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Growth of climate change commitments from HFC banks and emissions

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Abstract

Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) are the primary cause of ozone depletion, and they also contribute to global climate change. With the global phaseout of CFCs and the coming phaseout of hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), the substitute hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) are increasingly used. While CFCs were originally used mainly in applications such as spray cans and were released within a year after production, concern about the ozone layer led to reductions in rapid-release applications, and the relative importance of slower-release applications grew. HFCs are now mainly used in refrigerators and air-conditioners (AC) and are released over years to a decade after production. Their containment in such equipment represents banks, which are building up as production grows. A key finding of our work is that the increases of HFC banks represent a substantial unseen commitment to further radiative forcing of climate change after production of the chemicals ceases. We show that earlier phaseouts of HFCs would provide greater benefits for climate protection than previously recognized, due to the avoided buildup of the banks. If, for example, HFC production were to be phased out in 2020 instead of 2050, not only would about 91–146 GtCO₂eq of cumulative emission be avoided from 2020 to 2050, but an additional bank of about 39–64 GtCO₂eq is also avoided in 2050. Choices of later phaseout dates lead to larger commitments to climate change unless growing banks of HFCs from millions of dispersed locations are collected and destroyed.

1 Introduction

Concern about damage to the Earth's ozone layer prompted the signing of the Montreal Protocol in 1987, an international treaty that has since been hailed as one of the most successful environmental agreements. The halocarbons that were the primary cause of ozone loss are also potent greenhouse gases (Ramanathan, 1975), and reductions in emissions of these gases have benefitted both the ozone layer and efforts to reduce

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anthropogenic climate change (Velders et al., 2007). At the time that the Protocol was developed, chlorofluorocarbons were the primary halocarbons addressed, and most of the emissions of these gases occurred rapidly (within about a year after production) during the process of operation, in applications such as spray cans, metered-dose medical inhalers, open cell foams, and solvents (Fig. 1) (Fisher and Midgley, 1994; Gamlen et al., 1986). By reducing production and consumption of rapidly-released gases in each country, measures taken under the Protocol quickly led to changes in emissions of CFCs, with very little time lag. While CFCs are no longer produced or used anywhere in the world, a small amount of emission of these gases continues (see Fig. 2), due mainly to release from applications where their use involves containment and storage, i.e., a bank of material. The primary banks are in refrigeration and air conditioning (AC) applications, from which gases are released on a time scale of years to about a decade (medium time scale), and in closed cell foams, from which they are released over multiple decades (long time scale, e.g., in building insulation). This represents a legacy, or commitment, of continued environmental impact from past production of CFCs, but its magnitude is relatively small since so much use of CFCs occurred in rapid-release applications.

Substitute processes and chemicals that replace the CFCs have evolved in the decades since the Montreal Protocol entered into force. Many applications now employ approaches that do not require halocarbons at all, referred to as “not-in-kind” substitutions; an example is the widespread use of hydrocarbons rather than halocarbons in spray cans today. CFCs have also been replaced by other halocarbons. Initially, some uses of CFCs were replaced with HCFCs, which have a reduced impact on ozone, and now increasingly with HFCs, which do not deplete ozone at all. The contributions of HCFCs and HFCs to climate change depend upon their atmospheric lifetimes and corresponding Global Warming Potentials (GWPs). GWPs are one type of measure of the relative impact of a gram of a greenhouse gas compared to carbon dioxide over one hundred years (see, e.g., IPCC/TEAP, 2005). Most HFCs currently used have relatively long atmospheric lifetimes (e.g., HFC-134a, with a lifetime of about 13 yr) and GWPs

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in excess of 1000, and are sometimes referred to as high-GWP HFCs. Throughout this paper, we refer to high-GWP HFCs unless otherwise noted. HCFCs are now scheduled to be phased out globally in 2040, and are already being replaced by HFCs (as well as a lesser amount of not-in-kind materials and technologies). As a result, atmospheric HFC concentrations are rapidly growing, by 10–15 % per year from 2006–2010 (UNEP, 2011a). The increase of concentrations implies a growing contribution of HFCs to radiative forcing of climate change, which could become substantial compared to carbon dioxide under some circumstances (Gschrey et al., 2011; Velders et al., 2009).

