencies and increasing affordability have allowed the FGD end-use to expand from 10 percent of total lime consumption in 1990 to 15 percent in 2001 (USGS 1992, 2002).

Methodology

During the calcination stage of lime manufacture, CO₂ is driven off as a gas and normally exits the system with the stack gas. To calculate emissions, the amounts of high-calcium and dolomitic lime produced were multiplied by their respective emission factors. The emission factor is the product of a constant reflecting the mass of CO₂ released per unit of lime and the average calcium plus magnesium oxide (CaO + MgO) content for lime (95 percent for both types of lime). The emission factors were calculated as follows:

For high-calcium lime:

$$[(44.01 \text{ g/mole CO}_2) \div (56.08 \text{ g/mole CaO})] \times (0.95 \text{ CaO/lime}) = 0.75 \text{ g CO}_2/\text{g lime}$$

For dolomitic lime:

$$[(88.02 \text{ g/mole CO}_2) \div (96.39 \text{ g/mole CaO})] \times (0.95 \text{ CaO/lime}) = 0.87 \text{ g CO}_2/\text{g lime}$$

⁴ Precipitated calcium carbonate is a specialty filler used in premium-quality coated and uncoated papers.

Production is adjusted to remove the mass of chemically combined water found in hydrated lime, using the midpoint of default ranges provided by the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000). These factors set the chemically combined water content to 27 percent for high-calcium hydrated lime, and 24 percent for dolomitic hydrated lime.

Lime production in the United States was 18,957 thousand metric tons in 2001 (USGS 2002), resulting in potential CO₂ emissions of 14.0 Tg CO₂. Some of the CO₂ generated during the production process, however, was recovered for use in sugar refining and precipitated calcium carbonate (PCC) production. Combined lime manufacture by these producers was 1,939 thousand metric tons in 2001, generating 1.4 Tg CO₂. It was assumed that approximately 80 percent of the CO₂ involved in sugar refining and PCC was recovered, resulting in actual CO₂ emissions of 12.9 Tg CO₂.

Data Sources

The activity data for lime manufacture and lime consumption by sugar refining and PCC production for 1990 through 2001 (see Table 3-13) were obtained from USGS (1992, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002). The CaO and CaO•MgO contents of lime were obtained from the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000). Since data for the individual lime types was not provided prior to 1997, total lime production for 1990 through 1996 was allocated according to the 1997 distribution. For sugar refining and PCC, it was assumed that 100 percent of lime manufacture and consumption was high-calcium, based on communication with the National Lime Association (Males 2003).

Uncertainty

Uncertainties in the emission estimate can be attributed to slight differences in the chemical composition of these products. Although the methodology accounts for various formulations of lime, it does not account for the trace impurities found in lime, such as iron oxide, alumina, and silica. Due to differences in the limestone used as a raw material, a rigid specification of lime material is impossible. As a result, few plants manufacture lime with exactly the same properties.

Table 3-13: Lime Production and Lime Use for Sugar Refining and PCC (Thousand Metric Tons)

Year	High-Calcium Production ^a	Dolomite Production ^{a,b}	Use
1990	12,947	2,895	826
1991	12,840	2,838	964
1992	13,307	2,925	1,023
1993	13,741	3,024	1,279
1994	14,274	3,116	1,374
1995	15,193	3,305	1,503
1996	15,856	3,434	1,429
1997	16,120	3,552	1,616
1998	16,750	3,423	1,779
1999	16,110	3,598	1,992
2000	15,850	3,621	2,067
2001	15,730	3,227	1,939

^a Includes hydrated limes.
^b Includes dead-burned dolomite.

Table 3-14: Hydrated Lime Production (Thousand Metric Tons)

Year	High-Calcium Hydrate	Dolomitic Hydrate
1990	1,781	319
1991	1,841	329
1992	1,892	348
1993	1,908	342
1994	1,942	348
1995	2,027	363
1996	1,858	332
1997	1,820	352
1998	1,950	383
1999	2,010	298
2000	1,550	421
2001	2,030	447

In addition, a portion of the CO₂ emitted during lime manufacture will actually be reabsorbed when the lime is consumed. As noted above, lime has many different chemical, industrial, environmental, and construction applications. In many processes, CO₂ reacts with the lime to create calcium carbonate (e.g., water softening). Carbon dioxide reabsorption rates vary, however, depending on the application. For example, 100 percent of the lime used to produce PCC reacts with CO₂; whereas most of the lime used in steel making reacts with impurities such as silica, sulfur, and aluminum compounds. A detailed accounting of lime use in the United States and further research into the associated processes are required to quantify the amount of CO₂ that is reabsorbed.⁵ As more information becomes available, this emission estimate will be adjusted accordingly.

⁵ Representatives of the National Lime Association estimate that CO₂ reabsorption that occurs from the use of lime may offset as much as a quarter of the CO₂ emissions from calcination (Males 2003).

In some cases, lime is generated from calcium carbonate by-products at paper mills and water treatment plants.⁶ The lime generated by these processes is not included in the USGS data for commercial lime consumption. In the paper industry, mills that employ the sulfate process (i.e., Kraft) consume lime in order to causticize a waste sodium carbonate solution (i.e., black liquor). Most sulfate mills recover the waste calcium carbonate after the causticizing operation and calcine it back into lime—thereby generating CO₂—for reuse in the pulping process. Although this re-generation of lime could be considered a lime manufacturing process, the CO₂ emitted during this process is mostly biogenic in origin, and therefore would not be included in Inventory totals.

In the case of water treatment plants, lime is used in the softening process. Some large water treatment plants may recover their waste calcium carbonate and calcine it into quicklime for reuse in the softening process. Further research is necessary to determine the degree to which lime recycling is practiced by water treatment plants in the United States.

Limestone and Dolomite Use

Limestone (CaCO₃) and dolomite (CaCO₃MgCO₃)⁷ are basic raw materials used by a wide variety of industries, including construction, agriculture, chemical, metallurgy, glass manufacture, and environmental pollution control.

Table 3-15: CO₂ Emissions from Limestone & Dolomite Use (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Flux Stone	3.0	3.7	4.1	4.8	5.0	5.5	2.5	2.1
Glass Making	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.1	+	0.4	0.1
FGD	1.4	1.7	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.8	2.6
Magnesium Production	0.1	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other Miscellaneous Uses	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.4	0.9	0.8	1.0	0.5
Total	5.5	7.0	7.6	7.1	7.3	7.7	5.8	5.3

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Notes: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Other miscellaneous uses include chemical stone, mine dusting or acid water treatment, acid neutralization, and sugar refining.

Table 3-16: CO₂ Emissions from Limestone & Dolomite Use (Gg)

Activity	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Flux Stone	2,954	3,709	4,052	4,803	4,992	5,538	2,506	2,062
Limestone	2,554	3,098	3,375	4,063	4,496	4,499	1,885	1,640
Dolomite	401	610	677	741	497	1,039	621	422
Glass Making	214	494	389	327	123	+	383	113
Limestone	189	413	299	327	68	+	383	113
Dolomite	25	81	90	+	54	+	+	+
FGD	1,433	1,674	2,017	1,462	1,287	1,308	1,847	2,551
Magnesium Production	64	41	73	73	73	73	73	53
Other Miscellaneous Uses	804	1,125	1,084	389	856	752	953	501
Total	5,470	7,042	7,614	7,055	7,331	7,671	5,763	5,281

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

Notes: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Other miscellaneous uses include chemical stone, mine dusting or acid water treatment, acid neutralization, and sugar refining.

⁶ Some carbide producers may also regenerate lime from their calcium hydroxide by-products, which does not result in emissions of CO₂. In making calcium carbide, quicklime is mixed with coke and heated in electric furnaces. The regeneration of lime in this process is done using a waste calcium hydroxide (hydrated lime) [CaC₂ + 2H₂O → C₂H₂ + Ca(OH)₂], not calcium carbonate [CaCO₃]. Thus, the calcium hydroxide is heated in the kiln to simply expel the water [Ca(OH)₂ + heat → CaO + H₂O] and no CO₂ is released.

⁷ Limestone and dolomite are collectively referred to as limestone by the industry, and intermediate varieties are seldom distinguished.

Table 3-17: Limestone and Dolomite Consumption (Thousand Metric Tons)

Activity	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Flux Stone	6,632	8,303	9,069	10,764	11,244	12,372	5,567	4,599
Limestone	5,804	7,042	7,671	9,234	10,218	10,225	4,285	3,728
Dolomite	828	1,261	1,399	1,530	1,026	2,147	1,282	871
Glass Making	482	1,105	865	743	268	0	871	258
Limestone	430	939	679	743	155	0	871	258
Dolomite	52	166	186	0	112	0	0	0
FGD	3,258	3,805	4,583	3,324	2,924	2,974	4,199	5,799
Other Miscellaneous Uses	1,800	2,557	2,445	873	1,935	1,709	2,167	1,138

NA (Not Available)
Note: "Other miscellaneous uses" includes chemical stone, mine dusting or acid water treatment, acid neutralization, and sugar refining.

Limestone is widely distributed throughout the world in deposits of varying sizes and degrees of purity. Large deposits of limestone occur in nearly every state in the United States, and significant quantities are extracted for industrial applications. For some of these applications, limestone is sufficiently heated during the process to generate CO₂ as a by-product. Examples of such applications include limestone used as a flux or purifier in metallurgical furnaces, as a sorbent in flue gas desulfurization (FGD) systems for utility and industrial plants, or as a raw material in glass manufacturing and magnesium production.

In 2001, approximately 10,923 thousand metric tons of limestone and 871 thousand metric tons of dolomite were consumed for these applications. Overall, usage of limestone and dolomite resulted in aggregate CO₂ emissions of 5.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5,281 Gg) (see Table 3-15 and Table 3-16). Emissions in 2001 decreased 8 percent from the previous year and have decreased 2 percent since 1990.

Methodology

Carbon dioxide emissions were calculated by multiplying the quantity of limestone or dolomite consumed by the average carbon content, approximately 12.0 percent for limestone and 13.2 percent for dolomite (based on stoichiometry). This assumes that all carbon is oxidized and released. This methodology was used for flux stone, glass manufacturing, FGD systems, chemical stone, mine dusting or acid water treatment, acid neutralization, and sugar refining and then converting to CO₂ using a molecular weight ratio.

Two magnesium production methods were in use in the United States during 2001. One plant produced magnesium metal from the dolomitic process, while the only other plant in the United States produced magnesium from magnesium chloride (electrolytic reduction). During the dolomitic

process, CO₂ emissions during the thermic reduction of dolomite (CaMg (CO₃)₂) to magnesium metal vapor was estimated based on magnesium production capacity and the magnesium to carbon molar ratio. Capacity fluctuations are due to variable furnace availability. Operation at maximum operational capacity is assumed, which results in an overestimation of emissions. The assumption of emissions based on the magnesium to carbon molar ratio underestimates emissions from less than ideal (chemically) production. According to the reaction stoichiometry, two carbon molecules are emitted per magnesium molecule.

Data Sources

Consumption data for 1990 through 2001 of limestone and dolomite used for flux stone, glass manufacturing, FGD systems, chemical stone, mine dusting or acid water treatment, acid neutralization, and sugar refining (see Table 3-17) were obtained from personal communication with Valentine Tepordei of the USGS regarding data in the *Minerals Yearbook: Crushed Stone Annual Report* (Tepordei 2002 and USGS 1993, 1995a, 1995b, 1996a, 1997a, 1998a, 1999a, 2000a, 2001a). The production capacity data for 1990 through 2001 of dolomitic magnesium metal (see Table 3-18) also came from the USGS (1995c, 1996b, 1997b, 1998b, 1999b, 2000b, 2001b). During 1990 and 1992, the USGS did not conduct a detailed survey of limestone and dolomite consumption by end-use. Consumption figures for 1990 were estimated by applying the 1991 percentages of total limestone and dolomite use constituted by the individual limestone and dolomite uses to the 1990 total use figure. Similarly, the 1992 consumption figures were approximated by applying an average of the 1991 and 1993 percentages of total limestone and dolomite use constituted by the individual limestone and dolomite uses to the 1992 total figure.

