Estimating emissions from tourism activities

M.A. Russo, H. Relvas, C. Gama, M. Lopes, C. Borrego, V. Rodrigues, M. Robaina, M. Madaleno, M.J. Carneiro, C. Eusébio, A. Monteiro

PII: \$1352-2310(19)30687-9

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2019.117048

Reference: AEA 117048

To appear in: Atmospheric Environment

Received Date: 13 May 2019
Revised Date: 4 October 2019
Accepted Date: 9 October 2019

Please cite this article as: Russo, M.A., Relvas, H., Gama, C., Lopes, M., Borrego, C., Rodrigues, V., Robaina, M., Madaleno, M., Carneiro, M.J., Eusébio, C., Monteiro, A., Estimating emissions from tourism activities, *Atmospheric Environment* (2019), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2019.117048.

This is a PDF file of an article that has undergone enhancements after acceptance, such as the addition of a cover page and metadata, and formatting for readability, but it is not yet the definitive version of record. This version will undergo additional copyediting, typesetting and review before it is published in its final form, but we are providing this version to give early visibility of the article. Please note that, during the production process, errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

© 2019 Published by Elsevier Ltd.



1	Estimating emissions from tourism activities
2	M. A. Russo ^{1*} , H. Relvas ¹ , C. Gama ¹ , M. Lopes ¹ , C. Borrego ¹ , V. Rodrigues ² , M. Robaina ² , M.
3	Madaleno ² , M. J. Carneiro ² , C. Eusébio ² , A. Monteiro ¹
4	¹ CESAM and Department of Environment and Planning, University of Aveiro, Portugal
5	² GOVCOPP and Department of Economics, Management, Industrial Engineering and Tourism,
6	University of Aveiro, Portugal
7 8	*Corresponding author: <u>michaelarusso@ua.pt</u> Phone: +351 234370220 Fax: +351 234 370309
9	ABSTRACT
10	Data on atmospheric pollutant emissions from tourism activities was identified as a critical
11	knowledge gap. Building an emissions inventory is a standard procedure that most countries
12	perform for regulatory or research purposes. At a European level, these inventories are
13	developed using the standard Nomenclature for Reporting (NFR sectors). However, none of the
14	NFR are exclusively for tourism or explicitly include it. This paper presents a methodology to
15	estimate the emissions from main touristic activities, focusing on Portugal as a case study. The
16	emissions were distributed using tourism data as a proxy, namely the contribution of tourism to
17	characteristic industries, as well as the nights spent in tourism establishments by non-residents.
18	The proxy data was used to distribute emissions throughout the municipalities, using the
19	national reported emissions data as a starting point. An analysis of the spatial distribution of
20	tourism emissions was performed, highlighting that tourism has a significant impact on
21	atmospheric emissions over specific areas (up to 40.1%), and contributing to areas where air
22	pollution is already an environmental stress factor (urban centres of Porto and Lisbon). While
23	this methodological framework was developed specifically for Portugal, it may be adapted to
24	assess atmospheric pollutant emissions from tourism activities in other regions. Beyond the
25	methodology proposed and the analysis of the results, other alternative methods to estimate
26	emissions from the tourism sector are discussed and suggested.
27	
28	Key words: air pollution; atmospheric emissions estimate; tourism; economic sectors
29	
30	1. INTRODUCTION
31	Recently, tourism has been identified as one of the largest sources of externalities and
32	responsible for the overexploitation of certain environmental resources (Jones and Munday,
33	2004). Therefore, increased awareness on the issue of tourism has led to it being a central
34	discussion point in the scientific community (Becken et al., 2017; Saenz-de-Miera and Rosselló,
35	2014). An increase in travel and other services industries has both direct, indirect and induced
36	environmental impacts, causing the same forms of pollution as any other industry: air emissions,
37	noise, solid waste, or even architectural/visual pollution. While extensive research has

38 documented the significant economic impact of such service industries as tourism, little has 39 been written about their effect on environmental quality (Saenz-de-Miera and Rosselló, 2014), 40 specifically on how air pollution will affect tourists' experiences (Law and Cheung, 2007) and 41 visitors' quality of life (Eusébio and Vieira, 2013). The majority of publications related to air 42 quality impacts indicate that air pollution is closely linked to increased premature mortality and 43 hospitalization induced by a number of diseases, with the most prevalent being of respiratory 44 origin (Costa et al., 2014). Compared with residents in polluted areas, tourists are more 45 susceptible to acute effects (Zhang et al., 2015). Among the externalities related to tourism, 46 greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions have become a recurring topic of discussion in literature 47 (Becken and Simmons, 2008), which has also included global warming issues (Becken, 2002). 48 Some regions have registered an exponential growth in tourism, making them an interesting 49 case study for the link between tourism and atmospheric pollution (UNWTO, 2010). There have 50 been studies focusing on the impacts of negative environmental factors on tourism, how it 51 affects visitor perception of atmospheric pollution and its connection to an increased trip 52 dissatisfaction and reduced likelihood of visitors to return (Jarvis et al., 2016). In some cases, 53 during peak air pollution episodes, monthly visitors to certain locations could decrease by more 54 than 25 000 people, as poor air quality discourages some tourism activities (Chen et al., 2017). 55 Heavily polluted areas can also suffer from reduced visibility, which may change tourists' 56 perceptions and decrease enjoyment (Anaman and Looi, 2000; Latif et al., 2018; Law and 57 Cheung, 2007; Zhang et al., 2015). 58 Even though economic activities have long been related with air pollution, such as energy 59 production (Casler and Blair, 1997) or transport (Peeters et al., 2007), tourism has only recently 60 been investigated as a potential cause for these environmental issues (Saenz-de-Miera and 61 Rosselló, 2014). To date, the majority of studies have focused on translating tourism into CO₂ 62 emissions as a way of quantifying its environmental impact. This has been achieved by 63 gathering data regarding energy consumption and generated waste, and then applying a CO₂ 64 emissions factor to the data (Basarir and Cakir, 2016; Katircioglu et al., 2014; Ng et al., 2016; 65 Rosselló-Batle et al., 2010). For an extensive air quality analysis, detailed emissions for 66 atmospheric pollutants are required for each activity sector. Currently, there are no studies 67 where an emissions inventory was built specifically for tourism. 68 Nowadays, Portugal is one of the most important tourism worldwide destinations. The 69 international recognition of Portugal as a tourism destination has increased considerably in last 70 years. Consequently, in 2018, this country received the title of World's Leading Destination, in 71 the World Travel Awards. In this country, tourism is one of the most important economic 72 activities. According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (World Travel & Tourism 73 Council, 2018) the total contribution (direct, indirect and induced effects) of travel and tourism 74 to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was of 17.3%. In terms of employment, 20.4% of the total

