# Emissions Patterns In An Industrialized State: Overlapping Legacies of Time, Space, Climate, Geography, Poverty And Race

Alexander Kolker<sup>1</sup> and Dallon Weathers<sup>2</sup>

 $^{1}$ Louisiana Universities Marine Consortium  $^{2}$ Delta Geo-Marine

November 30, 2022

#### Abstract

Understanding interactions among greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, air pollution, race, and poverty is critical to developing strategies to slow climate warming, and is socially important as large GHG-emitting facilities often occur in poor and historically-marginalized communities. We examined such patterns in the American South, where a multi-centennial history of race and poverty coincides with a petroleum and petrochemical industry that is >100 yr old using open-access data to quantify emissions on a 0.10 x 0.10 scale annually from 1970 to the mid-2010s. 26-55% of Louisiana's emissions of several dominant GHGs and air pollutants are concentrated along the Mississippi River Industrial Corridor, which is < 5% of the state's area. Despite some statewide emission reductions, fluxes in this corridor, and several parishes with large Black populations, have reduced more slowly or increased, raising environmental justice concerns. Methods herein provide a blueprint for future studies, particularly in marginalized communities, where limited scientific resources have hindered efforts to understand how climate change, air pollution and equity interact.

1	In Review At PLOS Climate
2	
3	
4	
5	Emissions Patterns In An Industrialized State:
6	Overlapping Legacies of Time, Space, Climate, Geography, Poverty And Race
7	
8	
9	
10	
11	Alexander S. Kolker <sup>1*</sup> , H. Dallon Weathers <sup>2</sup> ,
12	<sup>1</sup> Louisiana Universities Marine Consortium
13	<sup>2</sup> Delta Geo-Marine
14	
15	
16	*Corresponding author
17	Email: akolker@lumcon.edu (ASK)
18	
19	Both authors contributed equally to the work.
20	
21	

# 1 ABSTRACT

2 Understanding interactions among greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, air 3 pollution, race, and poverty is critical to developing strategies to slow climate warming, 4 and is socially important as large GHG-emitting facilities often occur in poor and historically-marginalized communities. We examined such patterns in the American 5 6 South, where a multi-centennial history of race and poverty coincides with a petroleum 7 and petrochemical industry that is >100 yr old using open-access data to quantify emissions on a 0.1° x 0.1° scale annually from 1970 to the mid-2010s. 26-55% of 8 9 Louisiana's emissions of several dominant GHGs and air pollutants are concentrated 10 along the Mississippi River Industrial Corridor, which is < 5% of the state's area. Despite 11 some statewide emission reductions, fluxes in this corridor, and several parishes with 12 large Black populations, have reduced more slowly or increased, raising environmental 13 justice concerns. Methods herein provide a blueprint for future studies, particularly in marginalized communities, where limited scientific resources have hindered efforts to 14 understand how climate change, air pollution and equity interact. 15

16

# 17 INTRODUCTION

The need to understand spatial and temporal interactions among greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, air quality hazards, race, and poverty is one the most pressing research needs today [1–4]. This knowledge is critical to developing effective strategies reduce GHG emissions and slow the impacts of climate change.[5] Addressing this issue reflects a growing recognition that the overlap between greenhouse gasses, air pollution and demographics is a moral issue and a mitigation issue, as many large
greenhouse emitting facilities occur in historically marginalized communities, including
those with ethnic minorities, and impoverished individuals [6–8]. One place to
understand these interactions is the American South, and particularly Louisiana, where
a multi-centennial history of race and poverty coincides with an oil, gas, and
petrochemical industry that is over a century old [9–12].

7 Here we examine spatial and temporal patterns in emissions of greenhouse 8 gasses and common air pollutants, and demographic changes for Louisiana and 9 Mississippi since 1970. These neighboring states have similar social histories, are 10 relatively similar in geographic size, and have relatively similar demographics (Fig. 1, 11 Table 1). However, Louisiana has a large energy and petrochemical sector, allowing 12 one to guantitatively analyze contrasting emission patterns in an industrial and nonindustrial state. Communities surrounding industrial facilities in Louisiana are often 13 14 located near historic Black and poor communities, raising concerns about health impacts that have been highlighted by the Environmental Justice community [10,13,14], 15 16 the United Nations' High Commissioner for Human Rights [15], and at the highest levels 17 of the U.S. government [16].

18

19

20

21

22

	Louis	iana	Mississippi		
Total Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	135,	382	125,443		
Land Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	112,	927	121,607		
Water Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	21,4	l55	3,940		
	1970	2019	1970	2019	
Total Population	3,643,180	4,648,674	2,216,912	2,976,149	
% White	70.1	62.2	63.0	58.4	
% Black	29.6	32.2	37.6	37.7	
Median Income	\$46,552.46	\$63,572	\$37,532.54	\$57,008	
(2019 US Dollars)					
% Families In Poverty 21.5 14		14.5	28.9	15.5	

1 Table 1. Basic Table 1: Basic Attributes of Lo	ouisiana and Mississippi
--	--------------------------

2

3

Figure 1: Overview maps of Louisiana and Mississippi. A. Overview map of the 4 region, with Louisiana outlined in green, Mississippi outlined in blue, and the 5 6 Mississippi River Industrial Corridor outlined in red and the Mississippi River 7 marked in white. 1. City of Shreveport, LA. 2. City of Jackson, MS. 3. City of Lake Charles, LA. 4. Location of specific communities in the Mississippi River 8 9 Industrial Corridor mentioned; left to right- Romeville, Wallace and Reserve, LA. 10 5. City of Baton Rouge, LA. 6. City of New Orleans, LA. 7. City of Pascagoula, MS. 11 B. Map of parishes in Louisiana and counties in Mississippi. Data Source: Google 12 Earth and census.gov This analysis used multiple open access federal and international data sources, 13 14 including the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR)[17]. This 15 inventory provides global emissions for the major greenhouse gasses (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, and 16 N<sub>2</sub>O) and major air pollutants (PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, Hg, SO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and non-methane volatile organic carbon -NMVOCs, and Black Carbon- BC) on a 0.1° x 0.1° scale for 17

each year from 1970 to the mid-2010s. (GHG data are available to 2018, most air

1 pollutants are available 2015- except Hg and some NMVOCs, which are available to 2 2012). CO<sub>2</sub> is further broken down by EDGAR into short-cycle CO<sub>2</sub> (written as 3 CO<sub>2</sub>excel, which is largely fossil fuel combustion), and organic CO<sub>2</sub> from biomass 4 burning (written here as CO<sub>2</sub>org). These data are compared to other data of 5 greenhouse gas emissions, including greenhouse gas fluxes from facilities, provided by 6 the US Environmental Protection Agency, and metrics of poverty and race compiled by 7 the US Census Bureau. This forensic approach, utilizing EDGAR's inventory, helps 8 address one issue that has long hindered research into air quality in poor and 9 marginalized communities like those in Louisiana: a dearth of financial resources has hindered data collection, which has hindered efforts to understand quantify emission 10 11 fluxes and their societal impact. This multi-decadal analysis can aid future efforts to 12 forensically determine environmental health exposures of underserved communities, 13 particularly those who are understudied because they have been historically 14 marginalized.

Overall, results indicate that 26-55% of Louisiana's emissions of two dominant 15 greenhouse gasses (CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O) and several major air pollutants (NO<sub>X</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, HG, 16 17 NMVOCs, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, BC, CO) are concentrated within a corridor along the lower Mississippi River that amounts to less than 5% of the state's area (Table 2). This 18 19 contrasts with Mississippi, which has a more diffuse pattern of emissions of greenhouse 20 gasses and most air pollutants. One notable exception is NH<sub>3</sub>- which is more abundant 21 in Mississippi, likely due to agricultural emissions. Statewide temporal trends in 22 emissions appear to be impacted by local and national factors, including trends in 23 energy utilization, domestic fossil fuel production, and environmental regulations. Yet

1	trends at smaller spatial scales (e.g. parish/county level, and along Mississippi River
2	corridor) sometimes contrasted with statewide patterns, highlighting areas of concern
3	for community health and well being. The magnitude of Louisiana's emissions are
4	potentially of global concern, accounting for ~ 0.5% of total anthropogenic $CO_2$
5	emissions, and while also representing some of the most concentrated emissions in the
6	country that is one of the world's largest GHG and air pollutant emitters [18-20]. These
7	methods provide a strategic blueprint to identify the intersection between among air
8	quality concerns, carbon emissions, and social inequities, reflecting a growing global
9	recognition that reducing carbon emissions and can provide other benefits to at risk
10	communities [21,22].

11 Table 2: Emissions ranges and percentages for key greenhouse gases and air pollutants

12	in Louisiana	. Mississippi.	and the M	lississippi	<b>River Industria</b>	l Corridor
		, micelee.ppi,				

			Percent Of		Ratio of
	Louisiana	Industrial	Louisiana's	Mississippi	Louisiana
	Emissions	Corridor	Emissions In	Emissions	Emissions to
	Range	Range (metric	Industrial	Range	Mississippi
	(metric tons)	tons)	Corridor	(metric tons)	Emissions
CO <sub>2</sub> tot	1.2 x 10 <sup>8</sup> - 1.9 x 10 <sup>8</sup>	5.5 x 10 <sup>7</sup> - 1.0 x 10 <sup>8</sup>	45 - 55%	6.3 x 10 <sup>7</sup> - 9.3 x 10 <sup>7</sup>	1.69 - 2.37
CH <sub>4</sub>	3.5 x 10 <sup>5</sup> - 4.4 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	8.0 x10 <sup>4</sup> - 4.6 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	13 - 18%	2.9 x 10⁵- 4.5 x 10⁵	0.98 - 1.36
Hg	6.9 - 1.3	0.50 - 2.6	35 - 41%	1.1 - 1.5	1.11- 4.92
N <sub>2</sub> 0	1.9 x 10 <sup>4</sup> - 3.9 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	5.8 x 10 <sup>3</sup> - 1.3 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	29 - 37%	1.5 x 10 <sup>4</sup> -2.1 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	1.22-2.10
NH <sub>3</sub>	2.7 x 10 <sup>4</sup> - 4.2 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	1.7 x 10 <sup>3</sup> - 4.0 x 10 <sup>3</sup>	5 - 12%	3.6 x 10 <sup>4</sup> - 8.6 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	0.48 - 0.60
NMVOC	3.9x 10 <sup>5</sup> - 2.8 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	7.9 x 10 <sup>4</sup> - 1.0x 10 <sup>5</sup>	26 - 33%	1.7 x 10 <sup>5</sup> - 2.9 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	1.33 - 1.48
NO <sub>x</sub>	4.8 10 <sup>5</sup> - 3.1 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	8.3x10 <sup>4</sup> - 9.5 x10 <sup>4</sup>	33 -45%	2.0 x 10 <sup>5</sup> -3.5 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	.1.33 - 1.74
SO <sub>2</sub>	7.9 x 10 <sup>5</sup> - 1.3 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	7.0 x 10 <sup>4</sup> - 4.2 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	44 - 55%	8.8 x 10 <sup>4</sup> - 6.2 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	1.22- 1.96
pm2.5	5.4 x 10 <sup>4</sup> - 4.1 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	1.1 x 10 <sup>4</sup> - 2.4 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	26 - 45%	2.7 x10 <sup>4</sup> - 3.73 x10 <sup>4</sup>	1.25 - 1.76

1

# 2 Data and methods

#### 3 Emissions data sources

Emissions data for this project were obtained from the Emissions Database for
Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR;

6 https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/emissions data and maps), which is an independent 7 database is designed to track global emissions [20,23] [24]. EDGAR emissions of 8 greenhouse gasses and air pollutants are calculated using a method that employs 9 activity data and emissions factors; activity data are the magnitude of a process or 10 activity, and the emissions factors are the quantity of gas emitted per unit of activity. For 11 example, greenhouse gas emissions from fuel consumption are based on the liters of 12 fuel consumed and stoichiometric relationships for the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> emitted per each liter of fuel. Emissions from pipelines are estimated from leakage size and leakage rates 13 per unit length of pipelines. The data inputs come from major international sources, 14 15 such as the International Energy Agency, and the Food and Agriculture Organization 16 (FAO). In the United States, the US Geological Survey and the National Oceanic and 17 Atmospheric Administration provided inputs, while globally private sources like BP PLC 18 and the Global Gas Flaring Reduction Partnership also contributed data [17,20]. EDGAR emission's data are distributed spatially based on a wide array 19 20 geographic and demographic data, such as population size, locations of electricity generation, fuel consumption, agricultural usage, and oil and gas infrastructure. The 21 22 result is a series of maps with key atmospheric constituents with a spatial resolution of

0.1 x 0.1 degree. A full description of data generation methods are available at multiple
 sources [17,20].