Table 3-18: Dolomitic Magnesium Metal Production Capacity (Metric Tons)

Year	Production Capacity
1990	35,000
1991	35,000
1992	14,909
1993	12,964
1994	21,111
1995	22,222
1996	40,000
1997	40,000
1998	40,000
1999	40,000
2000	40,000
2001	29,167

Additionally, each year the USGS withholds certain limestone and dolomite end-uses due to confidentiality agreements regarding company proprietary data. On average between 1990 and 2001 the USGS withheld estimates for two limestone and dolomite end-uses. For the purposes of this analysis, emissive end-uses that contained withheld data were estimated using one of the following techniques: (1) the value for all the withheld data points for limestone or dolomite use was distributed evenly to all withheld end-uses; (2) the average percent of total limestone or dolomite for the withheld end-use in the preceding and succeeding years; or (3) the average fraction of total limestone or dolomite for the end-use over the entire time period.

Finally, there is a large quantity of crushed stone reported to the USGS under the category “unspecified uses.” A portion of this consumption is believed to be limestone or dolomite used for emissive end uses. The quantity listed for “unspecified uses” was, therefore, allocated to each reported end-use according to each end uses fraction of total consumption in that year.⁸

Uncertainty

Uncertainties in this estimate are due, in part, to variations in the chemical composition of limestone. In addition to calcite, limestone may contain smaller amounts of magnesia, silica, and sulfur. The exact specifications for limestone or dolomite used

⁸ This approach was recommended by USGS.

⁹ In California, soda ash is manufactured using sodium carbonate-bearing brines instead of trona ore. To extract the sodium carbonate, the complex brines are first treated with CO₂ in carbonation towers to convert the sodium carbonate into sodium bicarbonate, which then precipitates from the brine solution. The precipitated sodium bicarbonate is then calcined back into sodium carbonate. Although CO₂ is generated as a by-product, the CO₂ is recovered and recycled for use in the carbonation stage and is not emitted.

as flux stone vary with the pyrometallurgical process, the kind of ore processed, and the final use of the slag. Similarly, the quality of the limestone used for glass manufacturing will depend on the type of glass being manufactured.

Uncertainties also exist in the activity data. Much of the limestone consumed in the United States is reported as “other unspecified uses;” therefore, it is difficult to accurately allocate this unspecified quantity to the correct end-uses. Also, some of the limestone reported as “limestone” is believed to actually be dolomite, which has a higher carbon content. Additionally, there is significant inherent uncertainty associated with estimating withheld data points for specific end uses of limestone and dolomite. Lastly, the uncertainty of the estimates for limestone used in glass making is especially high. Large fluctuations in reported consumption exist, reflecting year-to-year changes in the number of survey responders. The uncertainty resulting from a shifting survey population is exacerbated by the gaps in the time series of reports. However, since glass making accounts for a small percent of consumption, its contribution to the overall emissions estimate is low.

Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption

Soda ash (sodium carbonate, Na₂CO₃) is a white crystalline solid that is readily soluble in water and strongly alkaline. Commercial soda ash is used as a raw material in a variety of industrial processes and in many familiar consumer products such as glass, soap and detergents, paper, textiles, and food. It is used primarily as an alkali, either in glass manufacturing or simply as a material that reacts with and neutralizes acids or acidic substances. Internationally, two types of soda ash are produced—natural and synthetic. The United States produces only natural soda ash and is the largest soda ash-producing country in the world. Trona is the principal ore from which natural soda ash is made.

Only three States produce natural soda ash: Wyoming, California, and Colorado. Of these three States, only Wyoming has net emissions of CO₂. This difference is a result of the production processes employed in each state.⁹ During the

applications, it is assumed that one mole of carbon is released for every mole of soda ash used. Thus, approximately 0.113 metric tons of carbon (or 0.415 metric tons of CO₂) are released for every metric ton of soda ash consumed.

Data Sources

The activity data for trona production and soda ash consumption (see Table 3-21) were taken from USGS (1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002). Soda ash manufacture and consumption data were collected by the USGS from voluntary surveys of the U.S. soda ash industry. All six of the soda ash manufacturing operations in the United States completed surveys to provide data to the USGS.

Table 3-21: Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption (Thousand Metric Tons)

Year	Manufacture*	Consumption
1990	14,700	6,530
1991	14,700	6,280
1992	14,900	6,320
1993	14,500	6,280
1994	14,600	6,260
1995	16,500	6,500
1996	16,300	6,390
1997	17,100	6,480
1998	16,500	6,550
1999	15,900	6,430
2000	15,700	6,390
2001	15,400	6,380

* Soda ash manufactured from trona ore only.

Uncertainty

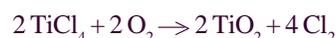
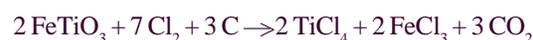
Emissions from soda ash manufacture are considered to be relatively certain. Both the emissions factor and activity data are reliable. However, emissions from soda ash consumption are dependent upon the type of processing employed by each end-use. Specific information characterizing the emissions from each end-use is limited. Therefore, uncertainty exists as to the accuracy of the emission factors.

Titanium Dioxide Production

Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is a metal oxide manufactured from titanium ore, and is principally used as a pigment. Titanium dioxide is a principal ingredient in white paint, and TiO₂ is also used as a pigment in the manufacture of white

paper, foods, and other products. There are two processes for making TiO₂, the chloride process and the sulfate process. Carbon dioxide is emitted from the chloride process, which uses petroleum coke and chlorine as raw materials and emits process-related CO₂. The sulfate process does not use petroleum coke or other forms of carbon as a raw material and does not emit CO₂. In 2001, approximately 95 percent of the titanium dioxide production capacity was chloride process and the remainder was sulfate process.

The chloride process is based on the following chemical reactions:



The carbon in the first chemical reaction is provided by petroleum coke, which is oxidized in the presence of the chlorine and FeTiO₃ (the Ti-containing ore) to form CO₂. The majority of U.S. TiO₂ was produced in the United States through the chloride process, and a special grade of petroleum coke is manufactured specifically for this purpose. Emissions of CO₂ from titanium dioxide production in 2001 were 1.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,857 Gg), an increase of 42 percent from 1990 due to increasing production within the industry (see Table 3-22).

Table 3-22: CO₂ Emissions from Titanium Dioxide

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	1.3	1,308
1995	1.7	1,670
1996	1.7	1,657
1997	1.8	1,836
1998	1.8	1,819
1999	1.9	1,853
2000	1.9	1,918
2001	1.9	1,857

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ from titanium dioxide production were calculated by multiplying annual titanium dioxide production by chlorine process-specific emission factors.

Data were obtained for the total amount of titanium dioxide produced each year, and it was assumed that 95 percent of the total production in 2001 was produced using the chloride process. An emission factor of 0.4 metric tons

C/metric ton TiO₂ was applied to the estimated chloride process production. It was assumed that all titanium dioxide produced using the chloride process was produced using petroleum coke, although some titanium dioxide may have been produced with graphite or other carbon inputs. The amount of petroleum coke consumed annually in titanium dioxide production was calculated based on the assumption that petroleum coke used in the process is 90 percent carbon and 10 percent inert materials.

Data Sources

The emission factor for the titanium dioxide chloride process was taken from the report *Everything You've Always Wanted to Know about Petroleum Coke* (Onder and Bagdoyan 1993). Titanium dioxide production data for 1990 through 2000 (see Table 3-23) were obtained from the U.S. Geological Survey's (USGS) *Minerals Yearbook: Titanium Annual Report* (USGS 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001). Data for 2001 were obtained from U.S. Census Bureau (2002) *Current Industrial Reports: Titanium Dioxide, November 2002*. Data for the percentage of the total titanium dioxide production capacity that is chloride process for 1994 through 2000 were also taken from the USGS *Minerals Yearbook*. Percentage chloride process data were not available for 1990 through 1993, and data from the 1994 USGS *Minerals Yearbook* were used for these years. Because a sulfate-process plant closed in September 2001, the chloride process percentage for 2001 was estimated based on a discussion with Joseph Gambogi, USGS Commodity Specialist (2002). The composition data for petroleum coke were obtained from Onder and Bagdoyan (1993).

Table 3-23: Titanium Dioxide Production

Year	Metric Tons
1990	979,000
1991	992,000
1992	1,140,000
1993	1,160,000
1994	1,250,000
1995	1,250,000
1996	1,230,000
1997	1,340,000
1998	1,330,000
1999	1,350,000
2000	1,400,000
2001	1,330,000

Uncertainty

Although some titanium dioxide may be produced using graphite or other carbon inputs, information and data regarding these practices were not available. Titanium dioxide produced using graphite inputs may generate differing amounts of CO₂ per unit of titanium dioxide produced compared to the use of petroleum coke. The most accurate method for these estimates would be basing calculations on the amount of reducing agent used in the process, rather than the amount of titanium dioxide produced. These data were not available, however.

Also, annual titanium production is not reported by USGS by the type of production process used (chloride or sulfate). Only the percentage of total production capacity is reported. It was assumed that titanium dioxide was produced using the chloride process and the sulfate process in the same ratio as the ratio of the total U.S. production capacity for each process. This assumes that the chloride process plants and sulfate process plants operate at the same level of utilization. Finally, the emission factor was applied uniformly to all chloride process production, and no data were available to account for differences in production efficiency among chloride process plants. In calculating the amount of petroleum coke consumed in chloride process titanium dioxide production, literature data were used for petroleum coke composition. Certain grades of petroleum coke are manufactured specifically for use in the titanium dioxide chloride process, however this composition information was not available.

Ferroalloy Production

Carbon dioxide is emitted from the production of several ferroalloys. Ferroalloys are composites of iron and other elements such as silicon, manganese, and chromium. When incorporated in alloy steels, ferroalloys are used to alter the material properties of the steel. Estimates from two types of ferrosilicon (25 to 55 percent and 56 to 95 percent silicon), silicon metal (about 98 percent silicon), and miscellaneous alloys (36 to 65 percent silicon) have been calculated. Emissions from the production of ferrochromium and ferromanganese are not included here because of the small number of manufacturers of these materials in the United States. Subsequently, government information disclosure rules prevent the publication of production data for these

Table 3-24: CO₂ Emissions from Ferroalloy Production

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	2.0	1,980
1995	1.9	1,866
1996	2.0	1,954
1997	2.0	2,038
1998	2.0	2,027
1999	2.0	1,996
2000	1.7	1,719
2001	1.3	1,329

Table 3-25: Production of Ferroalloys (Metric Tons)

Year	Ferrosilicon 25%-55%	Ferrosilicon 56%-95%	Silicon Metal	Misc. Alloys (32%-65%)
1990	321,385	109,566	145,744	72,442
1995	184,000	128,000	163,000	99,500
1996	182,000	132,000	175,000	110,000
1997	175,000	147,000	187,000	106,000
1998	162,000	147,000	195,000	99,800
1999	252,000	145,000	195,000	NA
2000	229,000	100,000	184,000	NA
2001	167,000	89,000	137,000	NA
NA (Not Available)				

production facilities. Similar to emissions from the production of iron and steel, CO₂ is emitted when metallurgical coke is oxidized during a high-temperature reaction with iron and the selected alloying element. Due to the strong reducing environment, CO is initially produced. The CO is eventually oxidized to CO₂. A representative reaction equation for the production of 50 percent ferrosilicon is given below:



Emissions of CO₂ from ferroalloy production in 2001 were 1.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,329 Gg) (see Table 3-24), a 23 percent reduction from the previous year.