Figure 1 shows that the substitution with HCFCs and HFCs (as compared to CFCs) coincided with a shift away from rapid-release applications to applications involving containment, particularly refrigeration and AC (see also McCulloch et al., 2003). Further, environmental concerns led to tighter systems that increase the time the material spends in equipment (e.g., by the use of improved hoses that leak less in mobile AC). As a result of the shift to longer time scale uses, each additional year of production in HCFCs and HFCs leads to an increasing buildup in banks. The unseen and growing commitment to climate change from the HFCs produced but not yet released has not been clearly discussed or quantified, and is the focus of this paper.

HFCs are among the basket of gases of the Kyoto Protocol. Since 2009, there have been discussions among the Parties to the Montreal Protocol about including the HFCs under this protocol as well, and limiting their consumption and production to avoid a potentially large future contribution to climate change. The progression from CFCs to HFCs and the accompanying changes in banks create a new issue for policy design that poses several options: (i) doing nothing and allowing the banks to build up and be released, causing further climate change, (ii) taking steps to collect and destroy the banks as part of a phaseout schedule or (iii) planning a phaseout schedule at an earlier time that avoids the buildup of the banks. Here we show that the benefits of earlier HFC phaseouts will be greater than previous estimates, where only emissions, concentrations, and radiative forcing were considered but not banks (UNEP, 2011a; Velders et al., 2012), since actions taken sooner will avoid the buildup of banks of these gases. Equiv-

3 Scenarios of halocarbons

The CFC and HCFC scenarios used here are the baseline scenarios from WMO (2011). These use observed mixing ratios to estimate historical annual average emissions (top-down), the bottom-up banks estimates by UNEP (2009a), if available, for the year 2008, the reported production of halocarbons from UNEP (2010), and the phase-out schedules of the Montreal Protocol as constraints. The bottom-up bank estimates are based on inventories of the number of units of equipment containing CFCs and HCFCs and the amount of halocarbons present in the equipment. Emission factors, which represent the fraction of the individual banks that are released each year, are derived from the ratio of the top-down derived emissions and the bank estimates over the period 1999 to 2008, and are used to calculate the depletion of the bank and annual emissions, past 2008. Historical bank sizes could also be estimated from solely historic production data and top-down derived emission, but banks derived this way have larger and unknown uncertainties, because they are the result of an accumulating difference between two numbers (Daniel et al., 2007).

The HFC scenarios used in this study are the upper and lower range scenarios of Velders et al. (2009). These scenarios can be characterized as business-as-usual scenarios in the sense that they assume that the current patterns of replacement of CFCs and HCFCs with HFCs and other substances and technologies, as observed in the past few years in developed countries, continue unchanged and will also apply to developing countries. These scenarios do not consider global regulations of technological developments on the use and emissions of HFCs. They project the demand and emissions of HFCs for developed and developing countries based on growth in population and economy from 2010 to 2050 (IPCC, 2000). The demand in developed countries is assumed to be proportional to the projected growth in population and the demand in developing countries is proportional to the growth in gross domestic product (GDP). The per capita HFC demand in developing countries is limited to the per capita demand in developed countries, and is determined for each type of application. The HFC

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demand past 2050 is fully saturated; i.e. the demand up to 2100 is kept constant at the 2050 level (see also Xu et al., 2013). Annual emissions are calculated as a constant fraction of the bank. The fractions, or emission factors for most HFCs are based on the fractions observed for the HCFCs they replace.

