# Appendix A.2:

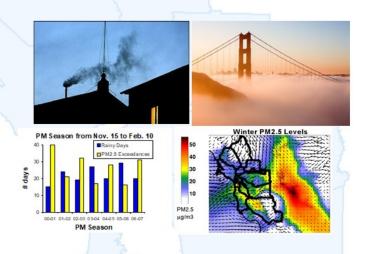
Modeling Fine Particulate Matter Emissions from the Chevron Richmond Refinery: An Air Quality Health Impact Analysis (Interim DRAFT Report – Version 1)



Air Quality Modeling and Analysis Section Publication No. 202101-022-PM

### Modeling Fine Particulate Matter Emissions From the Chevron Richmond Refinery: An Air Quality Health Impact Analysis (Interim DRAFT Report – Version 1)

#### January 2021



### Prepared by:

Yuanyuan Fang, Statistician
Bonyoung Koo, Senior Atmospheric Modeler
Andrea Baird, Technical Editor
Yiqin Jia, Atmospheric Modeler
James Cordova, Air Quality Meteorologist
Jeff Matsuoka, Research Analyst
Stephen Reid, Senior Advanced Projects Advisor

#### **Contributors:**

David Holstius, Senior Advanced Projects Advisor Saffet Tanrikulu, Air Quality Modeling and Analysis Manager

# **Table of Contents**

Executiv	/e Summary	2	
	cronyms		
	<u>ction</u>		
	ls and methods		
	US EPA's BenMAP computer program		
<u>2.2</u>	Preparation of PM <sub>2.5</sub> concentrations	7	
<u>2.3</u>	Preparation of population data	10	
<u>Applicat</u>	ion of BenMAP–CE	12	
Results.		14	
Referen	eferences		

### **Executive Summary**

The Bay Area Air Quality Management District (District) has conducted modeling analyses to assess the air quality and health impacts of fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) emissions from the Chevron Refinery in Richmond, California. These analyses are part of a larger effort to estimate the impacts of PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions from major industrial facilities in the Bay Area. This work will support the District's rule development efforts and community-scale assessments conducted under Assembly Bill 617 (AB 617), which established collaborative programs to reduce disparities in air pollution exposure across California.

The California Puff (CALPUFF) model was used for estimating ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations from Chevon refinery emissions. CALPUFF was applied at two spatial scales: a 1-km grid covering the entire Bay Area and a 100-m grid covering a smaller study area. The model was run using a single set of base-year (2018) emissions estimates. Year-specific meteorological inputs for three years (2016–2018) were utilized to minimize the impact of year-to-year variations in meteorology on estimated PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels. Average results from the three annual simulations were used as inputs to the US Environmental Protection Agency's Benefits Mapping and Analysis Program – Community Edition (BenMAP–CE), which estimates health impacts associated with changes in ambient pollutant levels, as well as conventional valuations of those impacts (expressed in US dollars).

BenMAP–CE was applied for three scenarios at the Census block level across the 100-m grid that defined the study area. The baseline scenario assessed the impacts of  $PM_{2.5}$  emitted from all modeled sources at the Chevron refinery. Scenarios A and B respectively assessed reductions in these impacts due to the achievement of  $PM_{10}$  limits under Control Scenario A (0.020 gr/dscf) and Control Scenario B (0.010 gr/dscf) at the refinery's fluidized catalytic cracking unit (FCCU).

As modeled, 5.1 to 11.6 premature deaths per year were attributed to baseline PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions from the Chevron refinery. The conventional valuation of all the health impacts included in our assessment (including, but not limited to, those deaths) was 52.5 to 118 million US dollars per year. The implementation of controls to achieve Control Scenario A and Control Scenario B at the refinery's FCCU were estimated to reduce annual excess deaths by 13% and 23%, respectively, and resulted in benefits valued at 6.8 to 15.2 and 12.2 to 27.4 million dollars per year, respectively.

The valued benefits represent US EPA's national average valuation, and were not modified specifically for the Bay Area. Table ES.1 summarizes the health and monetary impacts of PM<sub>2.5</sub> from Chevron Richmond refinery emissions along with percent changes due to emissions controls.

Table ES.1: Summary of health and monetary impacts of PM<sub>2.5</sub> from Chevron Richmond refinery emissions and percent change of FCCU emissions under Control Scenario A and Control Scenario B.

Baseline Health Impact of Chevron Richmond Refinery (Annual)		Valuation (Annual)	Reduction under Control Scenario A	Reduction under Control Scenario B
Cardiovascular	0.5–4.3 heart attacks 1.0 hospital admissions	\$63 k–\$600 k \$47 k	-13% -13%	-22% -22%
Restricted Activity	4,800 days	\$360 k	-12%	-21%
Lost Work	820 days	\$190 k	-12%	-21%
Asthma <sup>2</sup>	200 exacerbations 4 emergency room visits 0.1 hospital admissions	\$12 k \$2 k \$1 k	-12% -12% -12%	-21% -21% -20%
Respiratory Illness <sup>3</sup>	140 upper tract 100 lower tract 8 bronchitis 0.2 chronic lung disease	\$5 k \$2 k \$4 k \$5 k	-12% -12% -12% -12%	-20% -20% -20% -21%
Mortality⁴	5.1–11.6 premature deaths	\$52.5 M-\$118 M	-13%	-23%
			\$6.8 M/yr to \$15.2 M/yr	\$12.2 M/yr to \$27.4 M/yr

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Conventional US EPA valuations, in 2015 US dollars

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Asthma exacerbations in a pediatric subgroup

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Non-asthma respiratory illness (upper/lower tract and bronchitis) in a pediatric subgroup

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Including infant mortality

k, thousand; M, million.

# **List of Acronyms**

AB 617 Assembly Bill 617

**BAAQMD** Bay Area Air Quality Management District

**BenMAP–CE** Benefits Mapping and Analysis Program – Community Edition

CALPUFF California Puff (model)
CDC Center for Disease Control
ESP Electrostatic Precipitator

EPA Environmental Protection Agency
FCCU Fluidized Catalytic Cracking Unit

PM<sub>2.5</sub> Particulate Matter 2.5 micrometers or less in diameter

**WGS** Wet Gas Scrubber

# Modeling Fine Particulate Matter Emissions From the Chevron Richmond Refinery: An Air Quality Health Impact Analysis (Interim DRAFT Report – Version 1)

#### Introduction

The adoption of Assembly Bill 617 (AB 617) established collaborative programs to reduce community exposure to air pollutants in neighborhoods most impacted by air pollution. Air District staff have been working closely with the California Air Resources Board (CARB), other state agencies, local air districts, community groups, community members, environmental organizations, regulated industries, and other key stakeholders to reduce harmful air pollutants in Bay Area communities.

As part of these programs, Air Quality Modeling and Analysis Section staff have been estimating concentrations of directly emitted fine particulate matter ( $PM_{2.5}$ ) from major industrial facilities in the Bay Area. This information is being used to estimate the contributions of emitted  $PM_{2.5}$  to ambient levels, assess the adverse impacts of those contributions on human health and welfare, and quantify the benefits of reducing those impacts through emission controls.

Atmospheric PM $_{2.5}$  is a complex mixture of suspended particles and liquid droplets having aerodynamic diameters of 2.5 µm or less. These particles are small enough to be inhaled into the lungs and thereby enter the bloodstream. Numerous studies have reported that PM $_{2.5}$  is deleterious to the respiratory and cardiovascular systems. In the lungs, PM $_{2.5}$  aggravates asthma, bronchitis, and other respiratory problems, leading to increased hospital admissions. In the heart and vascular system, PM $_{2.5}$  is associated with chronic hardening of the arteries (atherosclerosis) and triggering of heart attacks (acute myocardial infarctions). Decreased life expectancy, potentially on the order of years, has been documented.

The United States Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) has developed the Environmental Benefits Mapping and Analysis Program – Community Edition (BenMAP–CE) to estimate and quantify conventional valuations of health impacts associated with changes in ambient pollutant levels (US EPA, 2018). Staff of the Air Quality Modeling and Analysis Section have been applying this program to estimate adverse impacts of PM<sub>2.5</sub> on Bay Area residents (Tanrikulu, et al., 2011). This program is also being used to assess the impacts of PM<sub>2.5</sub> emitted from major industrial facilities in the Bay Area.

The impacts of PM<sub>2.5</sub> from Chevron Richmond refinery emissions were analyzed for this report. The impacts of emissions from other major facilities will be reported separately.

#### Materials and methods

#### 2.1 US EPA's BenMAP-CE computer program

In this study, BenMAP–Community Edition (BenMAP–CE), version 1.5, was used (https://www.epa.gov/benmap). This program was designed to estimate changes in human health due to changes in ambient air quality for specific populations and to estimate conventional valuations of these impacts (in US dollars).

The valuation process takes into account both the direct costs of illnesses such as actual medical costs and lost worker hours and indirect costs reflecting willingness to pay to avoid pain and suffering as well as premature death. The direct costs alone may substantially underestimate the total valuation assigned to reductions in these outcomes. For pollutants capable of causing death, such as PM<sub>2.5</sub>, the mortality-based component tends to far outweigh the morbidity-based component. The calculations implemented by BenMAP–CE include assessing the change in population exposure, using health impact functions to estimate the incremental change in selected human health outcomes based on the exposure difference, and evaluating the range of monetary valuations associated with these outcomes.

Epidemiological data are used to develop concentration—response functions, which BenMAP—CE uses to quantify the linkages between pollutant exposures and adverse health outcomes. These functions are typically stratified by population subgroups (e.g., age groups) and account for the effects associated with a specific duration and degree of pollutant exposure. Population data and pollutant concentration data input to BenMAP—CE must be prepared in a manner consistent with these concentration—response functions. Epidemiological data linking PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure and mortality are typically stratified by age group (e.g., infants, 18 years of age and older, etc.) and reflect an annual averaging period.

The BenMAP—CE program overlays population data onto changes in ambient pollutant concentrations to calculate spatially resolved impacts associated with pollutant exposure. Pollutant concentration data are taken from air quality model simulations or observations.

The study described in this report was the first of its kind to use high-resolution simulated pollutant fields to evaluate PM<sub>2.5</sub> health impacts over the Bay Area. High-resolution simulations reproduced the sharp spatial gradients in pollutant concentrations that result in significant neighborhood-to-neighborhood differences in human exposures.

An alternative approach would be to use air monitoring data. This approach would require interpolating pollutant levels from a network of monitors to construct levels over unmonitored neighborhoods. Since air monitoring data include concentrations from emissions of all sources, this approach is not applicable to our project that assesses health impacts of emissions from a specific source or proposed or adopted emissions control.

Applications of BenMAP–CE require the development of two sets of inputs: ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations and population data. The preparation of these datasets for this study is discussed below.

### 2.2 Preparation of PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations

The California Puff (CALPUFF) model was used for estimating ambient  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations from Chevron Richmond refinery emissions (Koo et al., 2020a) and from PBF Martinez refinery emissions (Koo et al., 2020b). CALPUFF estimates pollutant concentrations at predefined receptor locations. Two receptor domains were established for the simulations. One covered the entire Bay Area at 1-km grid resolution, and the other covered a smaller area at 100-m grid resolution.

Results from the larger domain encompassing emissions from both Chevron Richmond and the PBF Martinez refineries were used to establish a "study area" approximating a "refinery corridor." This study area, consisting of the union of Census blocks for which an average modeled contribution (from both facilities combined) was determined to meet or exceed 0.1  $\mu g/m^3$  PM<sub>2.5</sub>, was used to scope the residential population for which impacts were assessed.

CALPUFF was applied for three years (2016, 2017, and 2018) using year-specific meteorology and the same base-year (2018) emission estimates that included all inventoried  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions from the refineries. The average results from the three annual simulations were used for health impacts analyses to minimize the effects of year-to-year variability in meteorology on ambient  $PM_{2.5}$  levels. The average concentrations from the baseline simulation of the Chevron Richmond refinery are shown in Figure 2.1.

CALPUFF was also applied for two additional simulations for the same years and the resulting concentrations were averaged in the same manner as described above: (1) a simulation with emissions only from the refinery's fluidized catalytic cracking unit (FCCU) and (2) a simulation with emissions only from the refinery's FCCU controlled with an assumed wet gas scrubber (WGS). Air District staff believes that the more stringent 0.010 gr/dscf standard under Control Scenario B could only be met with a wet gas scrubber.

Analyses were also conducted for an assumed emissions rate corresponding to the draft 0.020 gr.dscf standard under Control Scenario B. Air District staff assumes stack release parameters would remain consistent with the current refinery configuration. For this scenario, concentrations estimated with the FCCU emissions only was uniformly reduced 33%, and the resulting concentrations were subtracted from the base simulation. This percent reduction is consistent with the draft 0.020 gr/dscf standard. Figure 2.2a shows reductions in PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations due to the draft 0.020 gr/dscf standard (scenario A). Figure 2.2b shows reductions in PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations due to the 0.010 gr/dscf standard (assuming WGS control) from the Chevron Richmond refinery (scenario B).

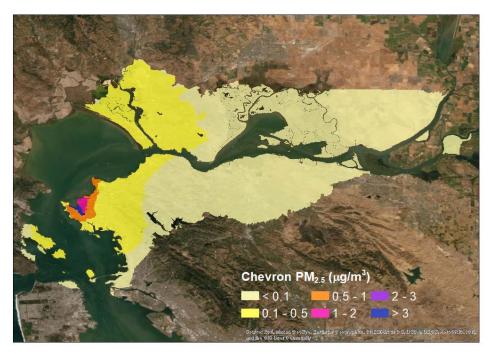
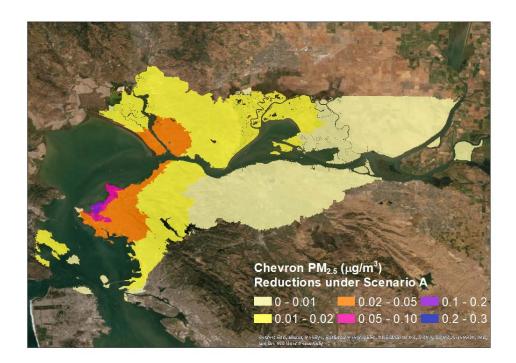


Figure 2.1: Average  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations from the baseline scenario for the Chevron Richmond refinery.



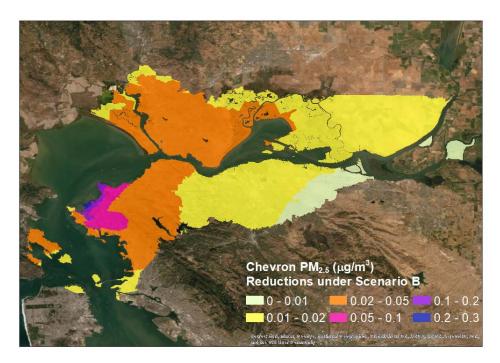


Figure 2.2: (a) Reductions in average  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations due to 0.020 gr/dscf standard (upper panel, Control Scenario A); (b) reductions in average  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations due to 0.010 gr/dscf standard (lower panel, Control Scenario B).

BenMAP–CE requires two sets of ambient concentrations to estimate health impacts. These are called base and control cases. CALPUFF simulations were designed to estimate: (1) the overall health impacts of PM<sub>2.5</sub> emitted from the Chevron Richmond refinery, and (2) the benefits of reducing FCCU emissions under Control Scenario A and Control Scenario B. For estimating overall health impacts, the base case was the three-year average simulated PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations from all Chevron emissions, while the control case was simply an assumed concentration field with zero PM<sub>2.5</sub> (i.e., no emissions from Chevron) for comparison; the difference between these two cases provided a representation of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> contribution associated with total Chevron emissions.

For estimating the benefits of reducing FCCU emissions, the base case was the three-year average simulated PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations from uncontrolled FCCU emissions, while the control cases were the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration field resulting from the Control Scenario A and Control Scenario B emissions.

BenMAP–CE provides population data from the 2010 Census at both the Census block and Census tract levels. Block-average PM<sub>2.5</sub> contributions were assigned to each Census block in the study area. Figure 2.3 illustrates the set of such blocks. For details of the calculation of block averages, see Holstius and Martien, 2021.

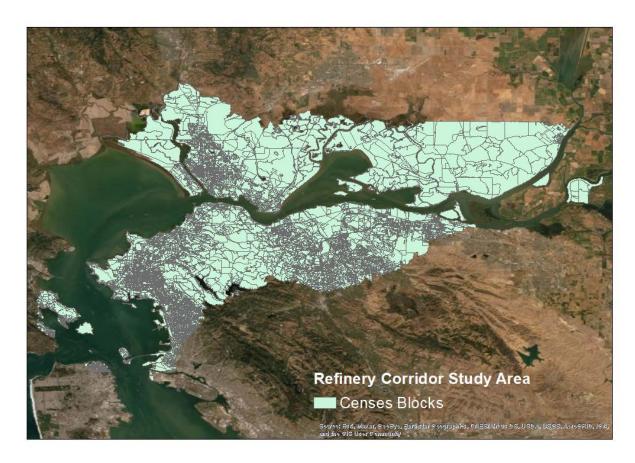


Figure 2.3: Map of the study area and all Census blocks included in the BenMAP–CE analysis.