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ from ferroalloy production were calculated by multiplying annual ferroalloy production by material-specific emission factors. Emission factors taken from

the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) were applied to ferroalloy production. For ferrosilicon alloys containing 25 to 55 percent silicon and miscellaneous alloys (including primarily magnesium-ferrosilicon, but also including other silicon alloys) containing 32 to 65 percent silicon, an emission factor for 50 percent silicon ferrosilicon (2.35 tons CO₂/ton of alloy produced) was applied. Additionally, for ferrosilicon alloys containing 56 to 95 percent silicon, an emission factor for 75 percent silicon ferrosilicon (3.9 tons CO₂ per ton alloy produced) was applied. The emission factor for silicon metal was assumed to be 4.3 tons CO₂/ton metal produced. It was assumed that 100 percent of the ferroalloy production was produced using petroleum coke using an electric arc furnace process (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), although some ferroalloys may have been produced with coking coal, wood, other biomass, or graphite carbon inputs. The amount of petroleum coke consumed in ferroalloy production was calculated assuming that the petroleum coke used is 90 percent carbon and 10 percent inert material.

Data Sources

Emission factors for ferroalloy production were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Ferroalloy production data for 1990 through 2001 (see Table 3-25) were obtained from the U.S. Geological Survey's (USGS) *Minerals Yearbook: Silicon Annual Report* (USGS 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002). Until 1999, the USGS reported production of ferrosilicon containing 25 to 55 percent silicon separately from production of miscellaneous alloys containing 32 to 65 percent silicon; beginning in 1999, the USGS reported these as a single category (see Table 3-25). The composition data for petroleum coke was obtained from Onder and Bagdoyan (1993).

Uncertainty

Although some ferroalloys may be produced using wood or other biomass as a carbon source, information and data regarding these practices were not available. Emissions from ferroalloys produced with wood or other biomass would not be counted under this source because wood-based carbon is of biogenic origin.¹⁰ Emissions from ferroalloys produced with coking coal or graphite inputs would be counted in

¹⁰ Emissions and sinks of biogenic carbon are accounted for in the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter.

national trends, but may generate differing amounts of CO₂ per unit of ferroalloy produced compared to the use of petroleum coke. The most accurate method for these estimates would be basing calculations on the amount of reducing agent used in the process, rather than the amount of ferroalloys produced. These data were not available, however.

Also, annual ferroalloy production is now reported by the USGS in three broad categories: ferroalloys containing 25 to 55 percent silicon (including miscellaneous alloys), ferroalloys containing 56 to 95 percent silicon, and silicon metal. It was assumed that the IPCC emission factors apply to all of the ferroalloy production processes, including miscellaneous alloys. Finally, production data for silvery pig iron (alloys containing less than 25 percent silicon) are not reported by the USGS to avoid disclosing company proprietary data. Emissions from this production category, therefore, were not estimated.

Carbon Dioxide Consumption

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is used for a variety of applications, including food processing, chemical production, carbonated beverages, and enhanced oil recovery (EOR). Carbon dioxide used for EOR is injected into the ground to increase reservoir pressure, and is therefore considered sequestered.¹¹ For the most part, however, CO₂ used in non-EOR applications will eventually be released to the atmosphere.

Carbon dioxide is produced from a small number of natural wells, as a by-product from the production of chemicals (e.g., ammonia), or separated from crude oil and natural gas. Depending on the raw materials that are used, the by-product CO₂ generated during these production processes may already be accounted for in the CO₂ emission estimates from fossil fuel consumption (either during combustion or from non-fuel uses). For example, ammonia is primarily manufactured using natural gas as a feedstock. Carbon dioxide emissions from this process are accounted for in the Energy chapter under Fossil Fuel Combustion and, therefore, are not included here.

Table 3-26: CO₂ Emissions from Carbon Dioxide Consumption

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	0.9	895
1995	1.1	1,088
1996	1.1	1,138
1997	1.2	1,162
1998	1.2	1,186
1999	1.2	1,210
2000	1.2	1,233
2001	1.3	1,257

In 2001, CO₂ emissions from this source not accounted for elsewhere were 1.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,257 Gg) (see Table 3-26). This amount represents an increase of 2 percent from the previous year and an increase of 40 percent from emissions in 1990.

Methodology

Carbon dioxide emission estimates were based on CO₂ consumption, and assume that the end-use applications, except enhanced oil recovery, eventually release 100 percent of the CO₂ into the atmosphere. Carbon dioxide consumption for uses other than enhanced oil recovery was about 6,287 thousand metric tons in 2001. The Freedonia Group estimates that, in the United States, there is an 80 percent to 20 percent split between CO₂ produced as a by-product and CO₂ produced from natural wells. Thus, emissions from this source are equal to 20 percent of CO₂ consumption. The remaining 80 percent was assumed to be accounted for in the CO₂ emission estimates from other categories (the most important being Fossil Fuel Combustion).

Data Sources

Carbon dioxide consumption data (see Table 3-27) were obtained from *Industrial Gases to 2006*, a report published by the Freedonia Group, Inc. (2002). The Freedonia Group, Inc.

¹¹ It is unclear to what extent the CO₂ used for EOR will be re-released. For example, the CO₂ used for EOR may show up at the wellhead after a few years of injection (Hangebrauk et al. 1992). This CO₂, however, is typically recovered and re-injected into the well. More research is required to determine the amount of CO₂ that in fact escapes from EOR operations. For the purposes of this analysis, it is assumed that all of the CO₂ remains sequestered.

Table 3-27: Carbon Dioxide Consumption

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	4,476
1991	4,652
1992	4,683
1993	4,935
1994	5,186
1995	5,438
1996	5,690
1997	5,809
1998	5,929
1999	6,048
2000	6,167
2001	6,287

report contains actual data for 2001, 1996, and 1992. Data for 1990 through 1991, 1993 through 1995, and 1997 through 2000 were obtained by extrapolating the trend created by the 2001, 1996, and 1992 values. The percent of CO₂ produced from natural wells was obtained from Freedonia Group, Inc. (1991).

Uncertainty

Uncertainty exists in the assumed allocation of CO₂ produced from fossil fuel by-products (80 percent) and CO₂ produced from wells (20 percent). In addition, it is possible that CO₂ recovery exists in particular end-use sectors. Contact with several organizations did not provide any information regarding recovery. Further research is required to determine the quantity, if any, that may be recovered.

Petrochemical Production

Methane is released, in small amounts, during the production of some petrochemicals. Petrochemicals are chemicals isolated or derived from petroleum or natural gas. Emissions are presented here from the production of five chemicals: carbon black, ethylene, ethylene dichloride, styrene, and methanol.

Carbon black is an intensely black powder generated by the incomplete combustion of an aromatic petroleum feedstock. Most carbon black produced in the United States is added to rubber to impart strength and abrasion resistance, and the tire industry is by far the largest consumer. Ethylene is consumed in the production processes of the plastics industry including

polymers such as high, low, and linear low density polyethylene (HDPE, LDPE, LLDPE), polyvinyl chloride (PVC), ethylene dichloride, ethylene oxide, and ethylbenzene. Ethylene dichloride is one of the first manufactured chlorinated hydrocarbons with reported production as early as 1795. In addition to being an important intermediate in the synthesis of chlorinated hydrocarbons, ethylene dichloride is used as an industrial solvent and as a fuel additive. Styrene is a common precursor for many plastics, rubber, and resins. It can be found in many construction products, such as foam insulation, vinyl flooring, and epoxy adhesives. Methanol is an alternative transportation fuel as well as a principle ingredient in windshield wiper fluid, paints, solvents, refrigerants, and disinfectants. In addition, methanol-based acetic acid is used in making PET plastics and polyester fibers. The United States produces close to one quarter of the world's supply of methanol.

Aggregate emissions of CH₄ from petrochemical production in 2001 were 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (71 Gg) (see Table 3-28), a decrease of 11 percent from the previous year.

Table 3-28: CH₄ Emissions from Petrochemical Production

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	1.2	56
1995	1.5	72
1996	1.6	75
1997	1.6	77
1998	1.6	78
1999	1.7	80
2000	1.7	79
2001	1.5	71

Methodology

Emissions of CH₄ were calculated by multiplying annual estimates of chemical production by an emission factor. The following factors were used: 11 kg CH₄/metric ton carbon black, 1 kg CH₄/metric ton ethylene, 0.4 kg CH₄/metric ton ethylene dichloride,¹² 4 kg CH₄/metric ton styrene, and 2 kg CH₄/metric ton methanol. These emission factors were based upon measured material balances. Although the production of other chemicals may also result in CH₄ emissions, there were not sufficient data to estimate their emissions.

¹² The emission factor obtained from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997), page 2.23 is assumed to have a misprint; the chemical identified should be dichloroethylene (C₂H₂Cl₂) instead of ethylene dichloride (C₂H₄Cl₂).

Table 3-29: Production of Selected Petrochemicals (Thousand Metric Tons)

Chemical	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Carbon Black	1,306	1,524	1,560	1,588	1,610	1,642	1,674	1,583
Ethylene	16,542	21,215	22,217	23,088	23,474	25,118	24,971	22,521
Ethylene Dichloride	6,282	7,829	9,303	10,324	11,080	10,308	9,866	9,294
Styrene	3,637	5,166	5,402	5,171	5,183	5,410	5,420	4,277
Methanol	3,785	4,992	5,280	5,743	5,860	5,303	5,221	5,053

Data Sources

Emission factors were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Annual production data for 1990 (see Table 3-29) were obtained from the Chemical Manufacturer's Association *Statistical Handbook* (CMA 1999). Production data for 1991 through 2001 were obtained from the American Chemistry Council's *Guide to the Business of Chemistry* (2002).

Uncertainty

The emission factors used here were based on a limited number of studies. Using plant-specific factors instead of average factors could increase the accuracy of the emissions estimates, however, such data were not available. There may also be other significant sources of CH₄ arising from petrochemical production activities that have not been included in these estimates.

Silicon Carbide Production

Methane is emitted from the production of silicon carbide, a material used as an industrial abrasive. To make silicon carbide (SiC), quartz (SiO₂) is reacted with carbon in

the form of petroleum coke. Methane is produced during this reaction from volatile compounds in the petroleum coke. Although CO₂ is also emitted from this production process, the requisite data were unavailable for these calculations. Regardless, these emissions are already accounted for under CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion in the Energy chapter. Emissions of CH₄ from silicon carbide production in 2001 (see Table 3-30) were 0.5 Gg CH₄ (0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq.).

Methodology

Emissions of CH₄ were calculated by multiplying annual silicon carbide production by an emission factor (11.6 kg CH₄/metric ton silicon carbide). This emission factor was derived empirically from measurements taken at Norwegian silicon carbide plants (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Data Sources

The emission factor was taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Production data for 1990 through 2001 (see Table 3-31) were obtained from the *Minerals Yearbook: Volume I-Metals and Minerals, Manufactured Abrasives* (USGS 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002).