5 The mix of chemicals and technologies that will be used to replace the HCFCs are key to the HFC emissions in these scenarios since the HCFCs are scheduled to be phased out globally by 2040 following the regulations of the Montreal Protocol. In the scenarios (Velders et al., 2009), 90% of the HCFC use in refrigeration and stationary AC applications is assumed to be replaced with blends of HFC-32, HFC-125, 10 HFC-134a, and HFC-143a while 10% is assumed to use not-in-kind technologies or chemicals. Half of the HCFC use in foams is replaced with HFC-134a, HFC-245fa, and HFC-365mfc, while the other half is replaced with not-in-kind technologies or chemicals. A small demand for HFC-152a for specialty industrial aerosols is continued in the scenarios. The phaseout of HFC-134a for mobile AC in Europe in 2017 is included in 15 the scenario, while in other countries, the use of HFC-134a is continued unabated. In the scenarios this mix of HFCs and not-in-kind alternatives remains constant for the whole time period considered.

The business-as-usual scenarios of Velders et al. (2009) are used here as reference for the production, banks, and emissions of HFCs. These scenarios are at the 20 upper range of published HFC scenarios. Other scenarios differ because they assume different and/or temporally changing replacement patterns for HCFCs with HFCs and not-in-kind technologies, and different growth rates for the demand and market saturation (Gschrey et al., 2011). However, because the Gschrey et al. (2011) scenarios display a similar mix of short, medium, and long banking time applications to those of 25 the reference scenario of Velders et al. (2009), the relative role of the banks as a fraction of emissions in those scenarios would be similar to that displayed here, albeit with smaller absolute values for both banks and emissions. Some other scenarios, such as several of the Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) (Meinshausen et al., 2011) also include strong mitigation actions in line with actions on other greenhouse

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the estimated HFC bank sizes range from a factor of less than 1 to more than 5 yr's worth of CO₂eq emissions in 2050 for the scenarios compared here.

The effects of possible phaseouts of HFC production in certain years are also shown in Fig. 2. The figure shows the continuing emissions that would occur after a phaseout if the banks are not destroyed: after a production phaseout, the banks decline slowly in about 20 yr, as the HFCs are emitted during this period. Because of the consistently increasing HFC production through 2050, the earlier the phaseout, the shorter is the period the banks can build up and the smaller is the final bank size at the phaseout date. If, for example, the HFC production were to be phased out in 2020 instead of 2050, the cumulative emissions avoided would be about 91–146 GtCO₂eq from 2020 to 2050, while a bank of about 39–64 GtCO₂eq is also avoided in 2050, an additional benefit to climate protection of about 40 %. This comparison exemplifies how an analysis that, for example, just examines emissions and radiative forcing time series through 2050 would understate the full climate benefits of an earlier HFC production phaseout.

Figure 3 presents cumulative production, emission, and banks vs. time for the scenarios. Figure 3 can be compared to Fig. 2, and helps to show what is gained by the avoided banks (as compared to consideration of emissions and concentrations only) for any choice of phaseout time desired. The arrows on the figure show, for example, how a phaseout ten years earlier than 2050 corresponds with 60–96 GtCO₂eq of avoided production, of which 50–80 GtCO₂eq occurs through avoided emission and 10–16 GtCO₂eq comes from a smaller bank.

5 Radiative forcing

The contribution of halocarbons to radiative forcing of climate change depends on the product of the global average concentrations and the radiative efficiencies (radiative forcing per molecule). The radiative forcings of the halocarbon scenarios considered here are shown in Fig. 4 and Table S1 (see Supplement). The radiative forcing of the CFCs peaked around 2000 and slowly decreased since then, while that of the HCFCs

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is projected to peak just after 2020. In the business as usual scenario, the radiative forcing of the HFCs is projected to continue increasing throughout the 21st century, and may reach values of more than 0.5 W m^{-2} .