- employment is generated, directly and indirectly, by the tourism industry. Therefore, the main objective of paper is to quantify direct emissions from tourism in each municipality in Portugal, as a first step in developing the data required for an in-depth air quality analysis.
- The paper is organized as follows. In section 2, the data used and methodology developed to estimate emissions from tourism are detailed. In section 3, the total emission values and spatial distribution of the emissions throughout the country are presented. Finally, in section 4, the main conclusions are summarised.

8283

2. DATA & METHODS

8485

2.1 Tourism data

To estimate the impact of tourism on air quality, 2015 data from the Portuguese Tourism Satellite Account and Tourism Statistics were used as it is the most up to date data available. First, in order to analyse the direct economic relevance of tourism, the Gross Value Added (GVA) together with the GVA generated by tourism characteristic activities (GVAGT) were used (Table 1)

91

92

93

Table 1. Contribution of tourism characteristic activities to the Gross Value Added of Portugal 2015 (INE, 2019)

Tourism characteristic activities	Total GVA (a) [€/year]	Total GVAGT (b) [€/year]	% GVAGT ((a/b)*100)
Hotels and similar	3 263 946	3 197 032	97.95
Second homes - own account	1 066 429	1 066 429	100.00
Restaurants and similar	5 281 649	2 412 898	45.68
Railway passenger transport	192 157	106 015	55.17
Road passenger transport	966 251	234 460	24.26
Water passenger transport	79 019	57 143	72.32
Air passenger transport	903 142	610 028	67.55
Passenger transport supporting services	2 729 962	68 802	2.52
Passenger transport equipment rental	856 350	320 589	37.44
Travel agencies and similar	269 744	194 205	72.00
Cultural services	434 612	146 067	33.61
Sports and recreational services	602 516	177 293	29.43
Connected activities	3 504 143	233 234	6.66
Non-specific activities	136 688 984	1 633 455	1.20
Total	156 838 904	10 457 651	6.67

94 95

96

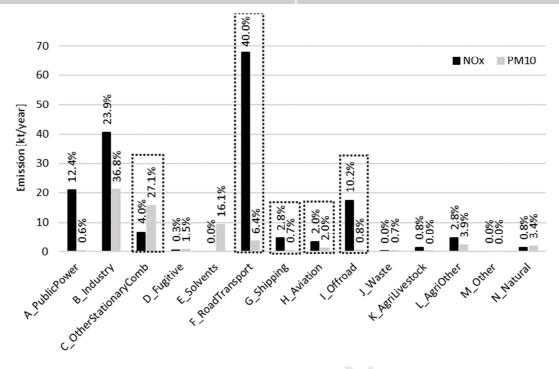
97

In 2015, the GVA generated by tourism characteristic activities represented 6.67% of national GVA. However, an analysis of the different tourism characteristic activities clearly reveals a great variety in the contribution of tourism to the GVA of theses economic activities. For

98	example, in the case of tourism accommodation (notels and similar), it is responsible for
99	97.95% of the total GVA generated, while in the case of road passenger transport, tourism only
100	contributes 24.26% to the total GVA.
101	
102	2.2 Emission data
103	In the EU, the official reporting of emissions under the UNECE convention (EMEP protocol)
104	adopted the Nomenclature for Reporting (NFR) sectors to develop emissions inventories; these
105	represent different activities for which emissions must be estimated. Each year, member states
106	are required to develop national emissions inventories using this system and update the data in
107	the EMEP database (https://www.emep.int/).
108	NFR are aggregated into Gridding NFR (GNFR), which are more encompassing sectors that
109	include each NFR related to the same general activity. Currently there are 14 GNFR, and
110	various NFR for each of them in the Portuguese Inventory Report developed by the Portuguese
111	Environmental Agency, with NFR emissions detailed at a municipality level. Since only a few
112	of them are going to be detailed in this paper, for more information regarding which GNFR
113	sectors exist and what they encompass, refer to CEIP 2019.
114	For an overview of the sectors and their contributions in terms of emissions, Figure 1 displays
115	each of the reported sectors and highlights those that are directly linked with tourism and a
116	focus of this study. The emission data shown below (for 2015) includes the total emission
117	values for each of the reported sectors and their contributions to the national total per studied
118	pollutant. This work will focus on NOx (NO $+$ NO ₂) and PM10, since they are two critical
119	pollutants in Portugal that regularly exceed legislated air quality limit values in the country
120	(APA, 2019). Nonetheless, a brief exposition of data regarding SO ₂ and CO emissions (critical
121	pollutants for Aviation and Shipping, which are sectors strongly connected to tourism), is also

122

included in section 3.1 and Figure 2.