Table 3-30: CH₄ Emissions from Silicon Carbide Production

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	+	1
1995	+	1
1996	+	1
1997	+	1
1998	+	1
1999	+	1
2000	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.5 Gg

Table 3-31: Production of Silicon Carbide

Year	Metric Tons
1990	105,000
1991	78,900
1992	84,300
1993	74,900
1994	84,700
1995	75,400
1996	73,600
1997	68,200
1998	69,800
1999	65,000
2000	45,000
2001	40,000

Uncertainty

The emission factor used here was based on one study of Norwegian plants. The applicability of this factor to average U.S. practices at silicon carbide plants is uncertain. A better alternative would be to calculate emissions based on the quantity of petroleum coke used during the production process rather than on the amount of silicon carbide produced. These data were not available, however.

Nitric Acid Production

Nitric acid (HNO_3) is an inorganic compound used primarily to make synthetic commercial fertilizers. It is also a major component in the production of adipic acid—a feedstock for nylon—and explosives. Virtually all of the nitric acid produced in the United States is manufactured by the catalytic oxidation of ammonia (EPA 1997). During this reaction, N_2O is formed as a by-product and is released from reactor vents into the atmosphere.

Currently, the nitric acid industry controls for NO and NO_2 (i.e., NO_x). As such, the industry uses a combination of non-selective catalytic reduction (NSCR) and selective catalytic reduction (SCR) technologies. In the process of destroying NO_x , NSCR systems are also very effective at destroying N_2O . However, NSCR units are generally not preferred in modern plants because of high energy costs and associated high gas temperatures. NSCRs were widely installed in nitric plants built between 1971 and 1977. Approximately 20 percent of nitric acid plants use NSCR (Choe et al. 1993). The remaining 80 percent use SCR or extended absorption, neither of which is known to reduce N_2O emissions.

Table 3-32: N_2O Emissions from Nitric Acid Production

Year	Tg CO_2 Eq.	Gg
1990	17.8	57.6
1995	19.9	64.2
1996	20.7	66.8
1997	21.2	68.5
1998	20.9	67.4
1999	20.1	64.9
2000	19.1	61.5
2001	17.6	56.8

Nitrous oxide emissions from this source were estimated at 17.6 Tg CO_2 Eq. (56.8 Gg) in 2001 (see Table 3-32). Emissions from nitric acid production have decreased 1.4 percent since 1990, with the trend in the time series closely tracking the changes in production.

Methodology

Nitrous oxide emissions were calculated by multiplying nitric acid production by the amount of N_2O emitted per unit of nitric acid produced. The emissions factor was determined as a weighted average of 2 kg N_2O / metric ton HNO_3 for plants using non-selective catalytic reduction (NSCR) systems and 9.5 kg N_2O / metric ton HNO_3 for plants not equipped with NSCR (Choe et al. 1993). In the process of destroying NO_x , NSCR systems destroy 80 to 90 percent of the N_2O , which is accounted for in the emission factor of 2 kg N_2O / metric ton HNO_3 . An estimated 20 percent of HNO_3 plants in the United States are equipped with NSCR (Choe et al. 1993). Hence, the emission factor is equal to $(9.5 \times 0.80) + (2 \times 0.20) = 8$ kg N_2O per metric ton HNO_3 .

Data Sources

Nitric acid production data for 1990 (see Table 3-33) was obtained from *Chemical and Engineering News*, “Facts and Figures” (C&EN 2001). Nitric acid production data for 1991 through 2001 (see Table 3-33) were obtained from *Chemical and Engineering News*, “Facts and Figures” (C&EN 2002). The emission factor range was taken from Choe, et al. (1993).

Table 3-33: Nitric Acid Production

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	7,196
1991	7,191
1992	7,381
1993	7,488
1994	7,905
1995	8,020
1996	8,351
1997	8,557
1998	8,423
1999	8,115
2000	7,692
2001	7,097

Uncertainty

In general, the nitric acid industry is not well categorized. A significant degree of uncertainty exists in nitric acid production figures because nitric acid plants are often part of larger production facilities, such as fertilizer or explosives manufacturing. As a result, only a small volume of nitric acid is sold on the market making production quantities difficult to track. Emission factors are also difficult to determine because of the large number of plants using many different technologies. Based on expert judgment, it is estimated that the N₂O destruction factor for NSCR nitric acid facilities is associated with an uncertainty of approximately ± 10 percent.

Adipic Acid Production

Adipic acid production is an anthropogenic source of nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions. Worldwide, few adipic acid plants exist. The United States is the major producer with three companies in four locations accounting for approximately one-third of world production. Adipic acid is a white crystalline solid used in the manufacture of synthetic fibers, coatings, plastics, urethane foams, elastomers, and synthetic lubricants. Commercially, it is the most important of the aliphatic dicarboxylic acids, which are used to manufacture polyesters. Food grade adipic acid is also used to provide some foods with a “tangy” flavor (Thiemens and Trogler 1991). Approximately 90 percent of all adipic acid produced in the United States is used in the production of nylon 6,6 (CMR 2001).

Adipic acid is produced through a two-stage process during which N₂O is generated in the second stage. The first stage of manufacturing usually involves the oxidation of cyclohexane to form a cyclohexanone/cyclohexanol mixture. The second stage involves oxidizing this mixture with nitric acid to produce adipic acid. Nitrous oxide is generated as a by-product of the nitric acid oxidation stage and is emitted in the waste gas stream (Thiemens and Trogler 1991). Process emissions from the production of adipic acid vary with the types of technologies and level of emissions controls employed by a facility. In 1990, two of the three major adipic acid producing plants had N₂O abatement

Table 3-34: N₂O Emissions from Adipic Acid Production

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	15.2	49.0
1995	17.2	55.5
1996	17.0	55.0
1997	10.3	33.3
1998	6.0	19.3
1999	5.5	17.7
2000	6.0	19.5
2001	4.9	15.9

technologies in place and as of 1998, the three major adipic acid production facilities had control systems in place.¹³ Only one small plant, representing approximately two percent of production, does not control for N₂O (Reimer 1999).

Nitrous oxide emissions from this source were estimated to be 4.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (15.9 Gg) in 2001 (see Table 3-34).

National adipic acid production has increased by approximately 14 percent over the period of 1990 through 2001, to approximately 0.8 million metric tons. At the same time, emissions have been significantly reduced due to the widespread installation of pollution control measures.

Methodology

For two production plants, 1990 to 2001 emission estimates were obtained directly from the plant engineer and account for reductions due to control systems in place at these plants during the time series. For the other two plants, N₂O emissions were calculated by multiplying adipic acid production by the ratio of N₂O emitted per unit of adipic acid produced and adjusting for the actual percentage of N₂O released as a result of plant-specific emission controls. Because emissions of N₂O in the United States are not regulated, emissions have not been well characterized. However, on the basis of experiments (Thiemens and Trogler 1991), the overall reaction stoichiometry for N₂O production in the preparation of adipic acid was estimated at approximately 0.3 mt of N₂O per metric ton of product. Emissions are estimated using the following equation:

$$\text{N}_2\text{O emissions} = [\text{production of adipic acid (mt of adipic acid)}] \times [0.3 \text{ mt N}_2\text{O} / \text{mt adipic acid}] \times [1 - (\text{N}_2\text{O destruction factor} \times \text{abatement system utility factor})]$$

¹³During 1997, the N₂O emission controls installed by the third plant operated for approximately a quarter of the year.

Table 3-35: Adipic Acid Production

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	735
1991	708
1992	723
1993	769
1994	821
1995	830
1996	839
1997	871
1998	862
1999	907
2000	925
2001	835

The “N₂O destruction factor” represents the percentage of N₂O emissions that are destroyed by the installed abatement technology. The “abatement system utility factor” represents the percentage of time that the abatement equipment operates during the annual production period. Overall, in the United States, two of the plants employ catalytic destruction, one plant employs thermal destruction, and the smallest plant uses no N₂O abatement equipment. The N₂O abatement system destruction factor is assumed to be 95 percent for catalytic abatement and 98 percent for thermal abatement (Reimer et al. 1999, Reimer 1999).

Data Sources

National adipic acid production data (see Table 3-35) for 1990 through 2001 were obtained from the American Chemical Council (ACC 2002). Plant capacity data for 1990 through 1994 were obtained from *Chemical and Engineering News*, “Facts and Figures” and “Production of Top 50 Chemicals” (C&EN 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995). Plant capacity data for 1995 and 1996 were kept the same as 1994 data. The 1997 plant capacity data were taken from *Chemical Market Reporter* “Chemical Profile: Adipic Acid” (CMR 1998). The 1998 plant capacity data for all four plants and 1999 plant capacity data for three of the plants were obtained from *Chemical Week*, Product focus: adipic acid/adiponitrile (CW 1999). Plant capacity data for 2000 and 2001 for three of the plants were updated using *Chemical Market Reporter*, “Chemical Profile: Adipic Acid” (CMR 2001). Plant capacity data for 1999, 2000, and 2001 for the one remaining plant was kept the same as 1998. The emission factor was taken from Thiemens and Trogler

(1991). The national production and plant capacities were utilized for two of the four plants. Information for the other two plants was taken directly from the plant engineer (Childs 2002).

Uncertainty

In order to calculate emissions for the two plants where emissions were not provided by the plant engineer, production data on a plant-specific basis was needed. However, these production data are considered confidential and were not available from the plants. As a result, plant-specific production figures for the two plants were calculated by allocating national adipic acid production using existing plant capacities. This allocation creates a degree of uncertainty in the adipic acid production data as all plants are assumed to operate at equivalent utilization levels as represented by their capacities.

The emission factor was based on experiments (Thiemens and Trogler 1991) that attempt to replicate the industrial process and, thereby, measure the reaction stoichiometry for N₂O production in the preparation of adipic acid. However, the extent to which the lab results are representative of actual industrial emission rates is not known.

Nitrous Oxide Product Usage

Nitrous oxide is a clear, colorless, oxidizing liquefied gas, with a slightly sweet odor. Nitrous oxide is produced by thermally decomposing ammonium nitrate (NH₄NO₃), a chemical commonly used in fertilizers and explosives. The decomposition creates steam (H₂O) and N₂O by a low pressure, low-temperature (500°F) reaction. Once the steam is condensed out, the N₂O is purified, compressed, dried, and liquefied for storage and distribution. Two manufacturers of N₂O exist in the United States (CGA 2002).

Nitrous oxide is primarily used in carrier gases with oxygen to administer more potent inhalation anesthetics for general anesthesia and as an anesthetic in various dental and veterinary applications. As such, it is used to treat short-term pain, for sedation in minor elective surgeries and as an induction anesthetic. The second main use of N₂O is as a propellant in pressure and aerosol products, the largest application being pressure-packaged whipped cream. Small quantities of N₂O are also used in the following applications:

- Oxidizing agent and etchant used in semiconductor manufacturing;
- Oxidizing agent used, with acetylene, in atomic absorption spectrometry;
- Production of sodium azide, which is used to inflate airbags;
- Fuel oxidant in auto racing; and
- Oxidizing agent in blowtorches used by jewelers and others (Heydorn 1997).

Production of N₂O in 2001 was approximately 17.0 thousand metric tons. Nitrous oxide emissions were 4.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (15.5 Gg) in 2001 (see Table 3-36). Production of N₂O has stabilized over the past decade because medical markets have found other substitutes for anesthetics, and more medical procedures are being performed on an outpatient basis using local anesthetics. The use of N₂O as a propellant for whipped cream has also stabilized due to the increased popularity of cream products packaged in reusable plastic tubs.