Figure 4 also shows the effects of HFC phaseouts at various times on radiative forcing. While the HFC emissions continue for about 20 yr after a production phaseout due to emission from the banks if they are not destroyed as noted above, the HFCs continue to contribute to radiative forcing for a further several decades, as the gases are slowly removed from the atmosphere by natural processes. For example, with an HFC production phaseout in 2050, the radiative forcing decreases slowly from a maximum of $0.26\text{--}0.42 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ in 2054 to $0.07\text{--}0.11 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ in 2100. However, this is still more than 0.4 W m^{-2} less than the forcing in 2100 in the scenario of constant emissions after 2050. At their peak, these radiative forcings are about 8–14% of the CO_2 forcing from the mid-range of RCP scenarios (RCP4.5 and RCP6, Meinshausen et al., 2011) (Fig. 4). While the absolute forcing is important in determining the total amount of warming since pre-industrial times, the rate of increase in forcing is important in determining the rate of transient temperature rise. The rate of increase in radiative forcing by HFCs in the reference scenario is $0.010\text{--}0.017 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 2050, which is about half the rate of increase in CO_2 forcing of $0.025\text{--}0.035 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 2050 from the mid-range RCP scenarios, which illustrates how large the HFC contribution could become compared to other forcing agents if there are no controls.

With an earlier HFC phaseout in 2020, a significant bank and accumulation in the atmosphere would be avoided. Their contribution to radiative forcing then always remains small, and in 2050 it is smaller than the current forcing of HFCs of about 0.02 W m^{-2} (Velders et al., 2012).

6 Committed climate forcing of HFC banks

The buildup of the HFC banks is shown in Fig. 2, and the HFC contribution to radiative forcing is depicted in Fig. 4 for the reference scenario and scenarios with a phaseout

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in production. The potential additional effects of collection and destruction of the HFC banks on reductions in radiative forcing are further illustrated in Fig. 5 and Table S1. The effect of destroying the bank is initially zero, increases almost immediately as some of the banks would have been released and then decreases rapidly. If the banks are not destroyed, the HFCs would be emitted from them in about decade, and the corresponding contribution to the atmospheric abundance would decrease according to the lifetimes of the HFCs. For example, if the bank is allowed to grow unabated until 2050 it reaches 39–64 GtCO₂eq in our baseline scenarios. If destroyed instantaneously in 2050, the radiative forcing is reduced by 0.09–0.14 Wm⁻² around 2060 and 0.03–0.05 Wm⁻² in 2100, relative to the scenario in which the HFCs are gradually emitted from the bank but in which production is eliminated. It is evident that in a scenario in which the bank destruction starts earlier, the size of the banks is smaller, as is the effect of the destruction on the radiative forcing. These reductions in radiative forcing can also be viewed as the radiative forcing that arises from the post-2020, -2030, -2040, and -2050 banks if the banks were not collected and destroyed, relative to the scenarios with only a production phaseout in the same years.

Figures 4 and 5 show that the maximum reduction in radiative forcing is obtained with both a production phaseout and collection and destruction of the bank. In a hypothetical scenario where a production phaseout and bank destruction occurs in 2050, the radiative forcing decrease from 2050 to 2070 is 0.15–0.24 Wm⁻², with equal contributions from the production phaseout and bank destruction. By 2100, the radiative forcing reduces to 0.04–0.06 Wm⁻², with the production phaseout contributing most of the change, about 0.19–0.29 Wm⁻² and the bank destruction only 0.03–0.05 Wm⁻². The relatively greater importance of the production phaseout by 2100 is because once production is eliminated in 2050, there are not a lot of HFCs remaining in the atmosphere from what was in the bank in 2050. Without additional production from 2050 on, nothing further gets added to the bank after then.

The effects on the radiative forcing of the production phaseout and bank destruction would be smaller when using other scenarios that have lower future HFC emissions as

banks. In that case, the accessibility of the banks is important. Halocarbons in foams are harder and more costly to collect and destroy than those present in refrigeration and AC applications (UNEP, 2009b), but foams make up only a small fraction (10–15%) of the total projected HFC bank. Also, it should be noted that the HFC banks are dispersed across the globe to a much greater extent than are the HFC production facilities, impacting the relative ease of adopting a capture and destruction approach.