123 124

Figure 1. 2015 national emission totals by GNFR sector for NOx (black) and PM10 (grey) in kilo tonnes (kt) per year with highlights for sectors directly linked to tourism (dotted lines).

125 126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

With a contribution of 40.0%, road transport is the largest source for NOx emissions, followed by the industrial sector with 23.9%. In each of these sectors, the emissions mostly originate from internal combustion engines or industrial combustion processes. This explains why PM10 contributions are lower for these sectors, since combustion is the main source for NOx.

Regarding PM10 emissions, the highest contributors are industry and stationary combustion, with 36.8% and 27.1%, respectively. Stationary combustion accounts for residential combustion emissions, which are a significant contributor to PM10 emissions due to cooking, heating and auxiliary engines that primarily use biomass or fossil fuels (Carvalho et al., 2009). Both aviation and shipping emissions are residual when compared to these other sectors.

None of the tourism activities is directly linked to the national reported emission sectors (NFR), so to estimate the contribution of tourism to total emissions, it was necessary to estimate the share of tourism in each NFR sector. The GNFR/NFR pairs, along with the tourism characteristic industries to which they can be related to, are identified in Table 2.

Table 2. GNFR and NFR sector pairs associated to tourism activities

		Corresponding	
GNFR	NFR	tourism characteristic	Emissions calculation methodology
		industry	
C OtherStationaryComb	Commercial/	Hotels and similar	Emissions are estimated from fuel

	institutional: Stationary	&	sales for each municipality (APA,
	&	Restaurants and	2017).
	Residential: Stationary	similar	
	Road transport:		
	Passenger cars	Road passenger	Emissions from road transport
F_RoadTransport	&		were calculated using the
	Road transport: Heavy	transport	COPERT V model (APA, 2017).
	duty vehicles and buses		
I_Offroad	Railways	Railway passenger transport	Emissions estimates are calculated using railway fuel consumption and pollutant emission factors (APA, 2017).
H_Aviation	International aviation LTO & Domestic aviation LTO	Air passenger transport	Emissions are estimated from Landing/Take-off cycles (LTO) (APA, 2017).
G_Shipping	National navigation (shipping)	See section 2.3.1	The STEAM shipping emissions model was used to calculate emissions from ships (Jalkanen et al., 2009; Johansson et al., 2017; Russo et al., 2018).

Since aviation and shipping emissions cannot be distributed throughout the municipalities, the analysis of these sectors focused on national totals. While to understand how emissions from the other sectors are distributed throughout the country, the spatial comparison between total and tourism emissions is shown in the figures included in the results section.

2.3 Tourism emissions estimation

In this section, the methodology applied to each of the sectors is detailed. The objective was to link a tourism indicator with the emissions from each GNFR to estimate tourism emissions in each municipality, using the national reported emissions data as a starting point. Note that the same methodology was used to estimate values for both NOx and PM10 emissions.

To calculate the overall tourism indicator, the total GVA for relevant tourism characteristic industries (listed in Column 3 of Table 2) and the corresponding GVAGT were used to obtain the percentage of tourism in each sector (cross referencing the data from Table 1 and Table 2).

As already stated, the data used was for the year 2015, for both emissions and tourism activity data.

2.3.1 National percentage of Tourism in each GNFR

In this section, the methodology for the emissions estimate calculation is detailed. For the stationary combustion, railway transport and aviation emissions, the methodology was

straightforward. Using Eq. 1, the percentage of the corresponding NFR (Table 1) was calculated directly.

164

$$\%TOUR_{GNFR} = \frac{Reported Emission_{NFR}}{Reported Emission_{GNFR}} * 100 * \%GVAGT_{GVA}$$
 (Eq. 1)

- where,
- %TOUR_{GNFR} is the percentage of tourism in GNFR
- Reported Emission_{NFR}— is the emissions reported for the NFR
- Reported Emission_{GNFR}— is the emissions reported for the GNFR
- %GVAGT_{GVA}— is the percentage of tourism in characteristic industries' GVA

170

- 171 For road transport and shipping emissions, additional steps were needed according to the
- available data for each of these sectors.
- 173 First, since passenger transport is divided into two separate NFR, namely Passenger cars and
- Heavy duty vehicles and buses, in Eq. 1, the Reported Emission_{NFR} variable needs to be the
- sum of passenger cars and buses. To separate heavy duty vehicles and buses, the number of each
- vehicle class, the average pollutant emission factor per kilometre and the distance travelled for
- each class, were used to calculate their respective emissions (Eq. 2). The ratio of heavy duty
- vehicles to buses was found by comparing those values to the reported national total (truck
- emissions were calculated using the same method as buses).