3 The EDGAR database provides a globally comprehensive measure of emissions 4 for the major greenhouse gasses (CO<sub>2</sub> N<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub>). CO<sub>2</sub> is broken down in two 5 components, short cycle CO<sub>2</sub> (abbreviated here as CO<sub>2</sub>-excel) which is mostly fossil 6 fuel emissions and  $CO_2$ -org, which is short-term biomass burning [17]. These two are 7 also added to yield total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions- CO<sub>2</sub>-tot. The dataset does not include other 8 parts of the carbon cycle, such as photosynthesis or natural respiration. EDGAR also 9 contains data on the fluxes of major air pollutants, including CO, NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, non methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOC), organic carbon (OC), black carbon 10 11 (BC), mercury (Hg), coarse particulate matter ( $PM_{10}$ ) and fine particulate matter ( $PM_{2.5}$ ). 12 NMVOC data are further broken down into individual volatile organics compounds, of 13 which benzene and formaldehyde are reported here. Mercury (Hg) fluxes presented 14 here include data for the three major categories prevalent along the Gulf of Mexico; Hg from combined industry and power, Hg from other industrial sources (including oil 15 16 refineries) and residential sources, and Hg from cement production. All datasets begin 17 in 1970 and carry into the 21st century. Greenhouse gasses are calculated up to 2018, most major air pollutants are calculated up to 2015, while Hg, benzene and 18 19 formaldehyde are calculated up to 2012. 20 Maps of greenhouse gasses and air pollutants based on the raw EDGAR data, 21 are presented in Figure 2. Figure 3 presents changes in greenhouse gas emissions and

air pollutant fluxes relative to the year 1970.

1	Figure 2. Maps of annual fluxes the major greenhouse gasses and air pollutants
2	discussed in this paper, as determined from EDGAR.
3	
4	Figure 3. Maps of the difference in the annual fluxes of greenhouse gasses and
5	air pollutants from their value in 1970, as determined from EDGAR data.
6	
7	To further understand industrial sources of emissions, we developed maps of
8	greenhouse gas emissions from facilities, using self reported data provided to the US
9	EPA as mandated by US Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program
10	(https://ghgdata.epa.gov/ghgp/main.do). The data source is referred to as the Facility
11	Level GHG Emissions Data Tool, or FLIGHT [25]. FLIGHT contains self-reported data
12	for all facilities that emit over 25,000 metric tons per year of carbon dioxide equivalent
13	(CO2e), while many facilities that emit less than this threshold also report. Data is
14	available for the period 2011-2020. Presented in Figure 4 are data for the year 2015,
15	the most recent year for which all greenhouse gas and air pollutant data is available
16	(except for Hg, formaldehyde and benzene.)
17	
18	Figure 4. Data on emissions from large facilities, as obtained from the US
19	Environmental Protection Agency Facility Level Information on Greenhouse
20	gasses Tool (FLIGHT) for the year 2015. This year was chosen as it is the most
21	recent year for which all EDGAR data, except Hg, benzene and formaldehyde are
22	available.

# 1 Emissions calculations

Total annual fluxes of emissions of EDGAR data were calculated for each parameter for each year for several spatial regions. These regions include the states of Louisiana and Mississippi, and each parish or county in those states. (Parish and county are the equivalent level of governance, and the nomenclature difference reflects differing Francophone and Anglophone histories of Louisiana and Mississippi).

7 Additionally, we calculated emissions in a corridor in the State of Louisiana 8 along the Mississippi River that extends from the start of the Mississippi River's largest 9 distributary at the Old River Control Structure to the town of Phoenix, and extended 10 10 km in each direction (Fig 1). This corridor is an area of longstanding interest; it has 11 many of Louisiana's industrial facilities, the state's largest two metropolitan areas (New 12 Orleans and Baton Rouge), as is also a long-standing area of concern for the health 13 and environmental justice communities [14,26,27]. While definitions of this area, in this 14 paper termed the, "Mississippi River Industrial Corridor," have varied from source to source, the region chosen here reflects well known geographic patterns, and is also 15 16 consistent with spatial scale of the EDGAR data (10 km is approximately the width of 17 one EDGAR grid square).

For each region, we calculated the annual flux from EDGAR grid squares within the region, converting data available as kg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> to metric tons region<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> using standard mathematics. In cases where EDGAR grid squares spanned more than one polygon, values were prorated by the percentage of grid square within each polygon. We used these annual fluxes to develop time series for each emissions category for the two states and the Mississippi River industrial corridor, and these data are presented in

Figure 5. Data for each county/parish are available in the supplemental data section.
These calculations were performed using code that is provided and documented in the
supplemental material (S1, S2, S3). Lists of annual emissions for Louisiana, Mississippi
and the Mississippi River Industrial Corridor are also presented in the supplemental
material (S4, S5, and S6 respectively), as is the original data from the EPA FLIGHT
database (S7).

7

Figure 5. Time series showing the change in the annual flux of each greenhouse
gas and air pollutant for Louisiana, Mississippi, and Louisiana's Mississippi River
Industrial Corridor, as determined from the EDGAR data.

11

#### 12 **Demographic data sources**

13 To understand how patterns of emissions are related to demographics, we obtained 14 public domain demographic data for the states of Louisiana and Mississippi from the US Census 15 Bureau, the primary US-federal source for such information. Used in this paper primarily is data 16 from the Decennial Census, which is supplemented with the information from the American 17 community survey for the year 2015, and for poverty data for the year 2010, (in 5-year 18 averages) as per census bureau data collection protocols. To assist in obtaining these data, we 19 used the service Social Explorer, a third-party website that compiles US census data for ease of 20 downloading [28].

Data used comprise the percent Black alone, and the percentage White alone. In the
American deep south, the vast majority (88-99%) of people are typically classified as either
White or Black alone. Poverty data is expressed as the percentage of families living beneath the
US-federally defined poverty line, which in 2015 was \$20,090 for a family of four. Data are

1	presented as maps of race and poverty at the parish/county level for the years 1970, 1980,
2	1990, 2000, 2010, and 2015 (Fig. 6). These data are also presented as showing the changes in
3	race and poverty for the periods 1970-1990 and 1990 - 2015 (Fig. 7).
4	
5	Figure 6. Maps showing the percentage of Black residents for each parish/county
6	as determined from the US Census. Left, time series for years 1970-2015. Center
7	top, change map, 2015 vs 1970. Right. Annotated map for the year 2015.
8	
9	Figure 7. Maps showing the percentage of families living below the poverty level
10	for each parish/county as determined from the US Census. Left, time series for
11	years 1970-2015. Center top, change map, 2015 vs 1970. Right. Annotated map for
12	the year 2015.
13	

# 14 **Results**

### 15 Spatial patterns of emissions

Data from EDGAR provide a granular view of emissions in Louisiana, Mississippi and across the region, allowing one to observe the impacts of industrialization, urbanization, agriculture, and in some cases roadways and shipping corridors as sources (Fig. 2). Easily visible in these data are cities and industrial areas (large concentrated areas of emissions), major roadways (linear areas of emissions connecting cities) and some agricultural areas (large areas of moderately concentrated emissions).

1 In Louisiana, one key region of emissions is the Mississippi River industrial 2 corridor, objectively defined in this paper as a 400 km reach (including meanders) 3 extending from the Old River Control Structure to Phoenix, LA, and extending 10 km in 4 each direction from the river (Fig. 1, See Methods). Here, emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, 5 CO, NO<sub>X</sub>, BC, PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and Hg are at or near their highest levels in the state of 6 Louisiana. Southwest Louisiana, including Calcasieu Parish and the Sabine River 7 corridor along the Texas Border (Figure 2), also stands out as a region with high 8 emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>, NMVOCs, BC, PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and Hg. There are hotspots of 9 some constituents, including CO<sub>2</sub> (both short-cycle and organic), CH<sub>4</sub>, and NMVOCs in northwest Louisiana, while CH<sub>4</sub> also shows a broad diffuse pattern in southwest 10 11 Louisiana. In the neighboring state of Mississippi, there were fewer total emissions and 12 fewer areas of highly concentrated emissions. Two notable exceptions to this pattern 13 were NH<sub>3</sub>, which is concentrated in central Mississippi, and  $N_2O$ , which is present along 14 the upper Mississippi River, Louisiana's coastal zone, and to a lesser extent along the Red River. 15

Maps of temporal changes in emissions (Fig. 3) show some large spatial-scale
reductions around cities, and broad spatial-scale increases in NH<sub>3</sub> across central
Mississippi, as well as meso-scale changes (increases and decreases) along the
Mississippi River, Sabine River, and near Lake Charles Louisiana. Some small spatial
scale changes (single pixel - 0.1° x 0.1°) are also apparent in these data- for example,
NO<sub>x</sub> increased along the Mississippi River between New Orleans and Baton Rouge, and
CO<sub>2</sub>excel increased at the southern end of Bayou Lafourche.