8 Conclusions

The Montreal Protocol entered into force in the late 1980s, when most of the regulated chlorofluorocarbon (CFC) use occurred in rapid-release applications such as spray cans, while current uses of the hydrofluorocarbon (HFC) substitutes for CFCs have shifted to applications where the gases are contained for years, or banked, in refrigeration and air conditioning equipment. We showed that this transition has unrecognized policy implications. The buildup of HFC banks represents an unseen commitment to further climate change after production of the chemicals ends unless the banks are collected and destroyed. We showed that earlier phaseouts of HFCs would provide greater benefits for climate change (by as much as 40%) than suggested by previous estimates, because of reduction of the banks.

Supplementary material related to this article is available online at <http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/13/32989/2013/acpd-13-32989-2013-supplement.pdf>.

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Table 1. Main applications of CFCs up to about 1990 and of HCFCs and HFCs currently.

Applications	CFCs	HCFCs	HFCs
Short banking times (< 1 yr)			
Aerosol propellant	CFC-11		HFC-134a
	CFC-12		HFC-152a
	CFC-113		HFC-227ea
Cleaning agent (solvent)	CFC-113	HCFC-141b	HFC-43-10mee
		HCFC-225ca	
		HCFC-225cb	
Open cell foam blowing	CFC-11	HCFC-141b	HFC-134a
	CFC-113	HCFC-142b	HFC-152a
		HCFC-22	
Medium banking times (1 to 10 yr)			
Refrigeration and stationary air conditioning	CFC-11	HCFC-22	HFC-23 ^{a,b}
	CFC-12		HFC-32 ^a
	CFC-114		HFC-125 ^a
	CFC-115		HFC-134a ^a
			HFC-143a ^a
Mobile air conditioning	CFC-12	HCFC-123	HFC-134a
			HFC-23
Fire extinguishing			HFC-125
			HFC-227ea
Long Banking times (> 10 yr)			
Closed cell foam blowing	CFC-11	HCFC-141b	HFC-134a
	CFC-12	HCFC-142b	HFC-245fa
		HCFC-22	HFC-365mfc

^a Mainly used in blends.

^b The largest emissions of HFC-23 occur as a byproduct of HCFC-22 production. Such emissions are not taken into account in the scenarios discussed here.

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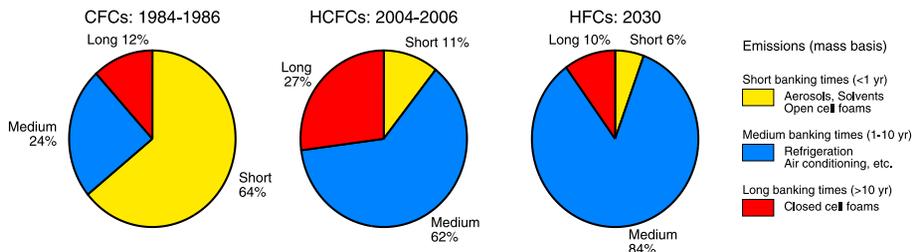


Fig. 1. Contributions of different types of applications to the emissions (mass basis) of CFCs, HCFCs, and of HFCs. The applications differ in the delay times between production and emission (banking times, see Table 1). The CFCs and HCFCs emissions (AFEAS, 2009) are shown for those years when they were used extensively and reductions in their emission were not affected much by Montreal Protocol regulations. HFC emissions are the average of the upper and lower range scenarios for 2030 from Velders et al. (2009).