Methodology

Emissions from N₂O product usage were calculated by first multiplying the total amount of N₂O produced in the United States by the share of the total quantity of N₂O that is used by each sector. This value was then multiplied by the associated emissions rate for each sector. After the emissions were calculated for each sector, they were added together to obtain a total estimate of N₂O product usage emissions. Emissions were determined using the following equation:

$$\text{Nitrous Oxide Product Usage Emissions} = \sum_i [\text{Total U.S. Production of Nitrous Oxide}] \times [\text{Share of Total Quantity of N}_2\text{O Usage by Sector}] \times [\text{Emissions Rate for Sector}]$$

where,

i = each sector

The share of total quantity of N₂O usage by sector represents the share of national N₂O produced that is used by the given sector. For example, in 2001, the medicine/dentistry industry used an estimated 87 percent of total N₂O produced, followed by food processing propellants at 6 percent. All other categories combined used the remaining 7 percent of the N₂O produced (Tupman 2002). This sector breakdown has changed only slightly over the past decade. For instance, the small share of N₂O usage in the production

Table 3-36: N₂O Emissions from Nitrous Oxide Product Usage

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg N ₂ O
1990	4.3	13.9
1995	4.5	14.4
1996	4.5	14.4
1997	4.8	15.5
1998	4.8	15.5
1999	4.8	15.5
2000	4.8	15.5
2001	4.8	15.5

of sodium azide has declined significantly during the decade of the 1990's. Due to the lack of information on the specific time period of the phase-out in this market sector, it was assumed that most of the N₂O usage for sodium azide production ceased after 1996, with the majority of its small share of the market assigned to the larger medical/dentistry consumption sector. Once the N₂O is allocated across these sectors, a usage emissions rate is then applied for each sector to estimate the amount of N₂O emitted.

Only the medical/dentistry and food propellant sectors are estimated to release emissions into the atmosphere, and therefore these sectors are the only usage sectors with emission rates. For the medicine/dentistry sector, due to the poor solubility of N₂O in blood and other tissues, approximately 97.5 percent of the N₂O is not metabolized during anesthesia and quickly leaves the body in exhaled breath. Therefore, an emissions factor of 97.5 percent is used for this sector (Tupman 2002). For N₂O used as a propellant in pressurized and aerosol food products, none of the N₂O is reacted during the process and all of the N₂O is emitted to the atmosphere resulting in an emissions factor of 100 percent for this sector (Heydorn 1997). For the remaining sectors all of the N₂O is consumed/reacted during the process, and therefore the emissions rate is considered to be zero percent (Tupman 2002).

Data Sources

The 1990 through 1992 and 1996 N₂O production data were obtained from SRI Consulting's *Nitrous Oxide, North America* report (Heydorn 1997). These data were provided as a range. For example, in 1996, Heydorn (1997) estimates N₂O production to range between 13.6 and 18.1 thousand metric tons. An industry expert was able to provide a narrower range for 1996 that falls within the production

bounds described by Heydorn (1997). These data are considered more industry specific and current (Tupman 2002). The midpoint of the narrower production range (15.9 to 18.1 thousand metric tons) was used to estimate N₂O emissions for years 1993 through 2001.

The 1996 share of the total quantity of N₂O used by each sector was obtained from SRI Consulting's *Nitrous Oxide, North America* report (Heydorn 1997). The 1990 through 1995 share of total quantity of N₂O used by each sector was kept the same as the 1996 number provided by SRI Consulting. The 1997 through 2001 share of total quantity of N₂O usage by sector was obtained from communication with a N₂O industry expert (Tupman 2002). The emissions rate for the food processing propellant industry was obtained from SRI Consulting's *Nitrous Oxide, North America* report (Heydorn 1997), and confirmed by a N₂O industry expert (Tupman 2002). The emissions rate for all other sectors was obtained from communication with a N₂O industry expert (Tupman 2002). The emissions rate for the medicine/dentistry sector was substantiated by the *Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology* (Othmer 1990).

Uncertainty

Since plant specific N₂O production data is confidential, emissions are based on national production statistics, which were provided as a range. Based on the N₂O production ranges described by Heydorn (1997) and Tupman (2002), uncertainty associated with the production estimate used to develop industry emissions for 1993 through 2001 are within

–20 percent and +7 percent. For 1990 through 1992, the uncertainty in the production data is ± 3 percent. Information regarding the industry specific use of N₂O is also confidential. Thus, the predicted share of the total quantity of N₂O used by each sector is somewhat uncertain because it is based on industry expert opinion. In particular, the exact timeframe for the market decline in N₂O use during sodium azide production is unknown. The emissions rate for the medicine/dentistry industry is an estimate also based on industry opinion and does not have a published source that confirms the percent of emissions released into the environment.

Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances

Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and perfluorocarbons (PFCs) are used as alternatives to several classes of ozone-depleting substances (ODSs) that are being phased out under the terms of the *Montreal Protocol* and the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990.¹⁴ Ozone depleting substances—chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), halons, carbon tetrachloride, methyl chloroform, and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs)—are used in a variety of industrial applications including refrigeration and air conditioning equipment, solvent cleaning, foam production, sterilization, fire extinguishing, and aerosols. Although HFCs and PFCs, unlike ODSs, are not harmful to the stratospheric ozone layer, they are potent greenhouse gases. Emission estimates for HFCs and PFCs used as substitutes for ODSs are provided in Table 3-38 and Table 3-39.

In 1990 and 1991, the only significant emissions of HFCs and PFCs as substitutes to ODSs were relatively small amounts of HFC-152a—a component of the refrigerant blend R-500 used in chillers—and HFC-134a in refrigeration end-uses. Beginning in 1992, HFC-134a was used in growing amounts as a refrigerant in motor vehicle air conditioners and in refrigerant blends such as R-404A.¹⁵ In 1993, the use of HFCs in foam production and as an aerosol propellant began, and in 1994 these compounds also found applications as solvents and sterilants. In 1995, ODS substitutes for halons entered widespread use in the United States as halon production was phased-out.

The use and subsequent emissions of HFCs and PFCs as ODS substitutes has been increasing from small amounts in 1990 to 63.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2001. This increase was in large

Table 3-37: N₂O Production (Thousand Metric Tons)

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	16.3
1991	15.9
1992	15.0
1993	17.0
1994	17.0
1995	17.0
1996	17.0
1997	17.0
1998	17.0
1999	17.0
2000	17.0
2001	17.0

¹⁴ [42 U.S.C § 7671, CAA § 601]

¹⁵ R-404A contains HFC-125, HFC-143a, and HFC-134a.

Table 3-38: Emissions of HFCs and PFCs from ODS Substitution (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
HFC-23	+	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5
HFC-32	+	+	+	+	+	+	0.1	0.2
HFC-125	+	1.3	1.9	2.5	3.1	3.6	4.4	5.2
HFC-134a	0.7	15.9	21.1	26.2	30.0	33.9	37.6	41.0
HFC-143a	+	0.4	0.8	1.3	1.9	2.6	3.4	4.3
HFC-236fa	+	+	+	0.1	0.8	1.3	1.9	2.3
CF ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Others*	0.2	4.0	6.6	7.5	8.5	9.1	9.6	10.1
Total	0.9	21.7	30.4	37.7	44.5	50.9	57.3	63.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

* Others include HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, HFC-4310mee, and PFC/PFPEs, the latter being a proxy for a diverse collection of PFCs and perfluoropolyethers (PFPEs) employed for solvent applications. For estimating purposes, the GWP value used for PFC/PFPEs was based upon C₆F₁₄.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-39: Emissions of HFCs and PFCs from ODS Substitution (Mg)

Gas	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
HFC-23	+	5	9	14	19	26	32	39
HFC-32	+	+	3	7	11	17	94	240
HFC-125	+	478	675	889	1,116	1,289	1,559	1,869
HFC-134a	564	12,232	16,211	20,166	23,089	26,095	28,906	31,552
HFC-143a	+	111	209	334	488	676	903	1,142
HFC-236fa	+	+	+	15	120	213	296	370
CF ₄	+	+	+	+	+	1	1	1
Others*	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M

M (Mixture of Gases)

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Mg

* Others include HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, HFC-4310mee and PFC/PFPEs, the latter being a proxy for a diverse collection of PFCs and perfluoropolyethers (PFPEs) employed for solvent applications.

part the result of efforts to phase out CFCs and other ODSs in the United States. In the short term, this trend is expected to continue, and will likely accelerate in the next decade as HCFCs, which are interim substitutes in many applications, are themselves phased-out under the provisions of the Copenhagen Amendments to the *Montreal Protocol*. Improvements in the technologies associated with the use of these gases and the introduction of alternative gases and technologies, however, may help to offset this anticipated increase in emissions.

Methodology and Data Sources

A detailed vintaging model of ODS-containing equipment and products was used to estimate the actual—versus potential—emissions of various ODS substitutes, including HFCs and PFCs. The name of the model refers to

the fact that the model tracks the use and emissions of various compounds for the annual “vintages” of new equipment that enter service in each end-use. This vintaging model predicts ODS and ODS substitute use in the United States based on modeled estimates of the quantity of equipment or products sold each year containing these chemicals and the amount of the chemical required to manufacture and/or maintain equipment and products over time. Emissions for each end-use were estimated by applying annual leak rates and release profiles, which account for the lag in emissions from equipment as they leak over time. By aggregating the data for more than 40 different end-uses, the model produces estimates of annual use and emissions of each compound. Further information on the Vintaging Model is contained in Annex K.

Uncertainty

Given that emissions of ODS substitutes occur from thousands of different kinds of equipment and from millions of point and mobile sources throughout the United States, emission estimates must be made using analytical tools such as the Vintaging Model or the methods outlined in IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997). Though the model is more comprehensive than the IPCC default methodology, significant uncertainties still exist with regard to the levels of equipment sales, equipment characteristics, and end-use emissions profiles that were used to estimate annual emissions for the various compounds.

Aluminum Production

Aluminum is a light-weight, malleable, and corrosion resistant metal that is used in many manufactured products including aircraft, automobiles, bicycles, and kitchen utensils. In 2001, the United States was the third largest producer of primary aluminum, with 11 percent of the world total (USGS 2002). The United States was also a major importer of primary aluminum. The production of primary aluminum—in addition to consuming large quantities of electricity—results in process-related emissions of CO₂ and two perfluorocarbons (PFCs): perfluoromethane (CF₄) and perfluoroethane (C₂F₆).

Carbon dioxide is emitted during the aluminum smelting process when alumina (aluminum oxide, Al₂O₃) is reduced to aluminum using the Hall-Heroult reduction process. The reduction of the alumina occurs through electrolysis in a molten bath of natural or synthetic cryolite (Na₃AlF₆). The reduction cells contain a carbon lining that serves as the cathode. Carbon is also contained in the anode, which can be

a carbon mass of paste, coke briquettes, or prebaked carbon blocks from petroleum coke. During reduction, some of this carbon is oxidized and released to the atmosphere as CO₂.

Process emissions of CO₂ from aluminum production were estimated at 4.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4,114 Gg) in 2001 (see Table 3-40). The carbon anodes consumed during aluminum production consist of petroleum coke and, to a minor extent, coal tar pitch. The petroleum coke portion of the total CO₂ process emissions from aluminum production is considered to be a non-energy use of petroleum coke, and is accounted for in the Industrial Processes chapter and not with Fossil Fuel Combustion emissions in the Energy chapter. Similarly, the coal tar pitch portion of these CO₂ process emissions is subtracted from the Iron and Steel section—where it would otherwise be counted—to avoid double-counting.

In addition to CO₂ emissions, the aluminum production industry is also the second largest source (after semiconductor manufacturing) of PFC emissions in the United States. During the smelting process, when the alumina ore content of the electrolytic bath falls below critical levels required for electrolysis, rapid voltage increases occur, termed “anode effects.” These anode effects cause carbon from the anode and fluorine from the dissociated molten cryolite bath to combine, thereby producing fugitive emissions of CF₄ and C₂F₆. In general, the magnitude of emissions for a given level of production depends on the frequency and duration of these anode effects. As the anode effects become longer and more frequent, there is a corresponding rise in emission levels.