180

$$\%Bus_{NFR} = \frac{\sum n^{\varrho} \ Buses * D_{travelled \ bus} * EF_{bus}}{Total \ Bus_{emiss} + Total \ Heavy \ Truck_{emiss}} * 100 \tag{Eq. 2}$$

- where,
- %Bus_{NFR} is the percentage of bus emissions in NFR
- nº Buses is the number of buses of each vehicle class
- D_{travelled bus} is the average distance travelled per bus vehicle class
- EF_{bus} is the emission factor for each bus vehicle class
 - Total Bus_{emiss} is the total bus emission value
- Total Heavy Truck_{emiss} is the total heavy truck emission value

188

186

- For shipping emissions, two datasets from the STEAM model (Jalkanen et al., 2009) were used.
- 190 One is the result of a simulation considering all ships as emission sources. The other is a
- simulation for ships that were considered as entirely dedicated to tourism, cruise ships.
- 192 Therefore, instead of using an estimate from the GVAGT data (Table 1), cruise ship traffic
- emissions in an area up to 100 km from the Portuguese coast were compared to total shipping
- emissions in the same area.

195196

2.3.2 Spatial distribution of tourism emissions

To allocate tourism emissions to each municipality throughout the country, each GNFR was treated differently according to the available proxy data.

First, since stationary combustion is closely linked with lodging establishments, restaurants and similar commercial businesses, the spatial distribution factor used was the nights spent by non-residents in lodging establishments (hotels and similar). This corresponds to an indicator that provides information on how many tourists are in each municipality, which is the equivalent of a percentage of tourism in each municipality for this sector.

204

206 207

208

209

210

TOUR Emiss_{mun stat comb} = Emissions_{GNFR} * % TOUR_{GNFR} * % TOUR_{mun} (Eq. 3)

where,

- TOUR Emiss_{mun stat comb} is the stationary combustion tourism emission in the municipality
- Emissions_{GNFR} is the national emissions for GNFR sector
- %TOUR_{GNFR} is the percentage of tourism in GNFR
- %TOUR_{mun}- is the percentage of tourism in the municipality

211212

- 213 Second, as there is no data with higher detail to differentiate each of the municipalities
- 214 regarding road transport, a flat percentage was applied. This assumption has its limitations,
- since the number of tourists and the type of transportation used vary for each municipality.
- Whenever possible, proxy data with higher detail should be used for this type of disaggregation,
- for example, data regarding rental car and taxi services or a description of the car fleet in each
- 218 municipality.

219

TOUR Emiss_{mun road} = Emissions_{GNFR mun} * % TOUR_{GNFR} (Eq. 4)

where,

- TOUR Emiss_{mun stat comb} is the road transport tourism emission in the municipality
- Emissions_{GNFR mun} is the GNFR emissions for the municipality
 - %TOUR_{GNFR} is the percentage of tourism in road transport GNFR

223224

- Finally, for off-road emissions, using the same equation as road transport, the $\text{\%}TOUR_{GNFR}$ for rail passengers was used to calculate the rail emissions in each region. If the $\text{\%}TOUR_{mun}$ is 0% or if the municipality does not have rail infrastructures, the emissions in this municipality are
- zero.

229

230 3. TOURISM EMISSIONS

- 231 In this section, emissions for C_OtherStationaryComb, F_RoadTransport and I_Offroad are
- compared in terms of the contribution of tourism to each of these sectors. A brief analysis of

total values is presented first, and then the spatial distribution of both total and tourism emissions throughout the municipalities in Portugal is analysed and discussed.

3.1 Total emissions

Figure 2 shows total and tourism emission values for the three studied sectors, C_OtherStationaryComb, F_RoadTransport, I_Offroad, H_Aviation and G_Shipping for NOx, PM10, CO and SO₂.

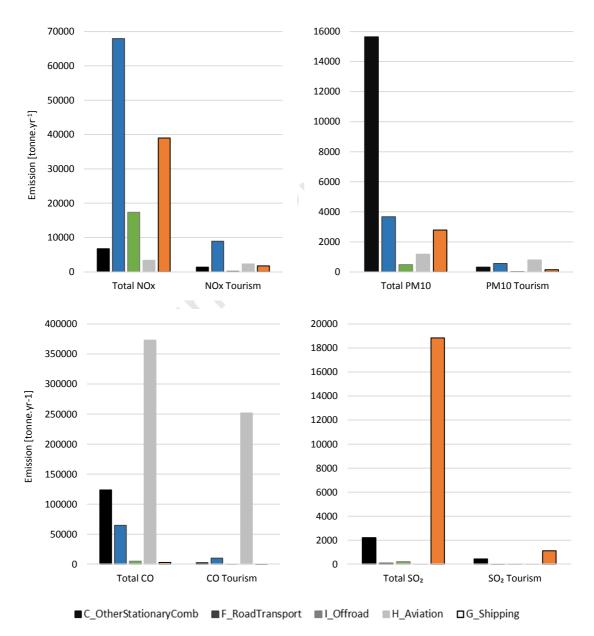


Figure 2. Total and tourism emissions for C_OtherStationaryComb, F_RoadTransport and I_Offroad, H_Aviation and G_Shipping in tonnes per year (NOx, PM10, CO and SO₂).