### 2.3 Preparation of population data

BenMAP–CE requires population data to be grouped in a specific way to apply the available health impact functions. The developers of BenMAP–CE had already grouped the US Census Bureau's population data for this purpose for 2010, a year the most comprehensive census was conducted (Table 2.1). We projected the 2010 data to 2020 using an available module in BenMAP-CE, Figure 2.4.

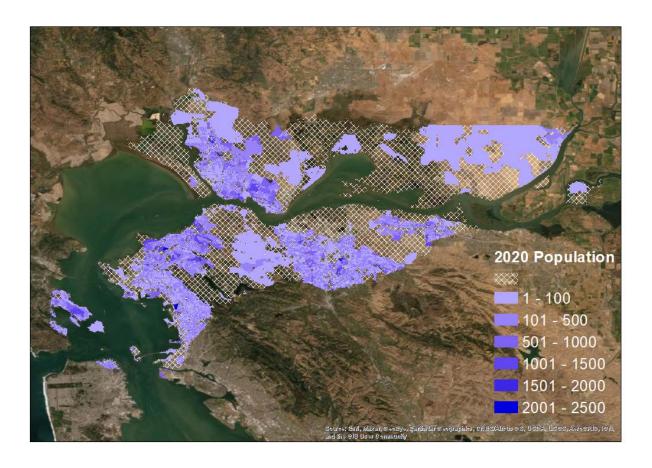


Figure 2.4: Projected 2020 population obtained by applying PopGrid to 2010 Census data.

As can be seen from Table 2.1, there were a total of 304 population groups for which PM<sub>2.5</sub> health impacts could be estimated. They comprised nineteen age, four race, two ethnic, and male and female groups (details of how these groups were established are provided in Appendix J of EPA 2018). BenMAP's racial classification schema is identical to that of the Center for Disease Control (CDC), from which BenMAP obtains baseline health data. CDC's schema is aligned with the US Census 2010 schema, except that multi-racial ("2 or more races," etc.) as well as "other race" responses are reclassified into one of these four "single-race" bins based on auxiliary data. Thus, multiracial and other classifications have not been dropped; they have been reclassified into one of these four categories.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This practice, termed "race bridging," is a convention followed by the CDC to support long-term trend analyses.

Table 2.1: BenMAP–CE population groupings.

	Sex
Hispanic	Male
erican Non-Hispanic	Female
ndian	
	erican Non-Hispanic

### Application of BenMAP-CE

BenMAP–CE was applied for three different scenarios at the Census block level across the study area, as shown in Table 3.1. The first scenario, the baseline scenario, assessed the total impacts of  $PM_{2.5}$  emitted from all modeled sources at the Chevron Richmond refinery. Scenarios A and B assessed reductions in these impacts due to achieving  $PM_{10}$  standards of 0.020 gr/dscf and 0.010 gr/dscf at the FCCU, respectively.

Table 3.1: BenMAP–CE application scenarios.

Scenario	Domain	Base Case	Control Case	
Baseline	Study area (Census	PM <sub>2.5</sub> emissions from	All PM <sub>2.5</sub> concentrations set to	
	block level)	all Chevron sources	zero (no emissions from	
			Chevron)	
Α	Study area (Census	PM <sub>2.5</sub> emissions from	PM <sub>2.5</sub> emissions from all	
	block level)	all Chevron sources	Chevron sources, but with FCCU	
			emissions controlled to 0.020	
			gr/dscf standard	
В	Study area (Census	PM <sub>2.5</sub> emissions from	PM <sub>2.5</sub> emissions from all	
	block level)	all Chevron sources	Chevron sources, but with FCCU	
			emissions controlled to 0.010	
			gr/dscf standard	

BenMAP–CE was run using the same set of health impact functions used by the US EPA to assess PM<sub>2.5</sub> impacts in the United States, except for functions related to premature mortality. For the premature mortality category, we added three health impact functions to the EPA's set to ensure that the premature mortality endpoint was evaluated rigorously. Two of the added functions are from Jerrett et al., 2013 and are based on California-wide and nationwide analyses of a 1980–2000 cohort. The third added function is from Vodonos et al., 2018, which itself is a meta-analysis summarizing 53 single studies (including the three other studies that we included), 17 of which have been published since 2015.

Table 3.2 summarizes the health impact functions used in BenMAP–CE and also provides information on the health endpoints associated with each study, age range, and baseline health data used.

Table 3.2: Health endpoint, studies developed health impacts functions and epidemiological data used.

Health Endpoint	Studies Developed Health Impacts Functions	Study Population	Baseline Health Data as Named in BenMAP— CE	
Cardiovascular				
	Peters et al. (2001)	18+ years	Other incidence (2014)	
	Pooled estimate:	18+ years	Other incidence (2014)	
	-Pope et al. (2006)			
Nonfatal heart attacks	-Sullivan et al. (2005)			
	-Zanobetti et al. (2009)			
	-Zanobetti and Schwartz (2006)			
	Pooled estimate:	64+ years	Other incidence (2014)	
	-Zanobetti et al. (2009)			
Hospital admission,	-Peng et al. (2009)			
cardiovascular	-Peng et al. (2008)			
	-Bell et al. (2008)			
	Moolgavkar (2000)	18–64 years	Other incidence (2014)	
Lost Work				
Work loss days	Ostro (1987)	18–65 years	Other incidence (2000)	
Restricted Activity				
Minor restricted activity	Ostro and Rothschild (1989)	18–65 years	Literature data	
days				
Asthma				
Asthma exacerbations	Pooled estimate: -Ostro et al. (2001)	6–18 years	Prevalence (2008)	
	-Mar et al. (2004)			

Health Endpoint	Studies Developed Health Impacts Functions	Study Population	Baseline Health Data as Named in BenMAP— CE		
	Pooled estimate:	All ages	Other incidence (2014)		
Asthma-related ER visits	-Mar et al. (2010)				
Astillia related ER visits	-Slaughter et al. (2005)				
	-Glad et al. (2012)				
	Pooled estimate:	0–17 years	Other incidence (2014)		
Hospital admission, asthma	-Babin et al. (2007)				
astiiiia	-Sheppard (2003)				
Respiratory illness					
Upper respiratory symptoms	Pope et al. (1991)	Asthmatics, 9– 11 years	Prevalence (2008)		
Lower respiratory symptoms	Schwartz and Neas (2000)	7–14 years	Literature data		
Acute bronchitis	Dockery et al. (1996)	8–12 years	Other incidence (2000)		
Hospital admission, chronic lung disease	Moolgavkar (2000)	18–64 years	Other incidence (2014)		
Mortality					
	Krewski et al. (2009)	30+ years	Mortality incidence		
Mortality, all-cause	Lepeule et al. (2012)	25+ years	(2020)		
	Woodruff et al. (1997)	Infant (<1 year)			
	Jerrett et al. (2013) for CA	30+ years	Mortality incidence		
Mortality, all-cause (added to BenMAP–CE)	Jerrett et al. (2013) for US	30+ years	(2020)		
(2200 10 20 02)	Vodonos et al. (2018)	All ages			

#### **Results**

Results obtained from BenMAP–CE are tabulated in Table 4.1 using the US EPA's pooling method. This method allows users to summarize health and monetary impacts from changes in PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations. BenMAP–CE results showed that PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions from the Chevron Richmond refinery result in 5.1 to 11.6 premature deaths per year, valued at 52.5 to 118 million US dollars. Achievement of the standards under Control Scenario A and Control Scenario B at the refinery's FCCU were estimated to reduce annual excess deaths by 13% and 23%, respectively, and result in benefits valued at 6.8 to 15.2 and 12.2 to 27.4 million dollars per

year, respectively. The range in the valuations shown, for both the baseline and the control benefits, is mostly attributable to the range in mortality impacts from the different health impact functions applied.

Table 4.1: Summary of health and monetary impacts of PM<sub>2.5</sub> from Chevron Richmond refinery emissions and percent change of FCCU emissions under Control Scenario A and Control Scenario B.

Baseline Health Impact of Chevron Richmond Refinery (Annual)		Valuation 1 (Annual)	Reduction under Control Scenario A	Reduction under Control Scenario B
Cardiovascular	0.5–4.3 heart attacks 1.0 hospital admissions	\$63 k–\$600 k \$47 k	-13% -13%	-22% -22%
Restricted Activity	4,800 days	\$360 k	-12%	-21%
Lost Work	820 days	\$190 k	-12%	-21%
Asthma <sup>2</sup>	200 exacerbations 4 emergency room visits 0.1 hospital admissions	\$12 k \$2 k \$1 k	-12% -12% -12%	-21% -21% -20%
Respiratory Illness <sup>3</sup>	140 upper tract 100 lower tract 8 bronchitis 0.2 chronic lung disease	\$5 k \$2 k \$4 k \$5 k	-12% -12% -12% -12%	-20% -20% -20% -21%
Mortality <sup>4</sup>	5.1–11.6 premature deaths	\$52.5 M-\$118 M	-13%	-23%
			\$6.8 M/yr to \$15.2 M/yr	\$12.2 M/yr to \$27.4 M/yr

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Conventional US EPA valuations, in 2015 US dollars

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Asthma exacerbations in a pediatric subgroup

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Non-asthmatic respiratory illness (upper/lower tract and bronchitis), in a pediatric subgroup

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Including infant mortality

k, thousand; M, million.

Note that valued benefits shown in Table 4.1 represent US EPA's national average valuation, and were not modified specifically for the Bay Area.

#### References

Babin, S. M., H. S. Burkom, et al. 2007. Pediatric patient asthma-related emergency department visits and admissions in Washington, DC, from 2001–2004, and associations with air quality, socio-economic status and age group. *Environ Health* 6:9.

Bell, M. L., K. Ebisu, et al. 2008. Seasonal and Regional Short-term Effects of Fine Particles on Hospital Admissions in 202 US Counties, 1999–2005. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 168(11): 1301-10.

Dockery, D.W., J. Cunningham, A.I. Damokosh, L.M. Neas, J.D. Spengler, P. Koutrakis, J.H. Ware, M. Raizenne, and F.E. Speizer. 1996. Health Effects of Acid Aerosols On North American Children: Respiratory Symptoms. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 104(5):500-5. EPA-HQ-OAR-2009-0472-0225.

Glad, J.A., L.L. Brink, E.O. Talbott, P.C. Lee, X. Xu, M. Saul, and J. Rager. 2012. The Relationship of Ambient Ozone and PM2.5) Levels and Asthma Emergency Department Visits: Possible Influence of Gender and Ethnicity. *Archives of Environmental & Occupational Health*. Vol 62(2): 103-8.

Holstius, D. and P. Martien. 2021. Exposure and Health Equity Assessment for Rule 6-5 (DRAFT). Available from Bay Area Air Quality Management District, San Francisco, CA.

Jerrett, M., R.T. Burnett, B.S. Beckerman, et al. 2013. Spatial analysis of air pollution and mortality in California. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 188(5):593-59. doi:10.1164/rccm.201303-0609OC.

Koo, B., Y. Jia, J. Cordova, Y. Fang, S. Reid, J. Matsuoka. 2020a. Modeling Fine Particulate Matter Emissions from the Chevron Richmond Refinery: An Air Quality Analysis. Interim DRAFT Report – Version 1), Sept 2020, BAAQMD Air Quality Modeling and Analysis Section Publication No. 202009-020-PM.

Koo, B., Y. Jia, J. Cordova, Y. Fang, S. Reid, J. Matsuoka. 2020b. Modeling Fine Particulate Matter Emissions from the PBF Martinez Refinery: An Air Quality Analysis. Interim DRAFT Report – Version 1), Sept 2020, BAAQMD Air Quality Modeling and Analysis Section Publication No. 202009-021-PM.

Krewski, D., M. Jerrett, R.T. Burnett, et al. 2009. Extended follow-up and spatial analysis of the American Cancer Society study linking particulate air pollution and mortality. *Res Rep Health Eff Inst.* Research Report 140:5-114; commentary 115-36. PMID: 19627030.

Lepeule, J., F. Laden, D. Dockery, J. Schwartz. 2012. Chronic exposure to fine particles and mortality: an extended follow-up of the Harvard Six Cities study from 1974 to 2009. *Environ Health Perspect*. 120(7):965-70. doi: 10.1289/ehp.1104660.

Mar, T. F., T. V. Larson, et al. 2004. An analysis of the association between respiratory symptoms in subjects with asthma and daily air pollution in Spokane, Washington. *Inhal Toxicol* 16(13): 809-15.

Mar, T. F., J. Q. Koenig and J. Primomo. 2010. "Associations between asthma emergency visits and particulate matter sources, including diesel emissions from stationary generators in Tacoma, Washington." *Inhal Toxicol* 22(6): 445-8.

Moolgavkar, S.H. 2000. "Air Pollution and Hospital Admissions for Diseases of the Circulatory System in Three U.S. Metropolitan Areas." Journal of the Air and Waste Management Association 50(7):1199-206.

Ostro, B.D. 1987. Air Pollution and Morbidity Revisited: A Specification Test. *Journal of Environmental Economics Management* 14:87-98. EPA-HQ-OAR-2009-0472-1670.

Ostro, B.D. and S. Rothschild. 1989. Air Pollution and Acute Respiratory Morbidity: An Observational Study of Multiple Pollutants. *Environmental Research* 50(2):238-47. EPA-HQ-OAR-2009-0472-0364.

Ostro, B., M. Lipsett, J. Mann, H. Braxton-Owens, and M. White. 2001. Air Pollution and Exacerbation of Asthma in African-American Children in Los Angeles. *Epidemiology* 12(2):200-208.

Peng, R. D., M. L. Bell, et al. 2009. Emergency admissions for cardiovascular and respiratory diseases and the chemical composition of fine particle air pollution. *Environ Health Perspect* 117(6): 957-63.

Peng, R. D., H. H. Chang, et al. 2008. Coarse particulate matter air pollution and hospital admissions for cardiovascular and respiratory diseases among Medicare patients. JAMA 299(18): 2172-9.

Peters, A., D.W. Dockery, J.E. Muller, and M.A. Mittleman. 2001. Increased Particulate Air Pollution and the Triggering of Myocardial Infarction. *Circulation*. 103(23):2810-5. EPA-HQ-OAR-2009-0472-0239.

Pope, C.A., III, D.W. Dockery, J.D. Spengler, and M.E. Raizenne. 1991. Respiratory Health and PM $_{10}$  Pollution: A Daily Time Series Analysis. *American Review of Respiratory Diseases* 144(3 Pt 1):668-74. EPA-HQ-OAR-2009-0472-1672.

Pope, C. A., III, J. B. Muhlestein, et al. 2006. Ischemic heart disease events triggered by short-term exposure to fine particulate air pollution. *Circulation*. 114(23): 2443-8.

Schwartz, J., and L.M. Neas. 2000. Fine Particles are More Strongly Associated than Coarse Particles with Acute Respiratory Health Effects in Schoolchildren. *Epidemiology* 11(1):6-10.

Sheppard, L. 2003. Ambient Air Pollution and Nonelderly Asthma Hospital Admissions in Seattle, Washington, 1987-1994. In *Revised Analyses of Time-Series Studies of Air Pollution and Health*. Special Report. Boston, MA: Health Effects Institute. EPA-HQ-OAR-2009-0472-0318.

Slaughter, J.C., et al. 2005. "Association between particulate matter and emergency room visits, hospital admissions and mortality in Spokane, Washington." *Journal of Exposure Analysis & Environmental Epidemiology*, 15, 153-9. doi: 10.1038/sj.jea.7500382.

Sullivan, J., L. Sheppard, et al. 2005. Relation between short-term fine-particulate matter exposure and onset of myocardial infarction. *Epidemiology*. 16(1): 41-8.

Tanrikulu, S., C. Tran, S. Beaver. 2011. Health Impact Analysis of Fine Particulate Matter in the San Francisco Bay Area, Sept 2011, BAAQMD Research and Modeling Section Publication No. 201109-009-PM.

US EPA, 2018. Environmental Benefits Mapping and Analysis Program – Community Edition User's Manual – updated for BenMAP–CE v1.4.8, <a href="https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-04/documents/benmap-ce-user-manual-march-2015.pdf">https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-04/documents/benmap-ce-user-manual-march-2015.pdf</a>.

US EPA. 2008

Appendix J of EPA 2018b

Vodonos, A., Y.A. Awad, J. Schwartz. 2018. The concentration-response between long-term PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure and mortality; A meta-regression approach. *Environmental Research* 166:677-89. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2018.06.021.

Woodruff, T.J., J. Grillo, and K.C. Schoendorf. 1997. The Relationship Between Selected Causes of Postneonatal Infant Mortality and Particulate Air Pollution in the United States. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 105(6):608-12. EPA-HQ-OAR-2009-0472-0382.

Zanobetti, A., M. Franklin, et al. 2009. Fine particulate air pollution and its components in association with cause-specific emergency admissions. *Environmental Health*. 8: 58-60.

Zanobetti A. and Schwartz, J. 2006. Air pollution and emergency admissions in Boston, MA. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 60(10): 890-5.