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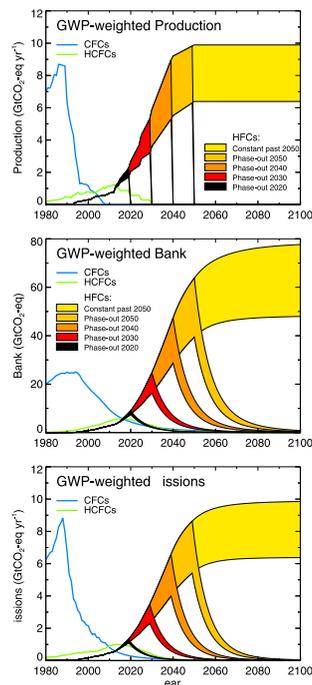


Fig. 2. GWP-weighted production, bank, and emissions of halocarbons and their contributions to radiative forcing for the period 1980 to 2100. Calculated direct GWP-weighted data (100 yr time horizon) and associated radiative forcing values are shown for the baseline scenarios of the CFCs and HCFCs (WMO, 2011) and the upper and lower ranges of the HFC scenarios from Velders et al. (2009). Four additional scenarios are shown in which there is a global phaseout in production of HFCs in 2020, 2030, 2040, or 2050. The GWPs used here are those used in the reference scenarios, i.e. of WMO (2011) for the CFCs and HCFCs, and IPCC (2007) for the HFCs. Radiative forcing values represent net changes from the start of the industrial era (ca. 1750) to present.

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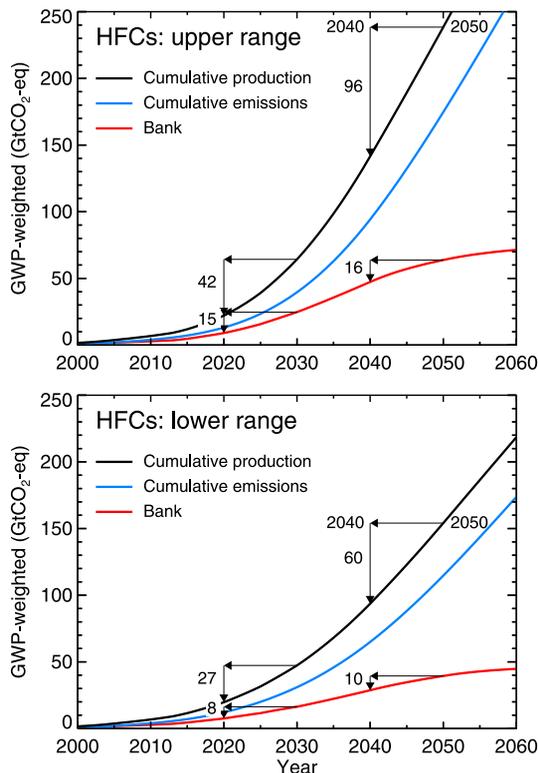


Fig. 3. Cumulative GWP-weighted production and emission and instantaneous GWP-weighted bank of the HFC upper and lower range scenarios of Velders et al. (2009). The cumulative production equals the sum of the cumulative emission and the bank. The arrows illustrate two examples of the climate benefits of an earlier phaseout in terms of both avoided emissions and reduced banks.

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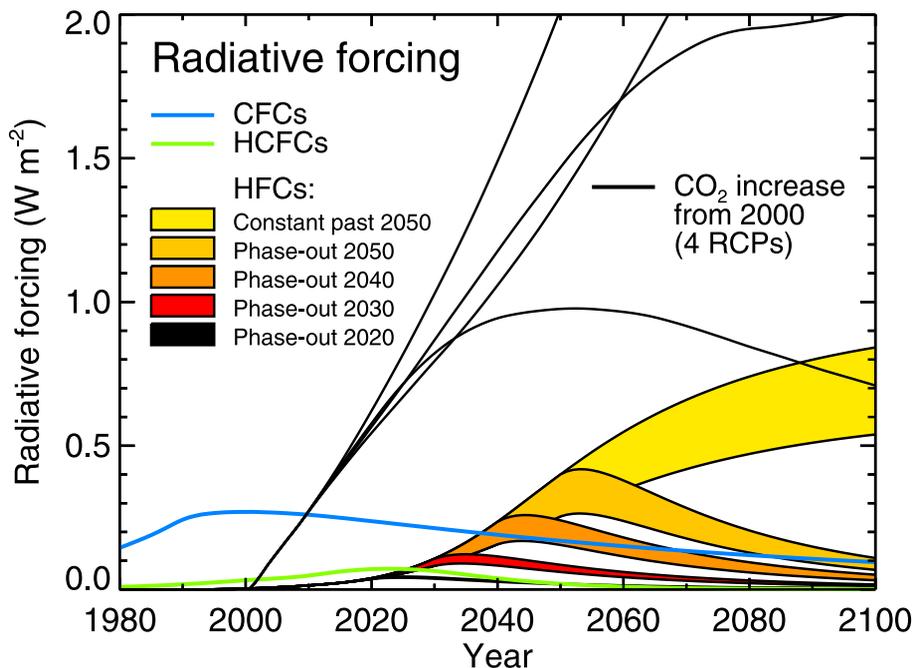


Fig. 4. Radiative forcing of halocarbons for the period 1980 to 2100 and increase in CO₂ radiative forcing from 2000. The radiative forcings of halocarbons are shown for the baseline scenarios of the CFCs and HCFCs from WMO (2011) and the upper and lower ranges of the HFC scenarios from Velders et al. (2009). Four additional scenarios are shown in which there is a global production phaseout of HFCs in 2020, 2030, 2040, or 2050, as in Fig. 2. No bank destruction is assumed. For CO₂ the radiative increases relative to 2000 are shown for the four RCP scenarios (Meinshausen et al., 2011). The radiative forcing values represent net changes from the start of the industrial era (ca. 1750) to present.

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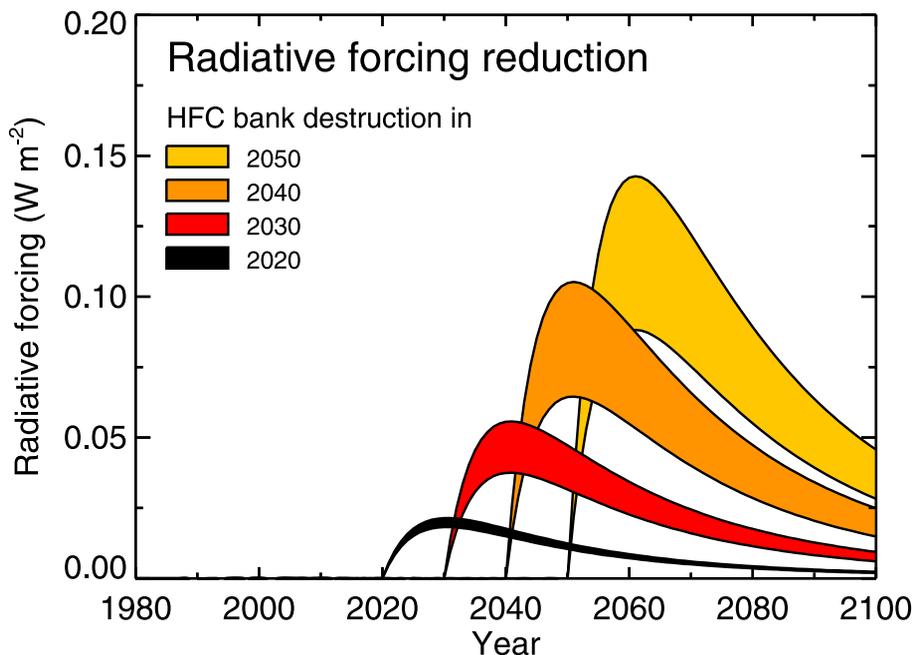


Fig. 5. Reductions in radiative forcing from destruction of the HFC banks in 2020, 2030, 2040, or 2050 relative to the case with only a production phaseout in that same year. This is equivalent to the radiative forcing contribution from the HFC bank post-2020, -2030, -2040, and -2050 in the production phaseout scenarios. This reduction plus the production phaseout gives the maximum possible effect, i.e. the zero emissions scenario. The ranges correspond to the upper and lower HFC reference scenarios from Velders et al. (2009).