245 As seen in section 2.2, F_RoadTransport is the largest contributor to total NOx emissions of the 246 studied sectors (≈ 67.1 kt), while C OtherStationaryComb is responsible for the highest PM10 247 emission total (≈ 15.6 kt), with tourism having a non-negligible contribution to both of them. 248 For the studied sectors, especially for the aviation sector, tourism represents 67.6% of activities, 249 which is reflected in the emission values of this sector. Relevant sectors for NOx emissions are 250 C_OtherStationaryComb (20.6%) and F_RoadTransport (13.1%). For PM10, other than 251 aviation, there is a significant contribution of tourism characteristic industries to emissions in 252 the F RoadTransport sector, accounting for 15.1% of total emissions. In the remaining sector 253 and emission pairs, the contributions only range from 1.1% to 5%. Most of the tourism CO 254 emissions are from H_Aviation, followed by F_RoadTransport and C_OtherStationaryComb, 255 however, overall values (except aviation) of this pollutant are low. Similarly, SO₂ emissions are 256 almost entirely due to G Shipping, which is expected since this sector is the main source of 257 sulphur emissions. Nonetheless, there is still some noticeable contribution to these emissions 258 from C OtherStationaryComb, while others are also quite low. 259 Is it of note that the total emissions from shipping in Figure 2 are higher than the national 260 reported data from Figure 1. This is due to the national totals only accounting for national 261 maritime navigation, yielding significantly lower results than the methodology applied in the 262 STEAM model, which provides more accurate results (as explained in Russo et al., 2018).

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

3.2 Spatial analysis

The spatial distribution obtained with the described methodology of total and tourism emissions can provide valuable insight into possible hotspots present in the country, and where future strategies regarding tourism characteristic activities can be most effective in reducing their air pollutant emissions. As previously explained, considering the available data, the spatial distribution focused on the stationary combustion, road transport and offroad emissions sector. Figure 4 shows the C_OtherStationaryComb sector emissions (total and tourism) for NOx and PM10, in each municipality. Additionally, the percentage of tourism in each municipality calculated above is also shown. The stationary combustion GNFR is divided into three primary NFR, namely residential, commercial/institutional and agriculture/forestry/fishing stationary emissions. As these emissions are closely linked with population, it was expected that their distribution be mainly throughout coastal areas and in some of the more populated inland cities.

C_OtherStationaryComb

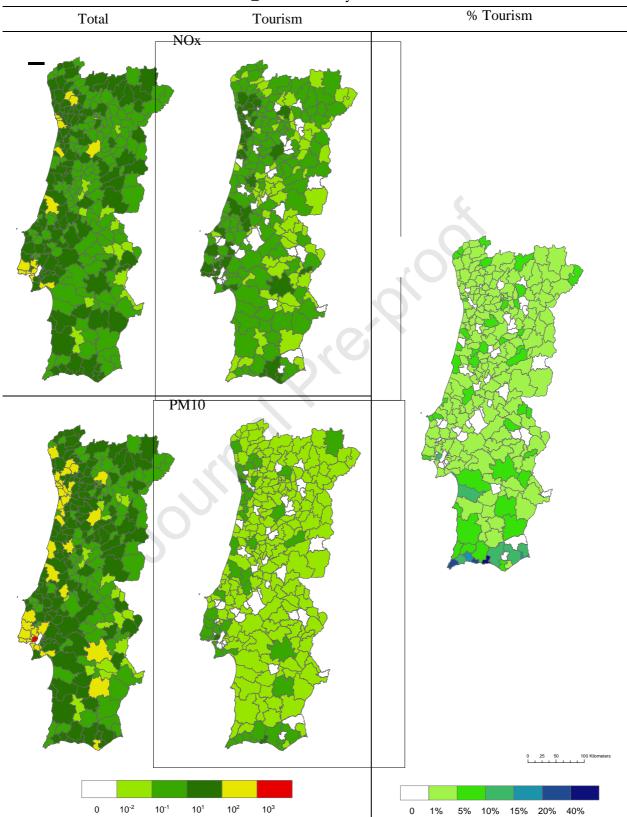


Figure 3. Total and tourism C_OtherStationaryComb emissions for each municipality in tonne per year (NOx above, PM10 below), and percentage of tourism in each municipality.

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

Higher values of tourism emissions are in coastal cities and major urban areas, with most of the inland regions in the country having very low tourism or no available data to be allocated to the municipalities. The spatial distribution of tourism emissions also reflects the contribution of commercial/institutional combustion to total GNFR emissions. This is due to the type of combustion related to emission sources in tourism activities (higher influence of services and restaurants) in this NFR having a higher contribution regarding NOx emissions compared to PM10 to overall emissions. Lisbon shows up as the largest hotspot for PM emissions with 1132 tonnes of total PM10 emitted each year, contrasted by 72 tonnes due to tourism activities, which accounts for 6.3% of the total value. Regarding NOx, total emission values in Lisbon are the highest, with a contribution of tourism to total NOx emissions is 24.1% (89 tonnes from tourism compared to 369 tonnes total). This is to be expected because it is the most populated city in the country. However, in terms of percentage of tourism, the municipality with the highest contribution of tourism to total emissions is Albufeira in the southern coast (40.1% for NOx and 35.8% for PM10). Tourism contributes directly to this sector linking to the commercial and institutional stationary emissions, which includes restaurants, hotels and similar establishments. Figure 4 shows the spatial distribution for the F RoadTransport sector. Road transport is divided into various types of vehicles according to their utility, such as passenger transport, services and heavy vehicles. The connection of this sector to tourism is related to the number of passengers transported, and the most critical pollutant for this sector is NOx.