1 An additional metric of greenhouse gas emissions is the US EPA's Facility Level 2 Information On Greenhouse gasses Tool (FLIGHT; Fig. 4), which provides self-reported 3 emissions of greenhouse gasses from all facilities that emit more than 25,000 metric 4 tons of carbon dioxide equivalent (CO<sub>2</sub>e) per year. These data show similar spatial 5 patterns of emissions- particularly in Louisiana, where the lower Mississippi River 6 corridor and the Lake Charles/Calcasieu Parish region stand out as areas of 7 concentrated emissions. Other areas of large facilities include northwest Louisiana, and 8 to a lesser extent around smaller cities including Pascagoula, MS and Jackson, MS. 9

# 10 Temporal trends in emissions: Louisiana

11 Figure 5 presents statewide temporal trends from 1970 to 2018 for greenhouse gasses and air pollutants of health concern in Louisiana, Mississippi and the 12 Mississippi River Industrial Corridor. Annual total CO<sub>2</sub> (CO<sub>2</sub>tot; CO<sub>2</sub>excel + CO<sub>2</sub>org) 13 14 emissions for Louisiana ranged between 119 million and 187 million metric tons, and followed a quasi-sinusoidal trend, with a low in 1983, a high in 1998, and a 2018 value 15 16 that was over 10 million metric tons greater than the 1970 value. The overwhelming 17 majority of  $CO_2$  emissions were  $CO_2$  excel, which is mostly fossil fuel consumption.[17] 18 Methane emissions in Louisiana ranged between 352,000 and 463,000 metric tons per 19 year, and also followed a guasi-sinusoidal pattern, with the high reached in 1981, the low reached in 2009 and the 2018 value near the higher end of this range. Louisiana's 20 21 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions exhibited a quasi-asymptotic trend, decreasing from 38,000 metric tons per year in 1979, and reaching a lower plateau near 20,000 metric tons per year in the 22 2010s. 23

1 Louisiana's statewide SO<sub>2</sub> emissions exhibited a slight increase in the early 2 1970s, reaching a high of 768,000 metric tons in 1978, followed by a quasi-asymptotic 3 decrease that reached a low of 132,000 metric tons in 2015. NO<sub>x</sub> emissions ranged 4 between 311,000 and 475,000 metric tons, with higher values in the 1970s, between 5 1985 and 2000, and after 2010. Statewide NH<sub>3</sub> increased from 21,000 metric tons in 6 1970 to nearly 42,000 metric tons in 2006, and stabilized near that level thereafter. Broadly speaking, NMVOCs exhibited a quasi-asymptotic statewide decrease in 7 8 Louisiana, from > 386,000 metric tons in 1970 to 247,000 metric tons in 2009, followed 9 by a slight increase afterwards. Also presented in Figure 5 are statewide trends in 10 benzene (which generally decreased statewide) and formaldehyde, which experienced 11 a quasi-asymptotic pattern. Statewide, PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and BC generally fluctuated 12 around a mean, though PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> decreased in later years while BC increased slightly. Statewide Hg emissions generally trend downward from over 6 metric tons per 13 year in the early 1970s, to between 1.2 and 1.8 metric tons per year in 2010s. 14 15

# 16 Temporal trends in emissions: Louisiana's Mississippi River

17 Industrial Corridor

The Mississippi River industrial corridor accounted for a considerable portion of Louisiana's total emissions. Over the periods for which data are available for each constituent, this region accounted for 46.2 to 55.1% of CO<sub>2</sub>tot, 13.7 to 17.1% of CH<sub>4</sub>, and 28.8 to 37.1% of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. The region also accounted for 32.6 to 44.8% of NO<sub>x</sub>, 5.4 to 11.8% of NH<sub>3</sub>, 45.2 to 55% of SO<sub>2</sub>, and 25.6 to 32.8% of NMVOC emissions. In terms of specific NMVOCs, this corridor was responsible for 23 to 33% of

1 statewide benzene emissions and 20 to 29% of formaldehyde emissions. The region 2 was responsible for > 30% of BC emissions, > 24% of  $PM_{10}$  emissions, > 26% of  $PM_{2.5}$ 3 emissions, 35 to 41% of Hg emissions in Louisiana. Doubling the width of the area (20 4 km on each side of the river), resulted in only a modest increase (5 to 20% for most 5 constituents), further demonstrating the concentrated nature of emissions in this 6 corridor (S6). Also calculated are emissions totals for each parish/county. These data 7 are presented in the supplemental online material, and in some cases differ from 8 statewide trends.

9

# 10 Temporal trends in emissions: Mississippi

11 Mississippi's greenhouse gas fluxes exhibited similar statewide temporal patterns in emissions as Louisiana, though often with different magnitudes and rates of change. 12 For example, statewide CO<sub>2</sub>tot emissions in Mississippi also fluctuated in a quasi-13 14 sinusoidal pattern, though Mississippi's emissions were lower than Louisiana's (85 15 million vs 146 million metric tons in 2018). N2O statewide emissions also experienced a 16 quasi-asymptotic decreasing trend, though Louisiana's starting magnitude, and 17 percentage of decrease is greater. One area of difference; Mississippi's CH<sub>4</sub> statewide 18 emissions gradually increased from 1970 to 2010, whereas Louisiana's CH<sub>4</sub> emissions 19 were quasi-sinusoidal, and higher in magnitude. 20 For many air pollutants there were similar trends in the two states, though fluxes

21 were generally higher in Louisiana than Mississippi. For example, SO<sub>2</sub> trends were

22 generally negative in the two states, though total fluxes were greater in Louisiana.

23 NMVOCs exhibited statewide declines in both Louisiana and Mississippi, though

1 Louisiana's fluxes are typically about 1.4 times more extreme than Mississippi's. 2 Furthermore, while statewide PM<sub>2.5</sub> fluxes in Louisiana declined slightly, Mississippi's 3 statewide fluxes increased slightly. Mercury fluxes in Mississippi were largely 4 consistent over time, (~25% variation between 1970 and 2012), which contrasts with 5 Louisiana's decline from 6.8 to 1.2 metric tons per year between 1978 and 2012. An 6 additional contrast; NH<sub>3</sub> fluxes were generally greater in Mississippi than Louisiana. 7 Also noteworthy, certain parishes in Louisiana and counties in Mississippi had trends 8 that contrasted with the corresponding statewide pattern, the significance of which is 9 elaborated on in the discussion section.

10

#### 11 Spatial and temporal patterns in race

12 Overall, the largest geographic area with a predominantly Black population is the 13 "Mississippi Delta (Fig. 6)." This is the region on both the Louisiana and Mississippi sides of the 14 Mississippi River (though larger on the Mississippi side of the river) that extends from about 50 15 km north of Baton Rouge to the northern edge of Mississippi. (The Mississippi Delta also 16 extends into neighboring Arkansas- not shown here. It is also different from the geologically 17 defined Mississippi River Delta that contains the wetlands of south Louisiana.) In Louisiana. 18 there are also a concentrations of Black residents along the Mississippi River Industrial Corridor, 19 the Red River corridor (which follows a NW-SE line that runs approximately from Caddo and 20 Bossier Parishes to Pointe Coupee Parish), and in the major cities. In Mississippi, in addition to 21 the Mississippi Delta, there are also large Black populations near Jackson, MS, and near the 22 state's eastern border. Mississippi and Louisiana respectively had the highest and second-23 highest percentages of Black residents of any state in the United States (37.7 and 32.2% in 24 2017).

1 In general, the percentage of White and Black residents stayed relatively constant in 2 both Louisiana and Mississippi during the period 1970-2015, with a few notable exceptions. In 3 Louisiana, there were increases in the percentage of Black residents in Orleans Parish and its 4 suburbs of Jefferson and St Bernard Parish, as well as in East Baton Rouge Parish and along 5 the Mississippi Delta. In Mississippi there was also an increase in the percentage of Black 6 residents in the Mississippi Delta. In Mississippi, there was an increase in the Black population 7 of Hinds County, where the state capital is located, and an increase in White residents in 8 neighboring Madison and Rankin counties Overall, these patterns are consistent with a picture 9 of states with relatively large endemic populations, little inward migration, and some changes in 10 the White/Black ratios in cities and their surrounding suburbs. Also notable, Mississippi and 11 Louisiana had the two highest percentage Black residents in the United States, (37.6% for 12 Mississippi 32.2.% for Louisiana in the 5-year period centered on 2015).

13

# 14 Geographic and temporal patterns in poverty

Spatial and temporal patterns in poverty follow somewhat similar patterns as the 15 16 patterns in race (Fig.7). In general, the highest poverty rates were found in the 17 Mississippi Delta in both Louisiana and Mississippi. Additional high levels of poverty 18 were found in northwestern Louisiana, south-central Louisiana, and eastern Mississippi. 19 The biggest overall temporal trend is the reduction in poverty in the Mississippi Delta, though with poverty rates in the 20-40% range in 2015, poverty rates here are still 20 21 several times the national average. In 1970, Louisinaa's poverty rate was nearly double 22 the national average (21.5% vs 10.7), while Mississippi' was almost triple the national 23 average (28.9% vs 10.7%). By 2015, statewide poverty values had decreased, but were still higher than national averages (14.3 % in Louisiana, 21.5 % in Mississippi vs 8.6%
nationally.)

3

# 4 **Discussion**

#### 5 Geographic concentration of Louisiana's greenhouse gas and air pollutant fluxes

6 Results from this study indicate that greenhouse gas and air pollutant fluxes in 7 Louisiana are concentrated in a few relatively small areas; and particularly the Mississippi River Industrial Corridor. While this corridor comprises less than 5% of 8 9 Louisiana's total area, it accounted for 26 to 55% of the emissions of two major 10 greenhouse gasses (CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O) and several major air pollutants (SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, 11 NMVOCs, BC, PM<sub>2.5</sub>; Table 2). Definitions of geographic boundaries of the industrial 12 corridor have varied in the scientific literature [26,30,31]. For example some authors 13 used a 7-parish region [32], while others used an 11-parish region [33]. These disagreements point to the need for high guality, high resolution emissions data in 14 regions where there are ample environmental health concerns [4,14,26,34]. 15

16 Results presented here indicate that high-spatial resolution data, like EDGAR 17 [17] can provide an objectively defined region where changes in emissions can be 18 tracked across both space and time [17]. The Industrial Corridor as defined here follows well established geographic patterns in the Mississippi River [29,35], and extends from 19 the Mississippi River's major distributary (i.e. the Old River Control Structure) to the 20 21 southernmost refinery along the river (Myrtle Grove, LA). This definition includes large 22 population centers and rural areas, has a width (10 km) that is comparable to an 23 EDGAR grid square [17] (0.1°), and a total length of 425 km (including meanders). This

corridor also has large communities of Black residents, contains areas with high poverty
 rates, providing opportunities to examine patterns of environmental justice quantitatively
 and qualitatively [4,26,36,37].

4

# 5 Industrial drivers of greenhouse gas emissions and air

6 quality hazards: Louisiana

7 Comparing EDGAR-derived maps of greenhouse gas and air pollutant fluxes to 8 maps of greenhouse gasses fluxes from large facilities (i.e. EPA's FLIGHT database) 9 indicates a strong overlap, particularly along the Mississippi River Industrial Corridor 10 (Fig. 8). This corridor included seven of Louisiana's top 10 GHG emitters in 2015, with 11 individual facility emissions ranging from 2.8 million to 8.0 million metric tons of CO<sub>2</sub>e 12 annually. Facilities along this reach of the Mississippi River included, but were not 13 limited to, oil refineries, fertilizer plants, iron smelters, power plants, and chemical 14 manufacturing plants [25]. Additional overlap between datasets is also noteworthy in 15 Calcasieu Parish, where there are numerous refineries and petrochemical facilities near 16 Lake Charles, LA (Figs 4, 8). These maps also allow one to identify other areas of 17 emissions hot spots, such as one associated with gas extraction in northwest Louisiana, 18 or individual large facilities such as the Brame Energy Center in Rapides Parish, LA 19 (Figs. 1,4, & 8).