Primary aluminum production-related emissions of PFCs are estimated to have declined 77 percent since 1990. Since 1990, emissions of CF₄ and C₂F₆ have declined 77 and 76 percent, respectively, to 3.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. of CF₄ (0.6 Gg CF₄) and 0.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. of C₂F₆ (0.1 Gg C₂F₆) in 2001, as shown in Table 3-41 and Table 3-42. This decline was due to both reductions in domestic aluminum production and actions taken by aluminum smelting companies to reduce the frequency and duration of anode effects.

U.S. primary aluminum production for 2001—totaling 2,637 thousand metric tons—decreased by 24 percent from 2000. This decrease is attributed to the curtailment of production at several U.S. smelters, due to high electric power costs in various regions of the country. The transportation industry remained the largest domestic consumer of aluminum, accounting for about 35 percent (USGS 2002).

Table 3-40: CO₂ Emissions from Aluminum Production

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	6.3	6,315
1995	5.3	5,265
1996	5.6	5,580
1997	5.6	5,621
1998	5.8	5,792
1999	5.9	5,895
2000	5.4	5,410
2001	4.1	4,114

Table 3-41: PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	CF ₄	C ₂ F ₆	Total
1990	15.8	2.3	18.1
1995	10.5	1.3	11.8
1996	11.1	1.4	12.5
1997	9.8	1.2	11.0
1998	8.1	0.9	9.0
1999	8.0	0.9	8.9
2000	7.1	0.8	7.9
2001	3.6	0.6	4.1

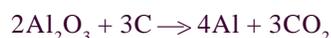
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-42: PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production (Gg)

Year	CF ₄	C ₂ F ₆
1990	2.4	0.2
1995	1.6	0.1
1996	1.7	0.1
1997	1.5	0.1
1998	1.2	0.1
1999	1.2	0.1
2000	1.1	0.1
2001	0.6	0.1

Methodology

Carbon dioxide is generated during alumina reduction to aluminum metal following the reaction below:



The CO₂ emission factor employed was estimated from the production of primary aluminum metal and the carbon consumed by the process. Emissions vary depending on the specific technology used by each plant (e.g., Prebake or Soderberg). The *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) provide CO₂ emission factors for each technology type. During alumina reduction in a prebake anode cell process, approximately 1.5 metric tons of CO₂ are emitted for each metric ton of aluminum produced (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Similarly, during alumina reduction in a Soderberg cell process, approximately 1.8 metric tons of CO₂ are emitted per metric ton of aluminum produced (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Based on information gathered by EPA's Voluntary Aluminum Industrial Partnership (VAIP) program, production was assumed to be split 80 percent prebake and 20 percent Soderberg for the whole time series.

PFC emissions from aluminum production were estimated using a per unit production emission factor that is expressed as a function of operating parameters (anode effect frequency and duration), as follows:

$$\text{PFC (CF}_4 \text{ or C}_2\text{F}_6\text{) kg/metric ton Al} = S \times \text{Anode Effect Minutes/Cell-Day}$$

where,

S = Slope coefficient

$$\text{Anode Effect Minutes/Cell-Day} = \text{Anode Effect Frequency} \times \text{Anode Effect Duration}$$

For 8 out of the 23 U.S. smelters (4 out of the 18 smelters operating in 2001), smelter-specific slope coefficients based on field measurements were used. For the remaining smelters, technology-specific slope coefficients from *Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2000) were used. The slope coefficients were combined with smelter anode effect data, collected by aluminum companies and reported to the VAIP, to estimate emission factors over time. Where smelter-specific anode effect data were not available (2 out of 23 smelters), industry averages were used. Emissions factors were multiplied by annual production to estimate annual emissions at the smelter level. Smelter-specific production data was available for 20 of the 23 smelters (15 of the 18 smelters operating in 2001); production at the remaining smelters was estimated based on national aluminum production and capacity data (USGS). Emissions were then aggregated across smelters to estimate national emissions. The methodology used to estimate emissions is consistent with the methodologies recommended by the *Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2000).

Data Sources

Primary aluminum production data for 1990 through 1999 and 2001 (see Table 3-43) were obtained from USGS, *Mineral Industry Surveys: Aluminum Annual Report* (USGS 1995, 1998, 2000, 2002). The USGS requested data from the 11 domestic producers, all of whom responded. Primary aluminum production data for 2000 were obtained by using information from VAIP program submittals and from USGS, *Mineral Industry Surveys: Aluminum Annual Report* (USGS 2001). Comparing a subset of smelter specific production data from EPA's VAIP program and the USGS *Mineral Industry Surveys*:

Table 3-43: Production of Primary Aluminum

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	4,048
1991	4,121
1992	4,042
1993	3,695
1994	3,299
1995	3,375
1996	3,577
1997	3,603
1998	3,713
1999	3,779
2000	3,468
2001	2,637

Aluminum Annual Report (USGS 2001), it was observed that in 2000 the VAIP program data was approximately 200 thousand metric tons less than the USGS production total. The data from VAIP were believed to provide a more accurate estimate of U.S. aluminum production and therefore were used to calculate emissions for 2000. The CO₂ emission factors were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Emission estimates of PFCs were provided by aluminum smelters participating in the VAIP program. Where smelter-specific slope coefficients were not available, technology-specific coefficients were drawn from the IPCC's *Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000). Information on the average frequency and duration of anode effects was taken from the International Aluminum Institute's anode effect survey (IAI 2000).

Uncertainty

Carbon dioxide emissions vary depending on the specific technology used by each plant. A more accurate method would be to calculate CO₂ emissions based upon the amount of carbon—in the form of petroleum coke or tar pitch—consumed by the process; however, this type of information was not available.

Using IPCC Good Practice Guidance Tier 1 methodology, the overall uncertainty associated with the 2001 CF₄ and C₂F₆ emissions estimates is ± 16 and ± 18 percent, respectively, using a 95 percent confidence interval. For the 2000 PFC emission estimates, the uncertainty of the CF₄ estimate is estimated to be ± 11 percent and the uncertainty of the C₂F₆ estimate is estimated to be ± 13 percent. For the 1991 estimates, the corresponding uncertainties are ± 8

percent and ± 11 percent. For each smelter, uncertainty associated with the quantity of aluminum produced, the frequency and duration of anode effects, and the slope factor was estimated. Error propagation analysis was then applied to estimate the overall uncertainty of the emissions estimate for each smelter and for the U.S. aluminum industry as a whole. The uncertainty of aluminum production estimates ranged between 1 percent and 25 percent, depending on whether a smelter's production was reported or estimated. The uncertainty of the frequency and duration of anode effects ranged between 2 percent and 78 percent, depending on whether these parameters were reported or were estimated using industry-wide averages. Given the limited uncertainty data on site-specific slope coefficients (i.e., those developed using IPCC Tier 3b methodology), it was assumed that the overall uncertainty associated with the slope coefficients would be similar to that given by the IPCC guidance for technology-specific slope coefficients. Consequently, the uncertainty assigned to the slope coefficients ranged between 7 percent and 35 percent, depending upon the gas and the smelter technology type. In general, where precise quantitative information was not available on the uncertainty of a parameter, a conservative (upper-bound) value was used.

Occasionally, SF₆ is also used by the aluminum industry as a cover gas or a fluxing and degassing agent in experimental and specialized casting operations. In its application as a cover gas, SF₆ is mixed with nitrogen or CO₂ and injected above the surface of molten aluminum; as a fluxing and degassing agent, SF₆ is mixed with argon, nitrogen, and/or chlorine and blown through molten aluminum. These practices are not employed extensively by primary aluminum producers and are believed to be isolated to secondary casting firms. The aluminum industry in the United States and Canada was estimated to use 230 Mg of SF₆ per year (Maiss and Brenninkmeijer 1998); however, this estimate is highly uncertain.

Historically, SF₆ from aluminum activities has been omitted from estimates of global SF₆ emissions, with the caveat that any emissions would be insignificant (Ko et al. 1993, Victor and MacDonald 1998). Emissions are believed to be insignificant, given that the concentration of SF₆ in the mixtures is small and a portion of the SF₆ is decomposed in the process (MacNeal et al. 1990, Garipey and Dube 1992, Ko et al. 1993, Ten Eyck and Lukens 1996, Zurecki 1996).

Emissions of SF₆ from aluminum fluxing and degassing have not been estimated. Uncertainties exist as to the quantity of SF₆ used by the aluminum industry and its rate of destruction in its uses as a degassing agent or cover gas.

HCFC-22 Production

Trifluoromethane (HFC-23 or CHF₃) is generated as a by-product during the manufacture of chlorodifluoromethane (HCFC-22), which is primarily employed in refrigeration and air conditioning systems and as a chemical feedstock for manufacturing synthetic polymers. Since 1990, production and use of HCFC-22 has increased significantly as it has replaced chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) in many applications. Because HCFC-22 depletes stratospheric ozone, its production for non-feedstock uses is scheduled to be phased out by 2020 under the U.S. Clean Air Act.¹⁶ Feedstock production, however, is permitted to continue indefinitely.

HCFC-22 is produced by the reaction of chloroform (CHCl₃) and hydrogen fluoride (HF) in the presence of a catalyst, SbCl₅. The reaction of the catalyst and HF produces SbCl_xF_y, (where x + y = 5), which reacts with chlorinated hydrocarbons to replace chlorine atoms with fluorine. The HF and chloroform are introduced by submerged piping into a continuous-flow reactor that contains the catalyst in a hydrocarbon mixture of chloroform and partially fluorinated intermediates. The vapors leaving the reactor contain HCFC-21 (CHCl₂F), HCFC-22 (CHClF₂), HFC-23 (CHF₃), HCl, chloroform, and HF. The under-fluorinated intermediates (HCFC-21) and chloroform are then condensed and returned to the reactor, along with residual catalyst, to undergo further fluorination. The final vapors leaving the condenser are primarily HCFC-22, HFC-23, HCl and residual HF. The HCl is recovered as a useful byproduct, and the HF is removed. Once separated from HCFC-22, the HFC-23 is generally vented to the atmosphere as an unwanted by-product, or may be captured for use in a limited number of applications.

Emissions of HFC-23 in 2001 were estimated to be 19.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.7 Gg). This quantity represents a 33 percent decrease from emissions in 2000, and a 43 percent decrease from emissions in 1990 (see Table 3-44). Although HCFC-

Table 3-44: HFC-23 Emissions from HCFC-22 Production

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	35.0	3.0
1995	27.0	2.3
1996	31.1	2.7
1997	30.0	2.6
1998	40.2	3.4
1999	30.4	2.6
2000	29.8	2.6
2001	19.8	1.7

22 production has increased by 10 percent since 1990, the intensity of HFC-23 emissions (i.e., the amount of HFC-23 emitted per kilogram of HCFC-22 manufactured) has declined by 48 percent over the same period, lowering emissions. Four HCFC-22 production plants operated in the United States in 2001, two of which used thermal oxidation to significantly lower (and in at least one case, virtually eliminate) their HFC-23 emissions.

In the future, production of HCFC-22 in the United States is expected to decline as non-feedstock HCFC production is phased-out. Feedstock production is anticipated to continue growing, mainly for manufacturing fluorinated polymers.