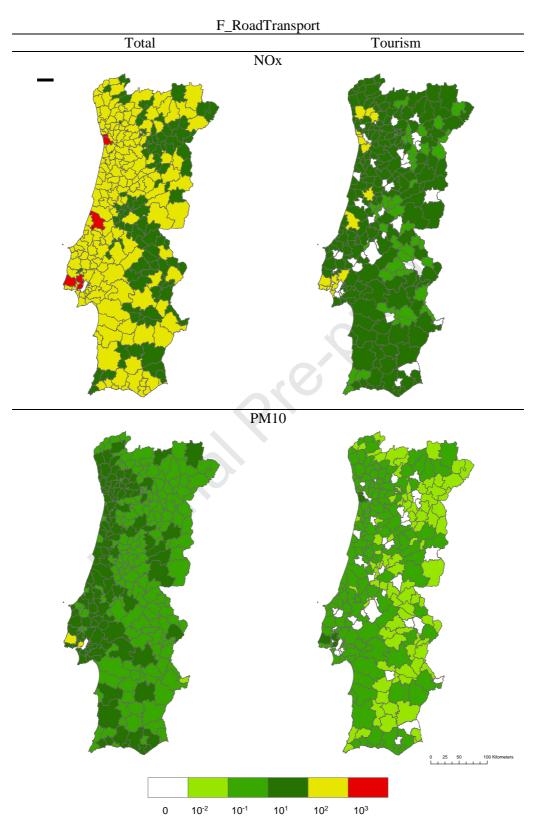


Figure 4. Total and tourism F_RoadTransport emissions for each municipality in tonne per year (NOx above, PM10 below).

304	In this case, the focus on coastal areas is even more evident, as larger city centres and urbanized
305	areas with a large amount of traffic are mostly near the coast. A few more hotspots for these
306	emissions are noticeable, mainly in and around the largest cities, such as Porto in the north
307	(1079 tonnes NOx), Leiria in the centre (1011 tonnes NOx) and the Lisbon metropolitan area
308	(2311 tonnes of NOx for Lisbon alone). As described in the methodology, a flat percentage is
309	applied in each municipality, therefore the percentage of tourism is always the same (14.4% for
310	NOx and 16.7% for PM10).
311	After calculating tourism emissions, major metropolitan areas are still an emission hotspot for
312	both pollutants, especially near Porto (156 tonnes of NOx) and Lisbon (334 tonnes of NOx), for
313	both pollutants. Contrary to stationary combustion emissions, the distribution of tourism
314	emissions is not entirely focused on coastal cities (although they are still emission hotspots),
315	with some inland municipalities still reaching over 100 tonnes of NOx emitted per year.
316	Finally, Figure 5 shows off-road emissions, which include agriculture, forestry and fishing
317	activities (vehicles and machinery emissions), and railways. The former has no direct
318	contribution to tourism, although it does have activities that can be indirectly related to tourism,
319	while the later can be directly linked to tourism using data regarding transported passengers and
320	their activities.
321	

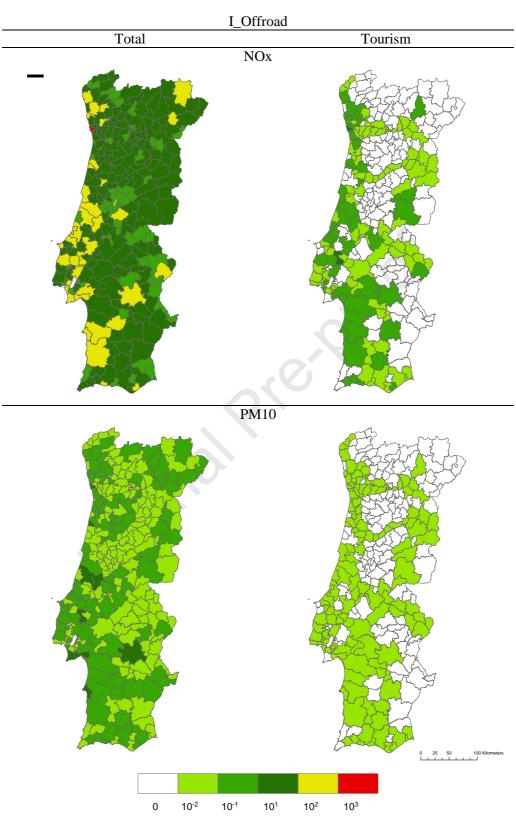


Figure 5. Total and tourism $I_Offroad$ emissions for each municipality in tonne per year (NOx above, PM10 below).

Although still prominent, the spatial distribution of these emissions is less focused on coastal areas, with many inland cities having high NOx emission values. Generally, the vehicles and machinery used in this sector are powered by internal combustion engines and therefore, are similar to road transport. The hotspot for this sector is Matosinhos in the north with 20 tonnes of NOx (1238 tonnes total) and 0.5 tonnes of PM10 (33 tonnes total) emitted due to tourism per year. The total emissions value is in part due to the presence of the Port of Leixões Logistics Platform and associated railway infrastructure. Here the emissions for tourism are overestimated due to other high-emission sources; however, it is still a prominent region for tourism activities. Railway activities have a low contribution to off-road emissions since most of the trains in Portugal are electric, which is why the largest contribution of this sector to atmospheric pollution could be from indirect impacts related to energy production.

337338

339

340

341

342

343

344

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

3.3 Time variation

In this section, the time variation of each of the studied sectors and tourism in Portuguese municipalities is investigated. This information is fundamental when using emissions resulting from the methodology suggested in this study, as it focuses on distributing annual emission values for each of the pollutant which has no intrinsic time variation.

Specific Portuguese time profiles used for the GNFR sectors (SNAP 2, 7 and 8) were collected

(Menut et al., 2013) and compared with time proxy data related to tourism activity (based on the

average of nights spent by non-residents in Portuguese municipalities). Figure 6 shows the

studied GNFR sectors and the tourism activity monthly profiles.