Figure 8. Map showing the overlay between major greenhouse gas emissions and air pollutants, as determined from EDGAR, and greenhouse gasses fluxes from large facilities as determined from EPA's FLIGHT database.

23

### 1 Louisiana's industrial emissions: Infrastructure and

#### 2 economic factors

3 The spatial pattern of Louisiana's emissions is partially linked to the region's 4 water-based economy. The lower Mississippi River is the largest pathway for 5 waterborne commerce in the United States on a tonnage basis (S8). In 2018, the reach 6 of the river between New Orleans and Baton Rouge, (comparable to, but somewhat 7 smaller than, the industrial corridor defined in this paper) carried 381 million metric tons 8 of commerce, of which nearly 41% (157 million metric) was oil, petroleum, refined 9 products, chemical, petrochemical, and an additional 9% (38 million metric) was coal or 10 coal coke [38]. The Lake Charles waterborne pathway in Calcasieu Parish carried 52 11 million metric tons of commerce in 2018, of which over 90% were directly linked to 12 petroleum, petroleum products or petrochemicals [38]. In contrast, Mississippi's largest port, Pascagoula, carried 25 million metric tons of commerce in 2018, of which over 13 14 95% were petroleum related [38]. In addition to waterborne commerce, Louisiana has 15 extensive rail and pipeline networks that connect industrial facilities to oil and gas 16 supplies and end users across the United States. In our interpretation, this infrastructure 17 network contributes to Louisiana's distinctive emissions pattern, whereas neighboring 18 Mississippi, which otherwise is similar in land area and demographics, does not have a 19 similar network, leading to fewer facilities, fewer emissions and less concentrated 20 emissions.

To some extent, Louisiana's spatial pattern in emissions is the result of specific infrastructure siting decisions, reflecting how datasets like EDGAR and FLIGHT can reveal importance of historical events on modern activities. Most large facilities on the

Mississippi River are south of Huey P. Long Bridge on highway US-190 between Port Allen and Baton Rouge, LA. This bridge, completed in 1940, marks the northern end of the deep-draft section of the Mississippi River, and has a low air draft, both of which prevent large vessels from steaming northwards to ports in Mississippi [39]. This navigation restriction helps concentrate industrial facilities and their associated emissions along Louisiana's lower Mississippi River Industrial Corridor, and shows how decisions made decades ago impact climate and potentially health today.

8

# 9 Emissions in Louisiana: Demographic and historic factors

10 This spatial pattern is significant because the Mississippi River has a long-11 standing environmental justice concerns [10,15,16,40]. Almost all parishes/counties 12 along the Mississippi River in these two states -including both the Mississippi River 13 Industrial Corridor and the Mississippi Delta have a proportion of Black residents that is 14 higher than national averages, and many have a proportion of Black residents that is higher than corresponding state averages (Fig. 6). Results from this study show that the 15 16 Mississippi River Industrial Corridor, which accounts for about 1/4 to 1/2 of Louisiana's 17 emission of two greenhouse gasses and several air pollutants, is an area with 18 numerous Black communities. Many of the parishes in this region have a greater 19 percentage of Black residents than the state average. In contrast Calcasieu Parish, which is Louisiana's single highest emitting parish of most greenhouse gasses and air 20 21 pollutants, has a smaller percentage Black population than the statewide average. 22 While the spatial resolution of the EDGAR dataset is too coarse to examine 23 neighborhood or census-tract level emissions, where linkages between race and

exposure are often greatest [10,17,25], these maps provide a critical step forward to
 focus further studies, in Louisiana, the United States, and internationally.

3

### 4 Temporal patterns in emissions: Potential drivers

5 Temporal trends in emissions appear to be linked to regulatory and economic 6 patterns that can have either synergist or antagonist impacts on statewide and/or 7 parish-level emissions. These drivers include increased energy demand for fossil fuels 8 (which increases GHG emissions), changing air quality regulations, a shift in power 9 sources from coal and oil to gas (which can decrease emissions of certain pollutants), 10 increased extraction of gas and the development of new gas-related activities along the 11 Gulf Coast (which cause an increase in some emissions)[52–54].

12 Louisiana's CO<sub>2</sub>tot emissions illustrate some of these drivers (Fig. 5). Total  $CO_2$ 13 (and  $CO_2$ -excel) emissions fluctuated in the early 1970s, as domestic energy 14 consumption fluctuated with demand and international oil embargos [55]. These emissions decreased between 1978 and 1983, reflecting, in part, a recession in the Gulf 15 16 of Mexico's oil and gas industry. (This recession's impacts are also visible in the 17 increase in poverty rates that occurred in both Louisiana and Mississippi between 1980 18 and 1990 [Fig. 7]). CO<sub>2</sub>tot emissions increased between 1983 and 2000, reflecting 19 growing oil production in the Gulf of Mexico and associated refining in Louisiana. These emissions declined between 2000 and 2011, reflecting increases in energy efficiency 20 21 and a shift from coal and oil to gas [56], and then increased after 2011 as efficiency improvements were outweighed by an increase in total production. These findings are 22

generally consistent with a recently released inventory of greenhouse gasses for the
 State of Louisiana [56].

3 Some of these trends are reflected in sector data in the FLIGHT database[25]. According to this source, between 2011 and 2018, Louisiana's greenhouse gas 4 5 emissions from the power sector declined from 53.4 to 42.6 million metric tons of  $CO_{2e}$ . 6 reflecting the fuel shift from coal to natural gas [56]. At the same time, emissions from 7 the natural gas and petroleum systems sector (which is the production and 8 transportation of these materials), increased from 16.2 to 20.8 million metric tons of 9 CO<sub>2</sub>e, and emissions from the chemical sector increased 36.3 to 39.8 million metric tons of CO<sub>2</sub>e. 10

11 Emissions of several air pollutants decreased in Louisiana and Mississippi over 12 the time period of this analysis. Most significantly is SO<sub>2</sub>, which decreased by nearly 80% in Louisiana, Mississippi, and within the Mississippi River corridor. This decrease 13 14 likely reflects the Clean Air Act, (passed in 1970, and modified in 1990), which regulates SO<sub>2</sub>, a period of increased regulation in Louisiana during the late 1980s and early 15 1990s, and a fuel shift away from coal (which is often high in sulfur) to less sulfur-rich 16 17 fuels like gas [54,56,57]. However, the scale of decrease is smaller in the ozone precursors NO<sub>x</sub>, NMVOC and CH<sub>4</sub>. In Louisiana, NO<sub>x</sub> decreased by 20%, NMVOCs by 18 19 33%, while CH<sub>4</sub> increased by 13% over the time of this analysis. In the Industrial 20 Corridor there was a 19% decrease in NOx, NMVOCs and a 31% increase in CH<sub>4</sub>. 21 Closer parish-wide analysis shows individual counties/parishes with trends that 22 stand in contrast to statewide trends. For example, in Louisiana's Ascension parish 23 (located within the Mississippi River industrial corridor) CO<sub>2</sub>-tot emissions doubled

1 between 1970 and 2018, while N<sub>2</sub>O emissions trended upwards, and NO<sub>x</sub> values 2 increased by 50% between 1970 and 2015. This pattern is likely driven largely by the 3 CF Industries Nitrogen Plant in Ascension Parish, which increased CO<sub>2</sub>e emissions from 6.4 x 10<sup>6</sup> metric tons in 2010 to 8.7 x 10<sup>6</sup> metric tons in 2018, becoming 4 5 Louisiana's largest single greenhouse gas emitter. Another relevant contrast, in 6 Calcasieu Parish, where several large gas utilizing facilities were constructed in the 21st 7 century, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions increased by 51% between 1970 and 2018, and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions 8 increased by 59% between 1970 and 2015.

9 Patterns of NMVOCs are particularly noteworthy, as this category includes toxics, carcinogens, and ozone precursors. While Louisiana's overall NMVOC emissions 10 11 decreased by about 32% between 1970 and 2015, in the Mississippi River corridor that 12 decrease was less than 20% (Fig. 5). In some parishes, the decrease was even lessincluding St John the Baptist Parish, (3% decrease), St. James Parish (5%) and St. 13 14 Charles Parish (10%; See Supplemental Data). Furthermore, in the Mississippi River industrial corridor, emissions of CH<sub>4</sub>- both a greenhouse gas and an ozone precursor, 15 increased by 31% between 1970 and 2015, and by 36% between 1970 and 2018 in the 16 17 industrial corridor (Fig. 5). When viewed at the pixel level (Fig 2, 3), higher resolution patterns emerge, including long-term increases in NMVOCs, formaldehyde, and NOx at 18 19 individual locations along the Mississippi River corridor, likely reflecting the build-out 20 and development of particular facilities. Calcasieu Parish, another industrial center, had 21 the highest NMVOC emissions of any parish, which ranged between 22,500 and 27,400 22 metric tons per year, decreasing by only 8% between 1970 and 2015. These patterns 23 are consistent with industrialization in Louisiana; there were 143 industrial facilities that

reported emissions to the Louisiana Department of Environmental Quality (LDEQ) in
 1991; by 2019, there were 747 (LDEQ, 2021).

3

### 4 National and global significance of Louisiana's hotspots

5 Results presented here are consistent with other data indicating that Louisiana 6 has among the highest total emissions of greenhouse gas and air pollutants of any state 7 in the US, a country that is one of the world's emitters. Louisiana typically ranked in the 8 top 3 to 7 states for greenhouse gas emissions over the past 3 decades- though results 9 varied slightly with agency, methods, and whether emissions were energy-related CO<sub>2</sub> 10 emissions or multiple greenhouse gasses [56,58,59]. It also ranked high in emissions of 11 air quality hazards. The EPA's Toxic Release Inventory, which tracks emissions from 12 industrial facilities that meet certain reporting requirements, indicates that Louisiana 13 ranked between 11th and 1st in emissions of air toxics by mass for the period 2007-14 2018[18]. Louisiana's rank declined over this time frame, which took place as other 15 states reduced their emissions, while Louisiana's emissions stayed approximately the 16 same[18]. Louisiana's high emissions of greenhouse gasses and air pollutants, and 17 high poverty, stand in contrast to its geographic area, and population size, and gross 18 domestic product which are in the middle of US states [60,61].

For comparison, Louisiana's total greenhouse gas emissions, which in 2018 were about 242 million metric tons of  $CO_2e$ ,[56] were comparable to Iraq (166 million metric tons of fossil fuel  $CO_2/352$  million metric tons  $CO_2e$ ), and The Netherlands (164/222 million metric tons of fossil  $CO_2/CO_2e$ ), of the same order of magnitude, but slightly smaller than Canada (591/762 million metric tons of fossil  $CO_2/CO_2e$ ), and Italy

(342/418 million metric tons of fossil CO2/CO2e)[63]. These comparisons shows how
 relatively small areas, in this case the Mississippi River Industrial Corridor and
 Calcasieu Parish, can have emissions that are of national, if not global, significance.