Methodology

The methodology employed for estimating emissions is based upon measurements at individual HCFC-22 production plants. Plants using thermal oxidation to abate their HFC-23 emissions monitor the performance of their oxidizers to verify that the HFC-23 is almost completely destroyed. The other plants periodically measure HFC-23 concentrations in the output stream using gas chromatography. This information is combined with information on quantities of critical feed components (e.g., HF) and/or products (HCFC-22) to estimate HFC-23 emissions using a material balance approach. HFC-23 concentrations are determined at the point the gas leaves the chemical reactor; therefore, estimates also include fugitive emissions.

¹⁶ As construed, interpreted, and applied in the terms and conditions of the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. [42 U.S.C. §7671m(b), CAA §614]

Table 3-45: HCFC-22 Production

Year	Gg
1990	138.9
1991	142.7
1992	149.6
1993	132.4
1994	146.8
1995	154.7
1996	166.1
1997	164.5
1998	182.8
1999	165.5
2000	186.9
2001	152.4

Data Sources

Emission estimates were provided by the EPA's Global Programs Division in cooperation with the U.S. manufacturers of HCFC-22. Annual estimates of U.S. HCFC-22 production are presented in Table 3-45.

Uncertainty

A high level of confidence has been attributed to the HFC-23 concentration data employed because measurements were conducted frequently and accounted for day-to-day and process variability. It is believed that the emissions reported are roughly within 10 percent of the true value. This methodology accounted for the declining intensity of HFC-23 emissions over time. The use of a constant emission factor would not have allowed for such accounting. More simplistic emission estimates generally assume that HFC-23 emissions are between 2 and 4 percent of HCFC-22 production on a mass ratio basis.

Semiconductor Manufacture

The semiconductor industry uses multiple long-lived fluorinated gases in plasma etching and chemical vapor deposition (CVD) processes. The gases most commonly employed are trifluoromethane (HFC-23), perfluoromethane (CF₄), perfluoroethane (C₂F₆), nitrogen trifluoride (NF₃), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆), although other compounds such as perfluoropropane (C₃F₈) and perfluorocyclobutane (c-C₄F₈) are also used. The exact combination of compounds is specific to the process employed.

Plasma etching is performed to provide pathways for conducting material to connect individual circuit components in silicon wafers, using HFCs, PFCs, SF₆ and other gases in plasma form. The etching process uses plasma-generated fluorine atoms that react at the semiconductor surface according to prescribed patterns to selectively remove substrate material. A single semiconductor wafer may require as many as 100 distinct process steps that use these gases. Chemical vapor deposition chambers, used for depositing materials that will act as insulators and wires, are cleaned periodically using PFCs and other gases. During the cleaning cycle the gas is converted to fluorine atoms in plasma, which etches away residual material from chamber walls, electrodes, and chamber hardware. However, due to the low destruction efficiency (i.e., high dissociation energy) of PFCs, a portion of the gas flowing into the chamber flows unreacted through the chamber and, unless emission abatement technologies are used, this portion is emitted into the atmosphere. In addition to emissions of unreacted gases, these compounds can also be transformed in the plasma processes into a different HFC or PFC compound,

Table 3-46: PFC, HFC, and SF₆ Emissions from Semiconductor Manufacture (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
CF ₄	0.7	1.5	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.4
C ₂ F ₆	1.5	3.2	2.9	3.5	3.9	4.2	4.0	3.0
C ₃ F ₈	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
HFC-23	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
SF ₆	0.4	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	0.7
NF ₃ *	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total	2.9	5.9	5.4	6.5	7.3	7.7	7.4	5.5

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

*NF₃ emissions are presented for informational purposes, using a GWP of 8,000, and are not included in totals.

which is then exhausted into the atmosphere. For example, when either CHF_3 or C_2F_6 is used in cleaning or etching, CF_4 is generated and emitted as a process by-product.

For 2001, total weighted emissions of all fluorinated greenhouse gases by the U.S. semiconductor industry were estimated to be 5.5 Tg CO_2 Eq. Combined emissions of all fluorinated greenhouse gases are presented in Table 3-46 and Table 3-47. The rapid growth of this industry and the increasing complexity of semiconductor products that use more PFCs in the production process have led to an increase in emissions of 93 percent since 1990. However, the growth rate in emissions began to slow in 1997, and emissions declined by 28 percent between 1999 and 2001. This decline is due both to a drop in production (with silicon consumption declining by 21 percent between 2000 and 2001) and to the initial implementation of PFC emission reduction methods, such as process optimization.

Methodology

Emissions from semiconductor manufacturing were estimated using two sets of data. For 1990 through 1994, emission estimates were based on the historical consumption of silicon (i.e., square centimeters), the estimated average number of interconnecting layers in the chips produced, and an estimated per-layer emission factor. (The number of layers per chip, and hence the PFC emissions per square centimeter of silicon, increases as the line-width of the chip decreases.) The average number of layers per chip was based on industry estimates of silicon consumption by line-width and of the number of layers per line-width. The per-layer emission factor was based on the total annual emissions reported by participants in EPA's PFC Emission Reduction Partnership for the Semiconductor Industry in 1995 and later years. For the three years for which gas sales data were available (1992 to 1994), the estimates derived using

this method are within 10 percent of the estimates derived using gas sales data and average values for emission factors and global warming potentials (GWPs).

For 1995 through 2001, total U.S. emissions were extrapolated from the total annual emissions reported by the participants in the PFC Emission Reduction Partnership for the Semiconductor Industry. The emissions from the participants were multiplied by the ratio of the total layer-weighted capacity of all of the semiconductor plants in the United States and the total layer-weighted capacity of the plants operated by the participants. The layer-weighted capacity of a plant (or group of plants) consists of the silicon capacity of that plant multiplied by the number of layers used in the chips produced by that plant. This method assumes that participants and non-participants have similar capacity utilizations and per-layer emission factors.

From 1995 through 1999, the per-layer emission factor calculated for participants remained fairly constant and was assumed to be applicable to the non-participants. In 2000 and 2001, the per-layer emission factor of participants declined significantly, presumably reflecting efforts to reduce PFC emissions. However, non-participants were assumed to emit PFCs at the historic per-layer rate during the years 2000 and 2001. The 2000 and 2001 U.S. emissions estimates were adjusted accordingly.

Chemical-specific emission estimates were based on data submitted for the year by participants, which were the first reports to provide emissions by chemical. It was assumed that emissions from non-participants and emissions from previous years were distributed among the chemicals in the same proportions as in these 2001 participant reports. This assumption is supported by chemical sales information from previous years and chemical-specific emission factors.

Table 3-47: PFC, HFC, and SF_6 Emissions from Semiconductor Manufacture (Mg)

Year	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
CF_4	111	229	211	254	282	300	286	217
C_2F_6	167	345	318	383	424	452	431	326
C_3F_8	14	28	26	31	35	37	35	26
HFC-23	8	17	16	19	21	22	21	16
SF_6	17	35	32	39	43	46	44	31
NF_3	9	19	17	21	23	24	23	23

Participants estimate their emissions using a range of methods. For 2001, all participants used a method at least as accurate as the IPCC's method 2c, recommended in *Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2000). The partners with relatively high emissions typically use the more accurate IPCC 2b or 2a methods, multiplying estimates of their PFC consumption by process-specific emission factors that they have either measured or obtained from tool suppliers.

Data Sources

Aggregate emissions estimates from the semiconductor manufacturers participating in the EPA's PFC Emission Reduction Partnership were used to develop these estimates. Estimates of the capacities and characteristics of plants operated by participants and non-participants were derived from the Semiconductor Equipment and Materials International (SEMI) *World Fab Watch* (formerly *International Fabs on Disk*) database (1996 to 2002). Estimates of silicon consumed by line-width from 1990 through 1994 were derived from information from VLSI Research (2001), and the number of layers per line-width was obtained from International SEMATECH's *International Technology Roadmap: 2000 Update*.

Uncertainty

Emission estimates for this source category have improved, but are still relatively uncertain. Emissions vary depending upon the total amount of gas used and the tool and process employed. Much of this information is tracked by semiconductor manufacturers participating in the EPA's PFC Emission Reduction Partnership; however, there is some uncertainty associated with the data collected. In addition, not all semiconductor manufacturers track this information. Total U.S. emissions were extrapolated from the information submitted by the participants, introducing additional uncertainty.

Electrical Transmission and Distribution

Sulfur hexafluoride's largest use, both domestically and internationally, is as an electrical insulator in equipment that transmits and distributes electricity (RAND 2000). The gas has been employed by the electric power industry in the United States since the 1950s because of its dielectric

strength and arc-quenching characteristics. It is used in gas-insulated substations, circuit breakers, and other switchgear. Sulfur hexafluoride has replaced flammable insulating oils in many applications and allows for more compact substations in dense urban areas.

Fugitive emissions of SF₆ can escape from gas-insulated substations and switch gear through seals, especially from older equipment. The gas can also be released during equipment installation, servicing, and disposal. In the past, some electric utilities vented SF₆ to the atmosphere during servicing and disposal; however, increased awareness and the relatively high cost of the gas have reduced this practice.

Emissions of SF₆ from electrical transmission and distribution systems were estimated to be 15.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.6 Gg) in 2001. This quantity represents a 51 percent decrease below the estimate for 1990 (see Table 3-48). This decrease, which is reflected in the atmospheric record, is believed to be a response to increases in the price of SF₆ and to growing awareness of the environmental impact of SF₆ emissions.

Table 3-48: SF₆ Emissions from Electrical Transmission and Distribution

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	32.1	1.3
1995	27.5	1.1
1996	27.7	1.2
1997	25.2	1.1
1998	20.9	0.9
1999	16.4	0.7
2000	15.4	0.6
2001	15.3	0.6

Methodology

The 2001 estimate of SF₆ emissions from electrical equipment, 15.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., is comprised of (1) estimated emissions of approximately 14.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. from U.S. electric power systems, and (2) estimated emissions of approximately 0.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. from U.S. electrical equipment manufacturers (original equipment manufacturers, or OEMs). The 2001 estimate of emissions from electric power systems is based on the reported 2001 emissions (5.5 Tg CO₂) of participating utilities in EPA's SF₆ Emissions Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems, which began in 1999. These emissions were scaled up to the national level using the results of a regression analysis that indicated that utilities' emissions are strongly correlated

with their transmission miles. The 2001 emissions estimate for OEMs of 0.7 Tg CO₂ is derived by assuming that manufacturing emissions equal 10 percent of the quantity of SF₆ charged into new equipment. The quantity of SF₆ charged into new equipment is estimated based on statistics compiled by the National Electrical Manufacturers Association. (In the absence of statistics for 2001, the quantity of SF₆ used to fill new equipment in 2001 was assumed to be the same as in 2000.) The 10 percent emission rate is the average of the “ideal” and “realistic” manufacturing emission rates (4 percent and 17 percent, respectively) identified in a paper prepared under the auspices of the International Council on Large Electric Systems (CIGRE) in February 2002 (P. O’Connell, et al., Study Committee 23). Emissions for 1999 and 2000 were estimated similarly.

Because most participating utilities reported emissions only for 1999 through 2001, and only one reported emissions for more than three years, it was necessary to model “backcast” electric power system SF₆ emissions for the years 1990 through 1998. It was assumed that SF₆ purchases were strongly related to emissions. To estimate 1990 through 1998 emissions, aggregate world sales of SF₆ (RAND 2000) for each year from 1990 through 1999 were divided by the world sales from 1999. The result was a time series that gave each year’s sales as a multiple of 1999 sales. Each year’s normalized sales were then multiplied by the estimated U.S. emissions of SF₆ from electric power systems in 1999, which was estimated to be 15.8 Tg CO₂ Eq., to estimate U.S. emissions of SF₆ from electrical equipment in that year. This yielded a time series that was related to statistics for both SF₆ emissions and SF₆ sales. Emissions from OEM were estimated for 1990-1998 using OEM statistics for this period.

Data Sources

Emission estimates were provided by EPA’s Global Programs Division in cooperation with companies that participate in the SF₆ Emissions Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems and with producers of SF₆.

Uncertainty

There is uncertainty involved in extrapolating total U.S. emissions from the emissions reported by participants in EPA’s SF₆ Emissions Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems, and in extrapolating 1990 through 1998 emissions from 1999 emissions. The regression equations used to extrapolate U.S. emissions from participant reports have a

variance (at the 95 percent confidence level) of +/- 2 Tg CO₂ for 1999 through 2001. In addition, emission rates for utilities that were not participants, which accounted for approximately 65 percent of U.S. transmission miles, may differ from those that were participants. Global sales of SF₆ appear to closely reflect global emissions; global sales declined by 24 percent between 1995 and 1998, while atmospheric measurements indicate that world emissions of SF₆ declined by 27 percent during the same period. However, U.S. emission patterns may differ from global emission patterns.

Magnesium Production and Processing

The magnesium metal production and casting industry uses SF₆ as a cover gas to prevent the violent oxidation of molten magnesium in the presence of air. A dilute gaseous mixture of SF₆ with dry air and/or CO₂ is blown over molten magnesium metal to induce and stabilize the formation of a protective crust. A minute portion of the SF₆ reacts with the magnesium to form a thin molecular film of mostly magnesium oxide and magnesium fluoride. It is assumed that the amount of SF₆ reacting in magnesium production and processing is negligible and thus all SF₆ used is emitted into the atmosphere. Sulfur hexafluoride has been used in this application around the world for the last twenty years. It has largely replaced salt fluxes and sulfur dioxide (SO₂), which are more toxic and corrosive than SF₆.

The magnesium industry emitted 2.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.1 Gg) of SF₆ in 2001 (see Table 3-49). This represents a significant decline from previous years. The decline is attributable to declines in production, casting, and estimated emission factors. One of the two primary U.S. producers closed in October 2001. There are no significant plans for expansion of primary magnesium production in the United States, but demand for magnesium metal by U.S. casting companies has grown as auto manufacturers design more lightweight magnesium parts into vehicle models. Foreign magnesium producers are expected to meet the growing U.S. demand for primary magnesium.

Methodology

Emission estimates for the magnesium industry incorporate information provided by industry participants in EPA’s SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for the Magnesium Industry. These participating companies represent 100 percent of U.S. primary production and over 80 percent of the casting sector.

Table 3-49: SF₆ Emissions from Magnesium Production and Processing

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	5.4	0.2
1995	5.6	0.2
1996	6.5	0.3
1997	6.3	0.3
1998	5.8	0.2
1999	6.0	0.3
2000	3.2	0.1
2001	2.5	0.1

The 1999 through 2001 emissions from primary production, some secondary production, and a large fraction of die casting were reported by participants. The 1999 through 2001 emissions from the remaining secondary production and casting were estimated by multiplying industry emission factors (kg SF₆ per metric ton of Mg produced or processed) by the amount of metal produced or consumed in the five major processes (other than primary production) that require SF₆ melt protection; 1) secondary production, 2) die casting, 3) gravity casting, 4) wrought products and, 5) anodes. The emission factors are provided in Table 3-50. Because there were less than three primary producers in the United States in 2001, the emission factor for primary production is withheld to protect production information. However, the emission factor has not risen above the 1995 value of 1.1 kg per metric ton.

The 1999 through 2001 emission factors for die casting, which is believed to account for about half of non-primary U.S. SF₆ emissions, were derived from information from industry participants. The average 2001 emission factor for die casting was estimated to be 0.74 kg SF₆ per metric ton of magnesium cast. However, to estimate total U.S. emissions from die-casting, it was assumed that die casters who did not provide information were similar to participants who cast small parts, with an average emission factor of 5.2 kg SF₆ per metric ton of magnesium. The emission factors for the other industry sectors were based on discussions with industry representatives.

To estimate 1990 to 1998 emissions, industry emission factors were multiplied by the corresponding metal production and consumption statistics from USGS. The primary production emission factors were 1.1 kg per metric ton in both 1994 and 1995, and the die casting factor was 4.1 kg per metric ton. It was assumed that these emission factors had remained constant

Table 3-50: SF₆ Emission Factors (kg SF₆ per metric ton of magnesium)

Year	Secondary	Die Casting	Gravity	Wrought	Anodes
1999	1	2.14	2	1	1
2000	1	0.71	2	1	1
2001	1	0.74	2	1	1

throughout the early 1990s. However, it was assumed that after 1996 the emission factors for primary production and die casting declined linearly to the level estimated based on Partner reports. This assumption is consistent with the trend in sales to the magnesium sector that is reported in the RAND survey of major SF₆ manufacturers, which shows a decline of 70 percent between 1996 and 1999 (RAND 2000). The emission factors for the other processes, about which less is known, were assumed to remain constant.

Data Sources

Emission estimates were provided by EPA's Climate Protection Division in cooperation with the U.S. EPA SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for the Magnesium Industry and the USGS. U.S. magnesium metal production (primary and secondary) and consumption (casting) data from 1990 to 2001 are available from the USGS.¹⁷ Emission factors from 1990 to 1998 were based on a number of sources. Emission factors for primary production were available from U.S. primary producers for 1994 and 1995, and an emission factor for die casting was available for the mid-1990s from an international survey (Gjestland & Magers 1996).

Uncertainty

There are a number of uncertainties in these estimates, including the assumption that SF₆ neither reacts nor decomposes during use. It is possible that the melt surface reactions and high temperatures associated with molten magnesium cause some gas degradation. EPA is currently pursuing a measurement campaign in cooperation with magnesium producers and processors to ascertain the extent of such degradation. As is the case for other sources of SF₆ emissions, total SF₆ consumption data for magnesium production and processing in United States were not available. Sulfur hexafluoride may also be used as a cover gas for the casting of molten aluminum with a high magnesium content; however, it is unknown to what extent this technique is used in the United States.

¹⁷ See <<http://minerals.usgs.gov/minerals/pubs/commodity/magnesium/index.html#mis>>.

Box 3-1: Potential Emission Estimates of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆

Emissions of HFCs, PFCs and SF₆ from industrial processes can be estimated in two ways, either as potential emissions or as actual emissions. Emission estimates in this chapter are “actual emissions,” which are defined by the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) as estimates that take into account the time lag between consumption and emissions. In contrast, “potential emissions” are defined to be equal to the amount of a chemical consumed in a country, minus the amount of a chemical recovered for destruction or export in the year of consideration. Potential emissions will generally be greater for a given year than actual emissions, since some amount of chemical consumed will be stored in products or equipment and will not be emitted to the atmosphere until a later date, if ever. Because all chemicals consumed will eventually be emitted into the atmosphere, in the long term the cumulative emission estimates using the two approaches should be equivalent unless the chemical is captured and destroyed. Although actual emissions are considered to be the more accurate estimation approach for a single year, estimates of potential emissions are provided for informational purposes.

Separate estimates of potential emissions were not made for industrial processes that fall into the following categories:

- *By-product emissions.* Some emissions do not result from the consumption or use of a chemical, but are the unintended by-products of another process. For such emissions, which include emissions of CF₄ and C₂F₆ from aluminum production and of HFC-23 from HCFC-22 production, the distinction between potential and actual emissions is not relevant.
- *Potential emissions that equal actual emissions.* For some sources, such as magnesium production and processing, it is assumed that there is no delay between consumption and emission and that no destruction of the chemical takes place. In this case, actual emissions equal potential emissions.

Table 3-51 presents potential emission estimates for HFCs and PFCs from the substitution of ozone depleting substances, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ from semiconductor manufacture, and SF₆ from magnesium production and processing, and electrical transmission and distribution.¹⁸ Potential emissions associated with the substitution for ozone depleting substances were calculated through a combination of the EPA's Vintaging Model and information provided by U.S. chemical manufacturers. Estimates of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ consumed by semiconductor manufacture were developed by dividing chemical-by-chemical emissions by the appropriate chemical-specific emission factors from the IPCC Good Practice Guidance (Tier 2c). Estimates of CF₄ consumption were adjusted to account for the conversion of other chemicals into CF₄ during the semiconductor manufacturing process, again using the default factors from the IPCC Good Practice Guidance. U.S. utility purchases of SF₆ for electrical equipment from 1999 through 2001 were estimated based on reports by participants in EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Program for Electric Power Systems. U.S. utility purchases of SF₆ for electrical equipment from 1990 through 1998 were backcasted based on world sales of SF₆ to utilities. Purchases of SF₆ by utilities were added to SF₆ purchases by electrical equipment manufacturers to obtain total SF₆ purchases by the electrical equipment sector.

Table 3-51: 2001 Potential and Actual Emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ from Selected Sources (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source	Potential	Actual
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	224.7	63.7
Aluminum Production	-	4.1
HCFC-22 Production	-	19.8
Semiconductor Manufacture	8.1	5.5
Magnesium Production and Processing	2.5	2.5
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	24.1	15.3

- Not applicable.

¹⁸ See Annex X for a discussion of sources of SF₆ emissions excluded from the actual emissions estimates in this report.

Table 3-52: NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions from Industrial Processes (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
NO_x	591	607	596	629	637	605	631	662
Chemical & Allied Product								
Manufacturing	152	144	113	115	117	102	104	106
Metals Processing	88	89	75	81	81	79	82	87
Storage and Transport	3	5	14	15	15	9	9	10
Other Industrial Processes	343	362	393	417	424	415	435	458
Miscellaneous*	5	7	1	1	1	1	1	1
CO	4,124	3,958	3,016	3,153	3,163	2,145	2,214	2,327
Chemical & Allied Product								
Manufacturing	1,074	1,109	954	971	981	326	335	346
Metals Processing	2,395	2,159	1,451	1,551	1,544	1,118	1,155	1,230
Storage and Transport	69	22	64	64	65	145	151	158
Other Industrial Processes	487	566	509	528	535	517	536	556
Miscellaneous*	101	102	39	38	38	39	37	37
NMVOCs	2,426	2,643	1,997	2,038	2,047	1,890	1,845	1,829
Chemical & Allied Product								
Manufacturing	575	599	352	352	357	265	269	277
Metals Processing	111	113	66	71	71	60	62	65
Storage and Transport	1,356	1,499	1,174	1,205	1,204	1,104	1,039	1,043
Other Industrial Processes	364	409	395	397	402	449	465	434
Miscellaneous*	20	23	10	13	13	12	11	10

* Miscellaneous includes the following categories: catastrophic/accidental release, other combustion, health services, cooling towers, and fugitive dust. It does not include agricultural fires or slash/prescribed burning, which are accounted for under the Field Burning of Agricultural Residues source. Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Industrial Sources of Ambient Air Pollutants

In addition to the main greenhouse gases addressed above, many industrial processes generate emissions of ambient air pollutants. Total emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) from non-energy industrial processes from 1990 to 2001 are reported in Table 3-52.

Methodology and Data Sources

The emission estimates for this source were taken directly from the EPA (2003). Emissions were calculated either for individual categories or for many categories combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of raw material processed) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual categories from

various agencies. Depending on the category, these basic activity data may include data on production, fuel deliveries, raw material processed, etc.

Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors, which together relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Emission factors are generally available from the EPA's *Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, AP-42* (EPA 1997). The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from a variety of information sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program emissions inventory, and other EPA databases.

Uncertainty

Uncertainties in these estimates are partly due to the accuracy of the emission factors used and accurate estimates of activity data.