345346

347

3 **Multiplication Factor** 2.5 2 1.5 1 0.5 Jul Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec ■ C OtherStationaryComb ■ F RoadTransport ■ I Offroad

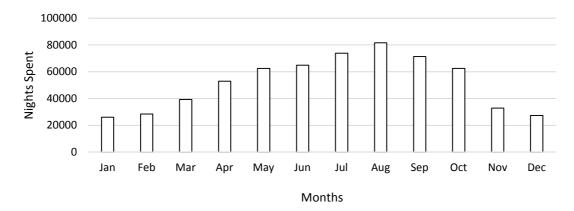


Figure 6. Specific Portuguese monthly profiles used for the GNFR studied sectors (top) and tourism data activity monthly profiles (bottom).

349350

351

352

353

354

355

356

348

As indicated in the figure, the time profiles are very distinct and none of the emission sectors reflect the temporal evolution of tourism. For example, there is a significant variation from winter to summer in the C_OtherStationaryComb sector, while road and offroad emissions present almost no variation throughout the year. When using these emissions for air quality simulations, or whenever emissions are input data, these specific time profiles for the tourism sector should be taken into account.

357358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In order to evaluate the contribution of the tourism sector on the atmospheric pollutants, a methodology to estimate emissions from tourism activities is proposed, using Portugal as a case study. The NFR sectors, recommended for emissions inventories reporting at EU level, were used, in particular the ones that have a direct link to tourism: road and off-road transport, stationary combustion, aviation and shipping activities. The Gross Added Value for characteristic tourism industries was used as proxy data to estimate the contribution of tourism to each economic activity (and corresponding NFR sector). Then, using a specific methodology to each sector the total emissions and their distribution throughout the municipalities in the country was achieved. The analysis of the total emissions suggests that tourism activity is responsible for maximums of 67.6% (both NOx and PM10 for aviation), followed by 20.6% (for NOx in the stationary combustion sector) and 15.1% (for PM10 in the transport sector) of total emissions. The analysis of the spatial distribution of tourism emissions highlighted that tourism has a significant impact on atmospheric emissions over specific areas (up to 40.1%) and contributing to areas where air pollution is already an environmental stress factor (urban centres of Porto and Lisbon). While this methodological framework was developed specifically for Portugal (including the time variations shown, which are specifically for Portugal), the case study may be relevant for many other areas in Europe.

376	
377	ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
378	Thanks are due for the financial support to FCT/MCTES through national funds, and the co-
379	funding by the FEDER, within the PT2020 Partnership Agreement and Compete 2020, for the
380	ARTUR project (02/SAICT/2017) and CESAM (UID/AMB/50017 - POCI-01-0145-FEDER-
381	007638). Thanks are also due to Jalkanen Jukka-Pekka et al. from the Finnish Meteorological
382	Institute, for access to their emissions inventory, STEAM.
383	
384	REFERENCES
385	Anaman, K.A., Looi, C.N., 2000. Economic Impact of Haze-Related Air Pollution on the
386	Tourism Industry in Brunei Darussalam. Econ. Anal. Policy 30, 133-143.
387	https://doi.org/10.1016/S0313-5926(00)50016-2
388	APA, 2019. Relatório do Estado do Ambiente Portugal 2019 (in portuguese). Agência
389	Portuguesa do Ambiente.
390	APA, 2017. Portuguese informative inventory report. Agência Portuguesa do Ambiente.
391	Basarir, C., Cakir, Y.N., 2016. Causal Interactions Between CO2 Emissions, Financial
392	Development, Energy and Tourism. Asian Econ. Financ. Rev. 5, 1227-1238.
393	https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.aefr/2015.5.11/102.11.1227.1238
394	Becken, S., 2002. Analysing international tourist flows to estimate energy use associated with
395	air travel. J. Sustain. Tour. 10, 114–131. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580208667157
396	Becken, S., Jin, X., Zhang, C., Gao, J., 2017. Urban air pollution in China: destination image
397	and risk perceptions. J. Sustain. Tour. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2016.1177067
398	Becken, S., Simmons, D., 2008. Using the concept of yield to assess the sustainability of
399	different tourist types. Ecol. Econ. 67, 420-429.
400	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2007.12.025
401	Carvalho, A., Miranda, A.I., Valente, J., Borrego, C., Sá, E., Lopes, M., 2009. Contribution of
402	residential wood combustion to PM10 levels in Portugal. Atmos. Environ. 44, 642-651.
403	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2009.11.020
404	Casler, S.D., Blair, P.D., 1997. Economic structure, fuel combustion, and pollution emissions.
405	Ecol. Econ. 22, 19–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009(96)00551-4
406	CEIP, 2019. Centre on Emission Inventories and Projections - Reporting programme [WWW
407	Document]. URL
408	$http://www.ceip.at/ms/ceip_home1/ceip_home/reporting_instructions/reporting_programm$
409	e/
410	Chen, CM., Lin, YL., Hsu, CL., 2017. Does air pollution drive away tourists? A case study
411	of the Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area, Taiwan. Transp. Res. Part D Transp.
412	Environ. 53, 398-402. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trd.2017.04.028