#### 5 Linkages to environmental justice concerns

6 Members of the scientific community, environmental advocates, and senior 7 government executives have expressed a concern for adverse health impacts, and 8 particularly cancer, in Black and impoverished communities in the Mississippi River 9 corridor [13–16,64]. Our analysis indicates that the region that extends from Baton Rouge, LA to Phoenix, LA accounts for 26 to 55% of Louisiana's emissions of several 10 11 greenhouse gasses and pollutants of health concern over the past 5 decades, despite consisting of less than 5% of the state's area. While elucidating the public health 12 13 impacts of the industrial corridor is beyond the scope of this study, our findings provide geographic evidence that health-related investigations are clearly warranted. 14 Furthermore, the time varying maps and time series we generate (Figs 2.3, and 5) 15 16 provide a tool to forensically develop exposure records, a critical need given both many 17 years of exposure that are often needed to develop cancer, and the historical 18 inequalities many communities in Louisiana have experienced. 19 More broadly, two other patterns emerge. First, the different trends between 20 those that occur at the statewide level and those that occur at the parish, corridor, or 21 pixel level but instead mark areas of environmental justice concern. In the industrial

22 corridor, emissions can occur near historically Black and poor communities, such as

23 Romeville, Welcome, and Reserve where scholars have noted long standing

environmental communities (Figs 1,2,3 8) [10,34]. Second, the multiple trends and
fluctuations in statewide greenhouse gas fluxes potentially leads to series of, "shifting
baselines." When viewed in the context of the spatial variability described above, this
could confound, or confuse, regulatory decisions about whether a community's air
quality was improving or deteriorating. Regulators may view air quality as improving
when it is not improving for those most vulnerable- a concern in the American South
and across the world.

8 While there is evidence, in this study and in other research to support 9 environmental justice concerns [10,26,30], we note that we did not find simple statistical 10 relationships between space, time, race and emissions- for two likely reasons. One is the issue of scale. EDGAR pixels, at 0.1° x 0.1° or ~10 km x 10km, are often too coarse 11 12 to resolve racial and economic differences in Louisiana, which often vary at spatial 13 scales of 0.5 ~ 5 km [11,65,66]. Also, to note, is the history of the petrochemical 14 industry in Louisiana. It is over a century old and some of Louisiana's largest currentlyoperating refineries were initially constructed before 1920[67,68]. Growth in facilities 15 occurred during multiple time periods, including post-World War II era (~1945-1980) 16 17 and since ~2014, after domestic oil and gas production increased through hydraulic fracturing [12,64,69]. During this century, there have been multiple large-scale trends 18 19 that have influenced the movement of both White and Black communities across the 20 south [65,66,70], complicating efforts to understand these interactions. While our results 21 alone cannot address every statistical relationship, when viewed contextually 22 [10,11,26], present a strategic map to study the intersectionality between atmospheric

science, sociological, and oncology - particularly in communities with reduced access to
 science and monitoring.

3

# 4 Conclusion: Portrait of an energy state and broader

# **5** implications

6 The data presented herein present an increasingly complete picture of the overlap 7 between emissions of greenhouse gasses, air pollutants, race and poverty. Results 8 from this region provide several potentially globally generalizable findings. 1) In Louisiana, a disproportionately large quantity of emissions occurred in a few relatively 9 10 small regions. The most significant of these areas, the Mississippi River Industrial 11 Corridor, a region with historic Black communities, indicates how minority groups can receive a disproportionately large degree of air guality hazards associated with 12 13 greenhouse gas emissions. 2) Trends at the state, country or province-scale may differ 14 substantially from those at the local level, which when viewed in the context of (1), results suggest that metrics of air quality improvements could overlook trends at the 15 16 spatial scale of most concern for historically marginalized communities. 3) Historical 17 emissions reconstructions like EDGAR are particularly useful in poor, minority, and 18 historically marginalized communities, where a lack of resources -or will at the agency 19 level, has monitoring efforts needed to understand air quality hazards, and their health and climate impacts. Given global, national, and local efforts to reduce emissions, as 20 21 well as emerging and longstanding justice concerns, findings presented herein and their 22 source data, provide a guide to reducing environmental risks as climate goals are

- 1 addressed.
- 2

# **3 Acknowledgements**

- The authors thank Marilena Muntean and Diego Guizzardi from the European
  Commission's Joint Research Centre, Directorate for Energy, Transport and Climate for
  very helpful conversations regarding the EDGAR dataset and its scientific implications.
  Margo Moss, Kim Terrell, Gianna St. Julien and Jane Patton provided comments on
  earlier drafts of this manuscript.
- 12

#### 1 WORKS CITED

2	1.	Kerr GH, Goldberg DL, Anenberg SC. COVID-19 pandemic reveals persistent
3		disparities in nitrogen dioxide pollution. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2021;118.
4		doi:10.1073/pnas.2022409118
5	2.	Boyce JK, Pastor M. Clearing the air: incorporating air quality and environmental
6		justice into climate policy. Clim Change. 2013;120: 801–814.
7	3.	Scovronick N, Anthoff D, Dennig F, Errickson F, Ferranna M, Peng W, et al. The
8		importance of health co-benefits under different climate policy cooperation
9		frameworks. Environ Res Lett. 2021;16. doi:10.1088/1748-9326/abf2e7
10	4.	Nature_Communications_Editors. Clean air for a sustainable world. Nat Commun.
11		2021;12: 5824.
12	5.	IPCC. Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working
13		Group I to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
14		Change. Cambridge University Press; 2021.
15	6.	Anderson CM, Kissel KA, Field CB, Mach KJ. Climate Change Mitigation, Air
16		Pollution, and Environmental Justice in California. Environ Sci Technol. 2018;52:
17		10829–10838.
18	7.	Saari RK, Thompson TM, Selin NR. Human Health and Economic Impacts of
19		Ozone Reductions by Income Group. Environ Sci Technol. 2017;51: 1953–1961.
20	8.	Miranda ML, Edwards SE, Keating MH, Paul CJ. Making the Environmental Justice

1		Grade: The Relative Burden of Air Pollution Exposure in the United States. Int J
2		Environ Res Public Health. 2011;8: 1755–1771.
3	9.	Liddell JL, Mckinley CE, Lilly JM. Historic and Contemporary Environmental Justice
4		Issues among Native Americans in the Gulf Coast Region of the United States.
5		Studies In Social Justice. 2021;15: 1–24.
6	10.	Perera PKP, Lam N. An environmental justice assessment of the Mississippi River
7		industrial corridor in Louisiana, US Using a GIS-based approach. Applied Ecology
8		and Environmental Research. 2013;11: 681–697.
9	11.	Terrell KA, James W. Racial Disparities in Air Pollution Burden and COVID-19
10		Deaths in Louisiana, USA, in the Context of Long-Term Changes in Fine Particulate
11		Pollution. Environ Justice. 2020. doi:10.1089/env.2020.0021
12	12.	Theriot JP. American Energy, Imperiled Coast. Oil and Gas Development In
13		Louisiana's Wetlands. Louisiana State University Press; 2014.
14	13.	Blodgett AD. An Analysis of Pollution and Community Advocacy in "Cancer Alley":
15		Setting an Example for the Environmental Justice Movement in St James Parish,
16		Louisiana. Local Environ. 2006;11: 647–661.
17	14.	Singer M. Down Cancer Alley: The Lived Experience of Health and Environmental
18		Suffering in Louisiana's Chemical Corridor. Med Anthropol Q. 2011;25: 141–163.
19	15.	Achiume ET, Day D, Reid A, Balcerzak M, Gumedze S, Sunga RA, et al. USA:
20		Environmental racism in "Cancer Alley" must end – experts. United Nations, Office

1		of the High Commissioner of Human RIghts; 2021. Available:
2		https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=26824&
3		LangID=E
4	16.	Biden JR. Remarks by President Biden Before Signing Executive Actions on
5		Tackling Climate Change, Creating Jobs, and Restoring Scientific Integrity. The
6		White House; 2021. Available: https://www.whitehouse.gov/briefing-
7		room/speeches-remarks/2021/01/27/remarks-by-president-biden-before-signing-
8		executive-actions-on-tackling-climate-change-creating-jobs-and-restoring-scientific-
9		integrity/
10	17.	Crippa M, Solazzo E, Huang G, Guizzardi D, Koffi E, Muntean M, et al. High
11		resolution temporal profiles in the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric
12		Research. Scientific Data. 2020;7: 121.
13	18.	epa.gov/rsei. In: Risk-Screening Environmental Indicators (RSEI) Model [Internet].
14		Available: https://www.epa.gov/rsei
15	19.	epa.gov. In: State CO2 Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion, 1990-2018
16		[Internet]. 22 Oct 2021. Available: https://www.epa.gov/statelocalenergy/state-co2-
17		emissions-fossil-fuel-combustion-1990-2018
18	20.	Crippa M, Guizzardi D, Muntean M, Schaaf E, Solazzo E, Monforti-Ferrario F, et al.
19		Fossil CO2 emissions of all world countries - 2020 Report, EUR 30358 EN,.
20		Publications Office Of The European Union; 2020. Report No.: EUR 30358.
21		doi:10.2760/143674, JRC121460

1	21.	Dedoussi IC, Allroggen F, Flanagan R, Hassan T Taylor, Barret SRH, Boyce JK.
2		The co-pollutant cost of carbon emissions: an analysis of the US electric power
3		generation sector. Environ Res Lett. 2019;14: 094003.
4	22.	Cushing L, Blaustein-Rejto D, Wander M, Pastor M, Sadd J, Zhu A, et al. Carbon
5		trading, co-pollutants, and environmental equity: Evidence from California's cap-
6		and-trade program (2011–2015). PLoS Med. 2018;15: e1002604.
7	23.	EDGAR. In: EDGAR - Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research
8		[Internet]. [cited 1 Apr 2021]. Available: https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu
9	24.	IPCC. Emissions Factor Database. In: EFDB: Emissions Factor Database
10		[Internet]. Available: https://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/EFDB/main.php
11	25.	epa.gov. In: EPA Facility Level Information on Greenhouse Gases Tool (FLIGHT)
12		[Internet]. 2021 [cited 1 Oct 2021]. Available:
13		https://ghgdata.epa.gov/ghgp/main.do#
14	26.	James W, Jia C, Kedia S. Uneven Magnitude of Disparities in Cancer Risks from
15		Air Toxics. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health.
16		2012. doi:10.3390/ijerph9124365
17	27.	Oakes JM, Anderton DL, Anderson AB. A Longitudinal Analysis of Environmental
18		Equity in Communities with Hazardous Waste Facilities. Soc Sci Res. 1996;25:
19		125–148.

20 28. Social Explorer. In: Social Explorer [Internet]. [cited 26 May 2022]. Available:

1	www.socialexplorer.co	วท

2	29.	Blum, Roberts HH. The Mississippi Delta Region: Past, Present and Future. Annu
3		Rev Earth Planet Sci. 2012;40: 655–683.

30. Kluber HE. Cancer Alley And Infant Mortality: Is There A Connection. Masters of
Public Affairs, University of Texas. 2011.

31. Walker G. Beyond Distribution and Proximity: Exploring the Multiple Spatialities of
Environmental Justice. Antipode. 2009;41: 614–636.

32. Tsai SP, Cardarelli KM, Wendth JK, Fraser AE. Mortality patterns among residents
in Louisiana's industrial corridor, USA, 1970–99 S P. Occup Environ Med. 2004;61:
295–304.

33. Fos PJ, Honore PA, Honore RL. Air pollution and COVID-19: A Comparison and
Europe and the United States. European Journal Of Environmental And Public
Health. 2021;5: em0074.

14 34. Nagra R, Hampton M, Hilderbrand L. "Waiting to Die": Toxic Emissions and

15 Disease Near the Denka Performance Elastomer Neoprene Facility in Louisiana's

16 Cancer Alley. Environ Justice. 2021;14: 14–32.

17 35. Kolker AS, Dausman AM, Allison MA, Brown GL, Chu P, Henkel JR, et al.

18 Rethinking the River. Eos - Transactions American Geophysical Union. 2018.

19 doi:10.1029/2018EO101169

20 36. Brulle RJ, Pellow DN. Environmental Justice: Human Health and Environmental

1		Inequalities. Annu Rev Public Health. 2006;27: 103–124.
2	37.	Temper L, Demaria F, Scheidel A, Del Bene D, Martinez-Alier J. The Global
3		Environmental Justice Atlas (EJAtlas): ecological distribution conflicts as forces for
4		sustainability. Sustainability Sci. 2018;13: 573–584.
5	38.	Institute For Water Resources. In: Waterborne Commerce Statistics Center
6		[Internet]. [cited 1 Oct 2021]. Available: http://cwbi-ndc-nav.s3-website-us-east-
7		1.amazonaws.com/files/wcsc/webpub/#/?year=2018&regionId=2
8	39.	USACE. 2015 Flood Control and Navigation Maps, Mississippi River, Cairo, Illinois
9		to the Gulf of Mexico, Mile 953 A.H.P. to mile 22 B.H.P. US Army Corps of
10		Engineers, Mississippi Valley Division.; 2015. Available:
11		https://cdm16021.contentdm.oclc.org/utils/getfile/collection/p16021coll10/id/10939
12	40.	Maraniss D, M. W. The Faces of Pollution : As Cancer, Miscarriages Mount,
13		Louisiana Wonders If It Is a "National Sacrifice Zone. Los Angeles Times. 1988.
14		Available: https://www.latimes.com/archives/la-xpm-1988-01-24-mn-37913-
15		story.html
16	41.	Aiken CS. A New Type of Black Ghetto in the Plantation South. Ann Assoc Am
17		Geogr. 1990;80: 223–246.
18	42.	Champagne CM, Casey PH, Connell CL, Stuff JE, Gossett JM, Harsha DW, et al.
19		Poverty and Food Intake in Rural America: Diet Quality Is Lower in Food Insecure
20		Adults in the Mississippi Delta. J Am Diet Assoc. 2007;107: 1886–1894.

1	43.	Cramer CE. Black Demographic Data: A Sourcebook. Greenwood Press; 1997.
2	44.	Committee For Racial Justice. Toxic Waste And Race In the United States: A
3		National Report on the Racial and Socio-Economic Characteristics of Communities
4		with Hazardous Waste Sites. United Church of Christ; 1987. Available:
5		https://www.nrc.gov/docs/ML1310/ML13109A339.pdf
6	45.	Pastor M, Sadd J, Hipp J. Which Came First? Toxic Facilities, Minority Move-In,
7		and Environmental Justice. J Urban Aff. 2001;23: 1–21.
8	46.	Campbell HE, Peck LR, Tschudi MK. Justice for All? A Cross-Time Analysis of
9		Toxics Release Inventory Facility Location. Rev Policy Res. 2010;27: 1–25.
10	47	Makei D. Lantz DM. Maranoff, L. Hausa, JS. Mara DD. David and Sociasanamia
10	47.	Mohai P, Lantz PM, Morenoff J, House JS, Mero RP. Racial and Socioeconomic
11		Disparities in Residential Proximity to Polluting Industrial Facilities: Evidence From
12		the Americans' Changing Lives Study. Am J Public Health. 2009;99: S649–S656.
13	48.	Ash M, Boyce JK. Racial disparities in pollution exposure and employment at US
14		industrial facilities. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2018;115: 10636.
15	49.	Helland E, Whitford AB. Pollution incidence and political jurisdiction: evidence from
16		the TRI. J Environ Econ Manage. 2003;46: 403–424.
17	50.	Downey L, Hawkins B. Race, Income, and Environmental Inequality in the United
18		States. Sociol Perspect. 2008;51: 759–781.
19	51.	Ard K, Smiley K. Examining the Relationship Between Racialized Poverty
20		Segregation and Hazardous Industrial Facilities in the U.S. Over Time. Am Behav

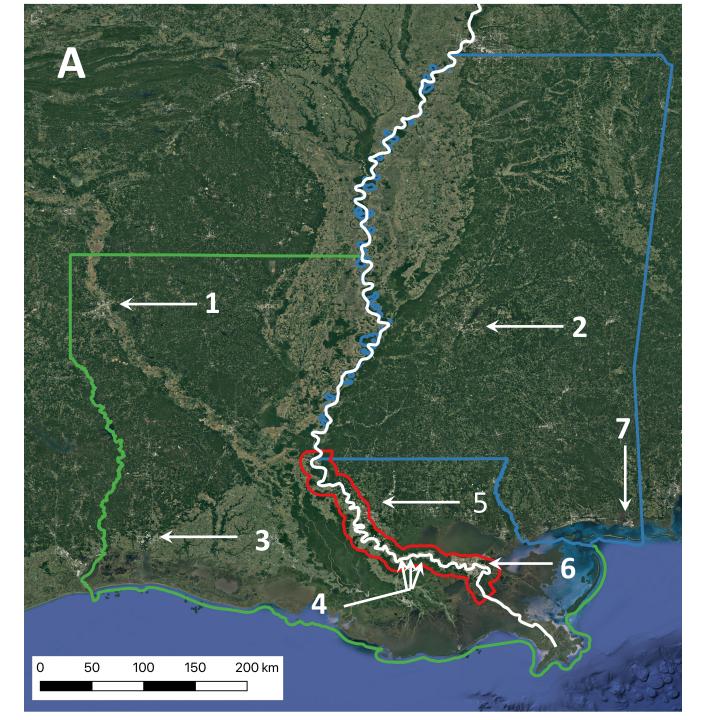
## 1 Sci. 2021; 00027642211013417.

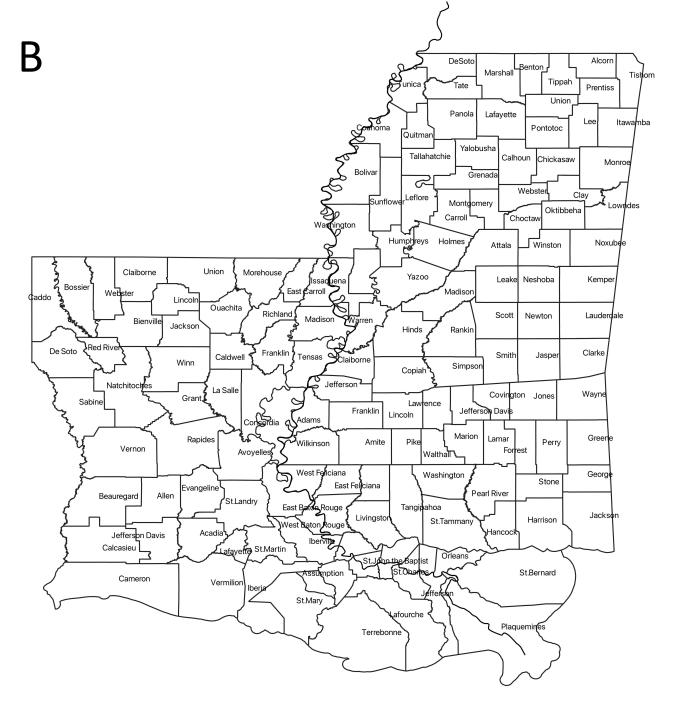
2	52.	Xing J, Mathur R, Pleim J, Hogrefe C, Gan C-M, Wong DC, et al. Observations and
3		modeling of air quality trends over 1990–2010 across the Northern Hemisphere:
4		China, the United States and Europe. Atmos Chem Phys. 2015;15: 2723–2747.
5	53.	Chay K, Greenstone M. Air Quality, Infant Mortality, and the Clean Air Act of 1970.
6		National Bureau of Economic Research; 2003. Report No.: Working Paper 10053.
7	54.	Amann M, Klimont Z, Wagner F. Regional and Global Emissions of Air Pollutants:
8		Recent Trends and Future Scenarios. Annu Rev Environ Resour. 2013;38: 31–55.
9	55.	Bosch DW. Rocking the Boat: The Legal Implications of IMO 2020 for Future IMO
10		Greenhouse Gas Reduction Strategies and the Impacts to Louisiana. LSU Journal
11		of Energy Law and Resources. 2019;8: 262–285.
12	56.	Dismukes DE. Louisiana's 2021 Greenhouse Gas Inventory. LSU Center For
13		Energy Studies; 2021.
14	57.	Bounds MC. Louisiana's New Philosophy. New York Times. November 10. 1989:
15		F–12.
16	58.	eia.gov. In: Energy-Related CO2 Emission Data Tables [Internet]. [cited 22 Oct
17		2021]. Available: https://www.eia.gov/environment/emissions/state/
18	59.	EPA. Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks 1990-2018. US
19		Environmental Protection Agency; 2020. Report No.: EPA 430-R-18-003. Available:
20		https://www.epa.gov/ghgemissions/inventory-us-greenhouse-gas-emissions-and-

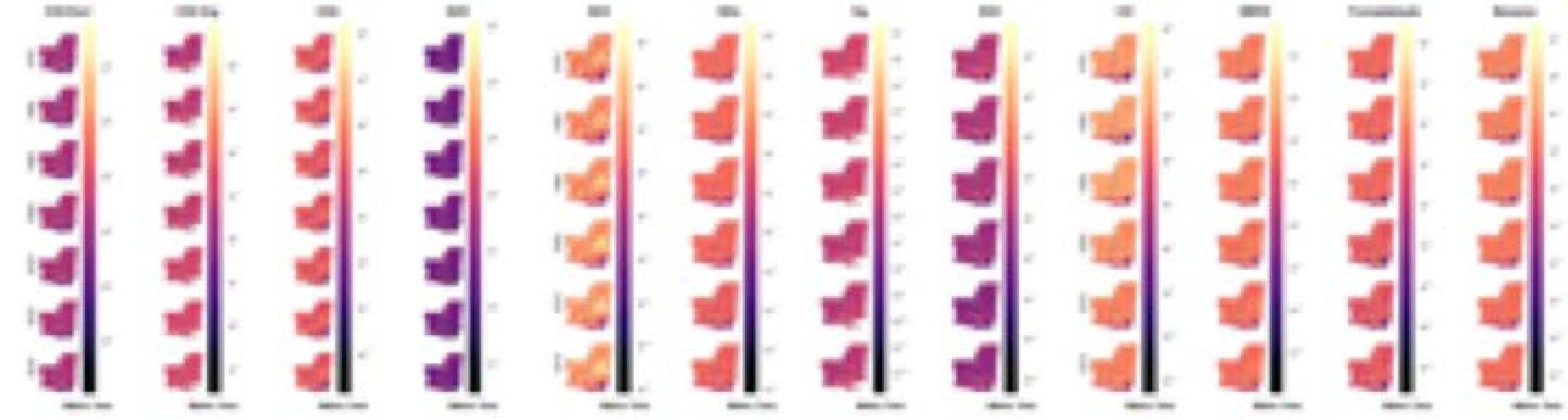
2018

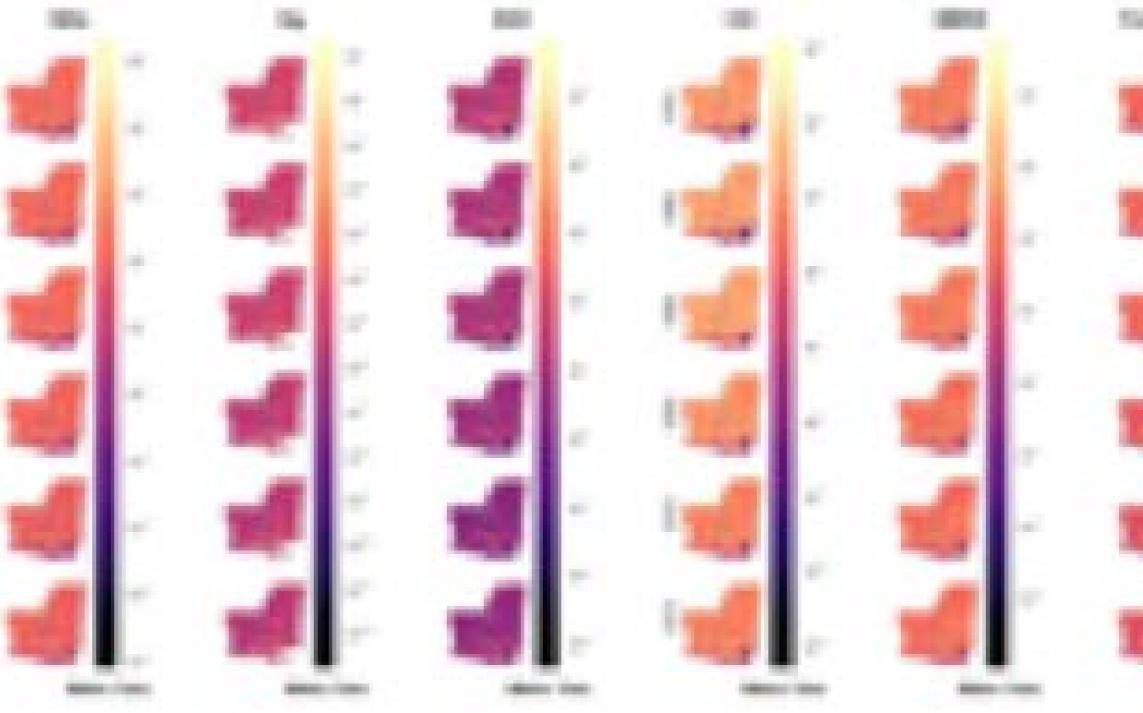
2	60.	US Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis. Gross Domestic
3		Product. In: Gross Domestic Product [Internet]. 29 Jun 2022 [cited 17 Jul 2022].
4		Available: https://www.bea.gov/data/gdp/gross-domestic-product
5	61.	US Census Bureau. US Census Tables. In: data.census.gov [Internet]. Apr 2022
6		[cited Apr 2022]. Available: https://data.census.gov
7	62.	Census US. American Community Survey Data. In: US Census, American
8		Community Survey Data [Internet]. Oct 2021 [cited 2021]. Available:
9		https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/data.html
10	63.	Crippa M, Guizzardi D, Solazzo E, Muntean M, Schaaf E, Monforti-Ferrario F., et al.
11		GHG emissions of all world countries. Publications Office of the European Union;
12		2021. Report No.: EUR 30831 EN. doi:10.2760/173513
13	64.	Hemmerling SA, DeMyers CA, Parfait J. Tracing the Flow of Oil and Gas: A Spatial
14		and Temporal Analysis of Environmental Justice in Coastal Louisiana from 1980 to
15		2010. Environ Justice. 2021;14: 134–145.
16	65.	Campanella R. Delta Urbanism: New Orleans. American Planning Association;
17		2010.
18	66.	Kates RW, Colten CE, Laska S, Leatherman SP. Reconstruction of New Orleans
19		after Hurricane Katrina: a research perspective. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.
20		2006;103: 14653–14660.

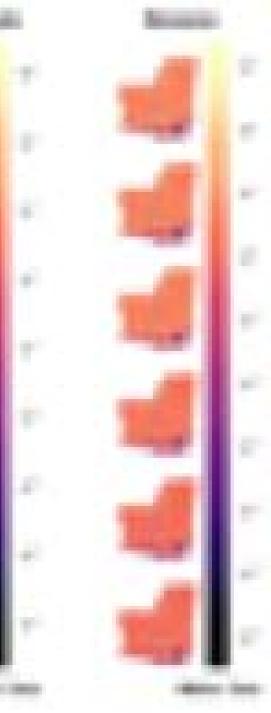
- 1 67. corporate.exxonmobile.com. In: Baton Rouge Area Operations [Internet]. [cited 27
- 2 Oct 2021]. Available: https://corporate.exxonmobil.com/locations/united-
- 3 states/baton-rouge-area-operations-overview
- 4 68. shell.us. In: NORCO Fact Sheet [Internet]. [cited 27 Oct 2021]. Available:
- 5 https://www.shell.us/about-us/projects-and-locations/norco-manufacturing-
- 6 complex/shell-norco-manufacturing-complex.html
- 7 69. Colten CE. An Incomplete Solution: Oil and Water in Louisiana. J Am Hist. 2012;99:
- 8 91–99.
- 9 70. Wilkerson I. The Warmth of Other Suns. Vintage; 2010.

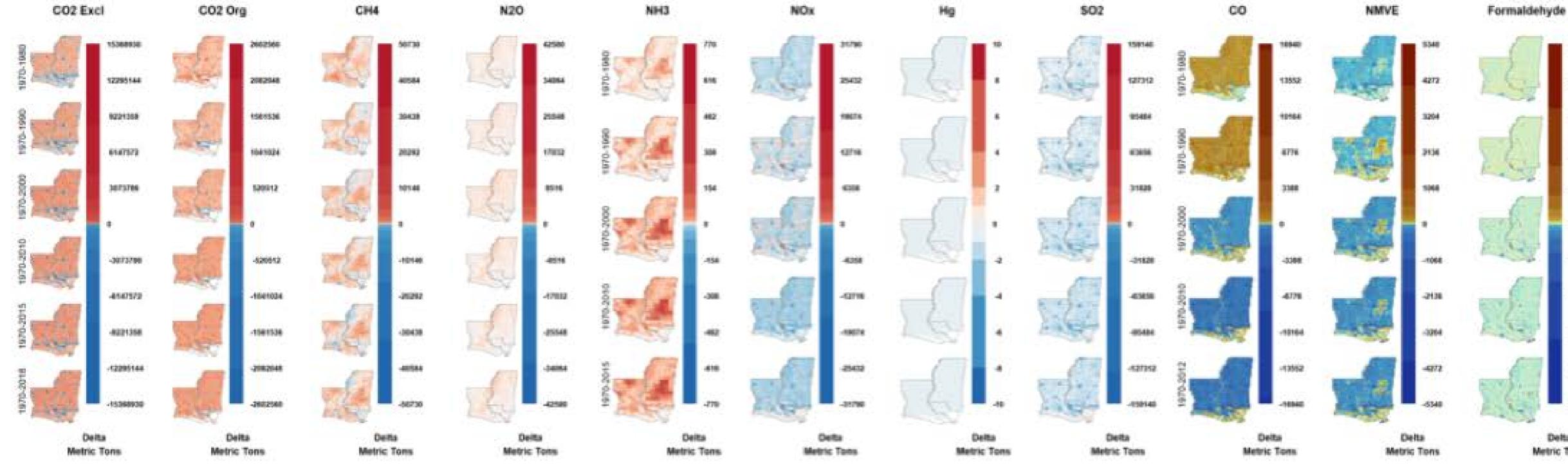




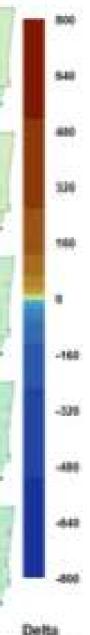








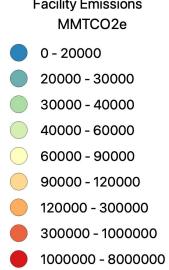




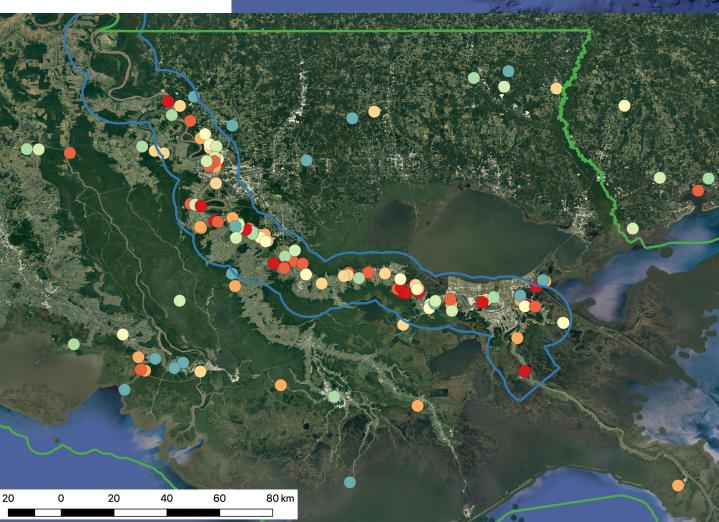


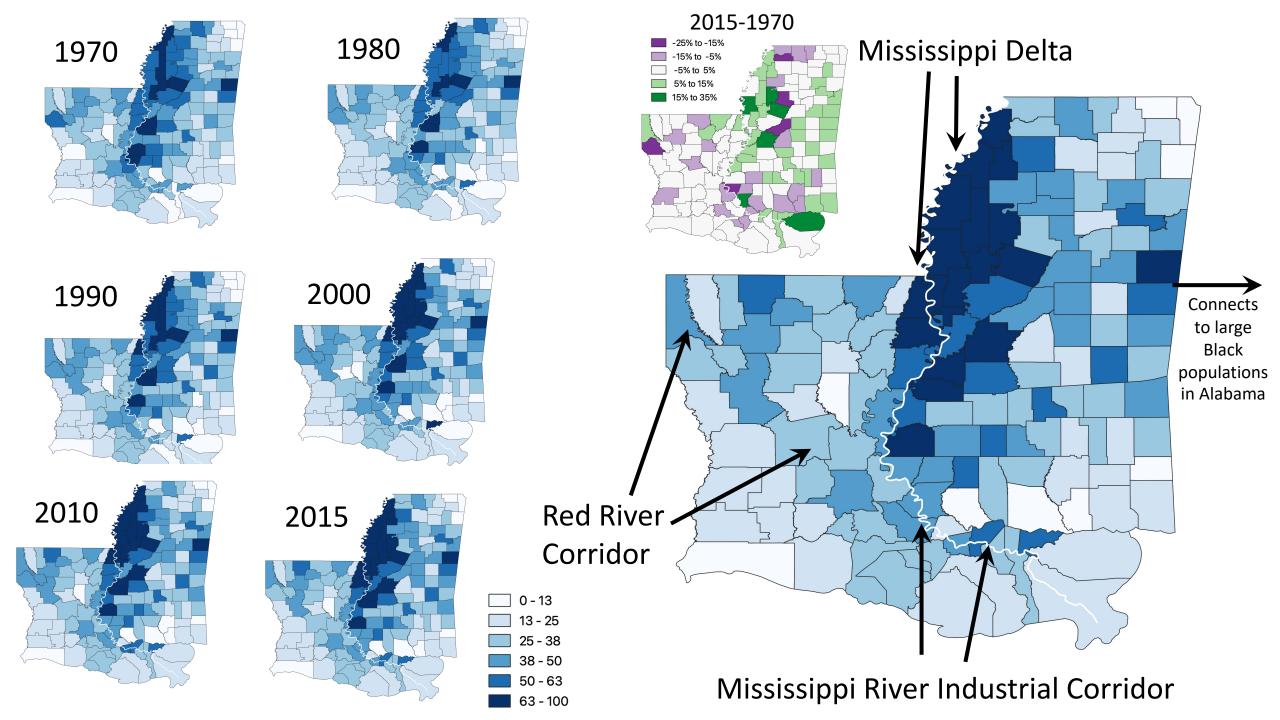
Benzene

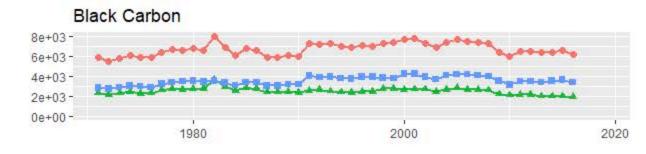


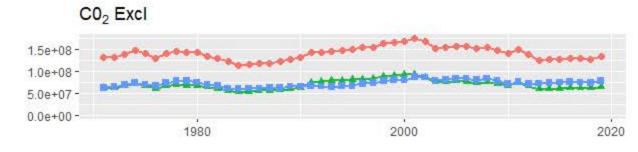


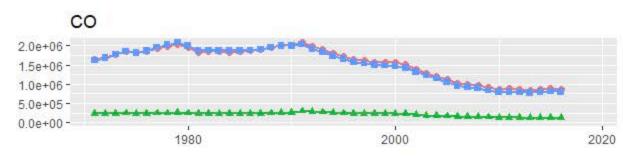
30	0	30	60	90	120 km

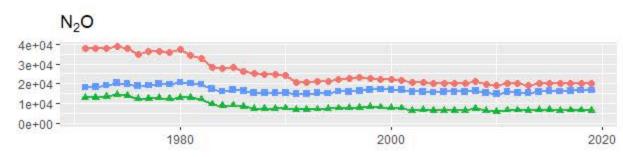


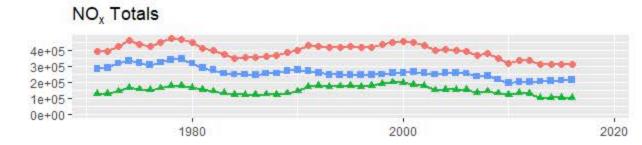


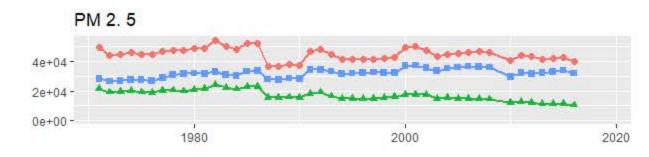


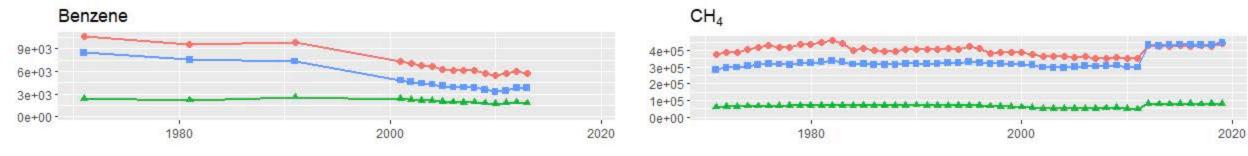


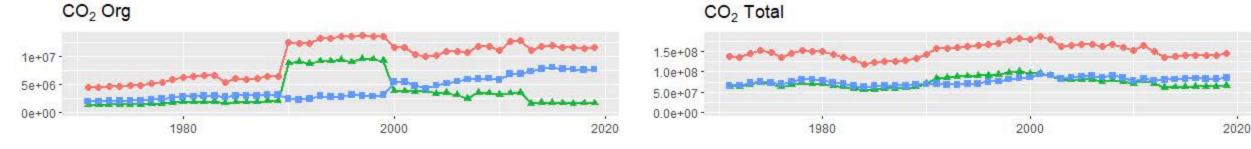


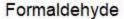


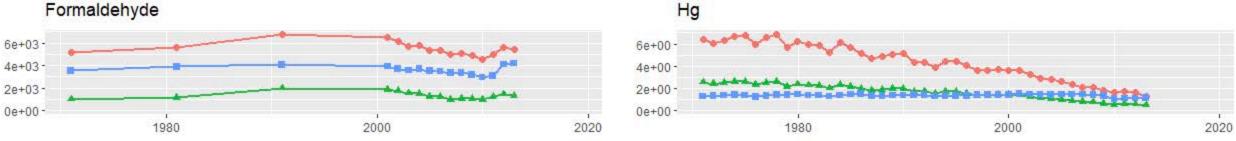




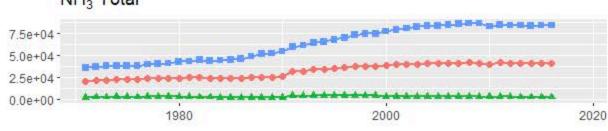




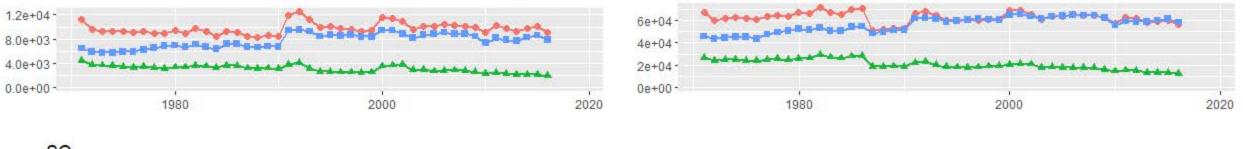


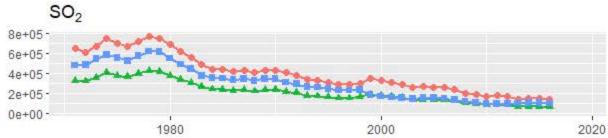






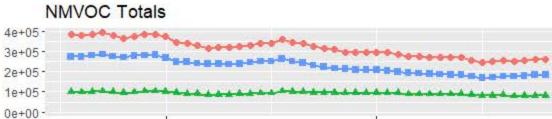
Organic Carbon Totals





Year

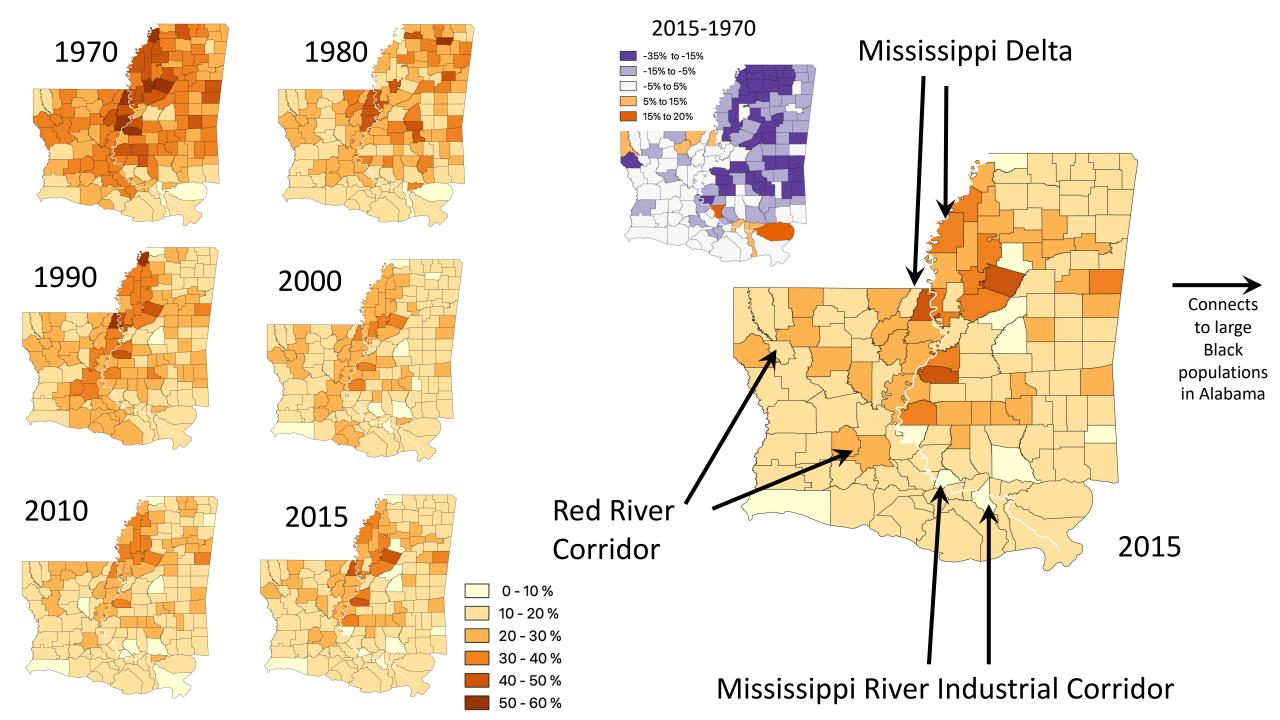
Tons Metric

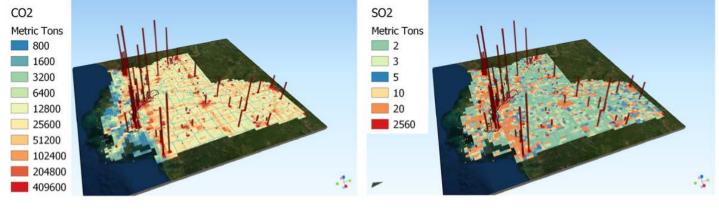












NOx