- Costa, S., Ferreira, J., Silveira, C., Costa, C., Lopes, D., Relvas, H., Borrego, C., Roebeling, P.,
 Miranda, A.I., Paulo Teixeira, J., 2014. Integrating health on air quality assessment -
- Review report on health risks of two major european outdoor air pollutants: PM and
- 416 NO<inf>2</inf>. J. Toxicol. Environ. Heal. Part B Crit. Rev. 17, 307–340.
- 417 https://doi.org/10.1080/10937404.2014.946164
- 418 Eusébio, C., Vieira, A.L., 2013. Destination Attributes' Evaluation, Satisfaction and
- Behavioural Intentions: a Structural Modelling Approach. Int. J. Tour. Res. 15, 66–80.
- 420 https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.877
- 421 INE, 2019. Conta Satélite do Turismo Principais Indicadores [WWW Document]. URL
- https://www.ine.pt/xportal/xmain?xpid=INE&xpgid=ine_cnacionais2010&contexto=cs&s
- 423 elTab=tab3&perfil=220674570&INST=220617355
- Jalkanen, J.P., Brink, A., Kalli, J., Pettersson, H., Kukkonen, J., Stipa, T., 2009. A modelling
- system for the exhaust emissions of marine traffic and its application in the Baltic Sea
- 426 area. Atmos. Chem. Phys. 9, 9209–9223. https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-9-9209-2009
- Jarvis, D., Stoeckl, N., Liu, H.B., 2016. The impact of economic, social and environmental
- factors on trip satisfaction and the likelihood of visitors returning. Tour. Manag. 52, 1–18.
- 429 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.06.003
- Johansson, L., Jalkanen, J.P., Kukkonen, J., 2017. Global assessment of shipping emissions in
- 431 2015 on a high spatial and temporal resolution. Atmos. Environ. 167, 403–415.
- 432 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2017.08.042
- Jones, C., Munday, M., 2004. Evaluating the economic benefits from tourism spending through
- Input-output frameworks: Issues and cases. Local Econ. 19, 117–133.
- 435 https://doi.org/10.1080/0269094042000203063
- 436 Katircioglu, S.T., Feridun, M., Kilinc, C., 2014. Estimating tourism-induced energy
- consumption and CO2 emissions: The case of Cyprus. Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev. 29,
- 438 634–640. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2013.09.004
- Latif, M.T., Othman, M., Idris, N., Juneng, L., Abdullah, A.M., Hamzah, W.P., Khan, M.F., Nik
- Sulaiman, N.M., Jewaratnam, J., Aghamohammadi, N., Sahani, M., Xiang, C.J., Ahamad,
- 441 F., Amil, N., Darus, M., Varkkey, H., Tangang, F., Jaafar, A.B., 2018. Impact of regional
- haze towards air quality in Malaysia: A review. Atmos. Environ. 177, 28–44.
- 443 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.01.002
- 444 Law, R., Cheung, C., 2007. Air quality in Hong Kong: A study of the perception of international
- visitors. J. Sustain. Tour. 15, 390–401. https://doi.org/10.2167/jost637.0
- Menut, L., Bessagnet, B., Khvorostyanov, D., Beekmann, M., Blond, N., Colette, A., Coll, I.,
- Curci, G., Foret, G., Hodzic, A., Mailler, S., Meleux, F., Monge, J.-L., Pison, I., Siour, G.,
- 448 Turquety, S., Valari, M., Vautard, R., Vivanco, M.G., 2013. CHIMERE 2013: a model for
- regional atmospheric composition modelling. Geosci. Model Dev. 6, 981–1028.

450	https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-6-981-2013
451	Ng, T.H., Lye, C.T., Lim, Y.S., 2016. A decomposition analysis of CO2 emissions: Evidence
452	from Malaysias tourism industry. Int. J. Sustain. Dev. World Ecol. 23, 266-277.
453	https://doi.org/10.1080/13504509.2015.1117534
454	Peeters, P., Szimba, E., Duijnisveld, M., 2007. Major environmental impacts of European
455	tourist transport. J. Transp. Geogr. 15, 83-93.
456	https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2006.12.007
457	Rosselló-Batle, B., Moià, A., Cladera, A., Martínez, V., 2010. Energy use, CO2 emissions and
458	waste throughout the life cycle of a sample of hotels in the Balearic Islands. Energy Build.
459	42, 547–558. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2009.10.024
460	Russo, M.A., Leitão, J., Gama, C., Ferreira, J., Monteiro, A., 2018. Shipping emissions over
461	Europe: A state-of-the-art and comparative analysis. Atmos. Environ. 177, 187–194.
462	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.01.025
463	Saenz-de-Miera, O., Rosselló, J., 2014. Modeling tourism impacts on air pollution: The case
464	study of PM10 in Mallorca. Tour. Manag. 40, 273–281.
465	https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.06.012
466	UNWTO, 2010. UNWTO Annual Report A year of recovery, Sustainable Tourism.
467	World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018. TRAVEL & TOURISM ECONOMIC IMPACT:
468	PORTUGAL.
469	Zhang, A., Zhong, L., Xu, Y., Wang, H., Dang, L., 2015. Tourists' perception of haze pollution
470	and the potential impacts on travel: Reshaping the features of tourism seasonality in
471	Beijing, China. Sustain. 7, 2397–2414. https://doi.org/10.3390/su7032397
472	

- Tourism emissions has a maximum contribution of 67.6% (in the aviation sector)
- Spatial distribution shows significant impact on coastal regions
- Tourism adds to areas where pollution is already an environmental stress factor
- The methodological framework presented is easily applied to other countries

Declaration of interests
oxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.
☐The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: