TOWN OF FAIRFAX
STAFF REPORT

To: **Planning Commission**

From: **Jim Moore, Director of Planning & Building Services**

Date: **April 18, 2013**

Subject: **Drafting an ordinance to restrict leaf blowers and/or other power equipment in the Town of Fairfax**

BACKGROUND

The Planning Commission started discussing this matter at their March 21, 2013 meeting. The staff report for that meeting is attached as **Exhibit A** (and the draft minutes of that meeting are attached elsewhere in the packet of the April 18, 2013 meeting).

At the March 21, 2013 Planning Commission meeting staff was requested to provide the Commission with a report from the Air Resources Board titled *A Report to the California Legislature on the Potential Health and Environmental Impacts of Leaf Blowers*. That report is attached as **Exhibit B**.

Also at the March 21, 2013 Planning Commission meeting, during the public comment period, the Commission heard from two citizens who spoke in favor of limiting the hours of operation of leaf blowers – but not banning them, particularly on weekends. Subsequent to that hearing, the two citizens provided follow-up letters articulating their points and those letters are attached as **Exhibit C**.

DISCUSSION

In addition to the points enumerated in the March 21, 2013 staff report – and raised at that meeting, staff would like to call the Commission's attention to the new 2010-2030 General Plan – Noise Element. Specifically, with regards to: *Goal N-3: Maintain the current quality of the acoustical environment.* Goal N-3 provides a "representative list of standard controls". These include:

a. Limit construction to the hours of 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. on weekdays, and 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. on Saturdays, with no noise-generating construction on Sundays or holidays.

b. Control noise from construction workers' radios to the point where they are not audible at existing residences that border the Project site.

c. Equip all internal combustion engine-driven equipment with mufflers which are in good condition and appropriate for the equipment.

d. Utilize quiet models of air compressors and other stationary noise sources where technology exists.

AGENDA ITEM # 5

e. Locate stationary noise-generating equipment as far as possible from sensitive receptors when sensitive receptors adjoin or are near a construction project area.

f. Prohibit unnecessary idling of internal combustion engines.

g. Notify residents adjacent to the Project site of the construction schedule in writing.

h. Designate a noise disturbance coordinator who would be responsible for responding to any local complaints about construction noise. The disturbance coordinator would determine the cause of the noise complaints (e.g., starting too early, bad muffler) and institute reasonable measures warranted to correct the problem. Conspicuously post a telephone number for the disturbance coordinator at the construction site.

Staff recommends that the Planning Commission take the above "standard controls" from the Noise Element of the 2010-2030 General Plan into consideration in drafting leaf blower and/or other power equipment regulations (e.g., proposed amendments to Chapter 8.20, Noise, of the Fairfax Town Code) for Town Council consideration. However, with regards to item "a" above, if the Commission chooses to limit hours of operation of leaf blowers and/or other power equipment in Town, please keep in mind that under certain circumstances the Commission may want to allow for exceptions to the time restrictions.

For example, on large construction projects, particularly during summer months, it might be in the best interest of neighbors in the vicinity of a project to speed up completion by allowing construction past 5:00 pm. This was the case with the rehabilitation construction of the new Good Earth Market in the summer/fall of 2011; or, as will be the case with the creek bank restoration at Fair Anselm Plaza (already entitled) this coming summer; and/or with cases of financial hardship to complete small residential projects in Town – or under other unforeseen circumstances.

Finally, staff would like to remind the Commission that the Council had other requests that are stipulated in the Resolution No. 13-3: which is attached as **Exhibit D**.

RECOMMENDATION

1. Continue discussing drafting an ordinance restricting leaf blowers and/or other power equipment in the Town of Fairfax.

2. Give direction to staff on what should be included in a draft amendment to the Noise Ordinance with regards to leaf blower and/or noise producing power equipment.

FISCAL IMPACTS

The cost associated with this task is limited to staff time required to prepare an ordinance and staff time to enforce compliance.

ATTACHMENTS

Exhibit A – March 21, 2013 PC Staff Report
Exhibit B – Air Resources Board Report
Exhibit C – Letters from the public
Exhibit D – Resolution No. #13-3

TOWN OF FAIRFAX
STAFF REPORT

To:	**Planning Commission**
From:	**Jim Moore, Director of Planning & Building Services**
Date:	**March 21, 2013**
Subject:	**Drafting an ordinance to restrict leaf blowers and/or other power equipment in the Town of Fairfax**

RECOMMENDATION

1. Commence discussion on drafting an ordinance restricting leaf blowers and/or other power equipment in the Town of Fairfax.

2. Give direction to staff on what should be included in a draft amendment to the Noise Ordinance with regards to leaf blower and/or noise producing power equipment.

BACKGROUND

At the October 3, 2012 Town Council meeting, during the public comments period, Mr. Green who resides at Bennet House submitted a petition with background information to ban leaf blowers in the Town of Fairfax. The petition and subsequent letters or emails on this matter are attached as **Exhibit A**.

At the December 5, 2012 Town Council meeting, after taking public comments and holding a discussion on this matter, staff was directed (per Town Code) to prepare a draft Resolution of Intention for Town Council approval directing staff to take this matter before the Planning Commission for a public hearing and/or preparation of a draft ordinance for Council consideration.

At the January 10, 2013 Town Council meeting, the Town Council approved Resolution No. 13-3 (attached as **Exhibit B**) directing the Planning Commission to amend Chapter 8.20, Noise, of the Town Code to regulate the use of leaf blowers and other power equipment if appropriate. Please note that Resolution No. 13-3 gives an eight point check-list of amendment items for the Planning Commission to consider including in a draft ordinance.

The minutes of the January 10, 2013 Town Council meeting are attached as **Exhibit C**.

DISCUSSION

There are two primary issues related to the regulation of leaf blowers as presented by the original petitioner Mr. Green; those are (1) noise, and (2) air pollution. With regards to other power equipment, which the Town Council added to Resolution No. 13-3 for Planning Commission

AGENDA ITEM # 1

EXHIBIT # A

consideration, either or both of these issues may still apply.

Staff has researched several ordinances on this matter and has attached two model ordinances adopted by the Town of Ross and the Town of St. Helena (attached as **Exhibit D & E**) in order to facilitate the Planning Commission's discussion.

Please note that the Town of Ross Ordinance restricts the use leaf blowers <u>and/or other power equipment</u>, except with a permit for certain hours on weekdays and weekends - with a cap on allowable leaf blower decibels at 72 dBA at 50 feet away.

Please note that the Town of St. Helena Ordinance restricts the type of leaf blowers <u>and/or other noise producing equipment</u> to those that are certified by the manufacturer to be at or below 65 dBA from 50 feet away (with all electric leaf blowers allowed) for certain hours on weekdays and weekends: with limits on all "unnecessary" noise creating equipment without a permit.

At this point, staff recommends that the Planning Commission consider restricting the use of leaf blowers and/or other power equipment to either:

(1) Types guaranteed by the manufacturer to operate at less than 65 dBA for certain hours of operation; or

(2) Leaf blowers and/or other power equipment that operate in excess of 65 dBA for certain hours of operation - by permit only for certain hours of operation.

Further, staff recommends that the Planning Commission:

(A) Consider restricting hours of operation for all leaf blowers in order to reduce air pollution;

(B) Consider whether to exempt Public Works staff's operation of equipment; and

(C) Consider enforcement challenges for the Police Department and/or Building Official.

FISCAL IMPACTS

The cost associated with this task is limited to staff time required to prepare an ordinance and staff time to enforce compliance.

ATTACHMENTS

Exhibit A – Petition and letters
Exhibit B – Resolution 13-3
Exhibit C – January 10, 2013 Town Council Minutes
Exhibit D – Town of Ross Leaf Blower Amendments
Exhibit E – Town of St. Helena Leaf Blower Amendments

AIR RESOURCES BOARD

A REPORT TO THE CALIFORNIA LEGISLATURE ON THE POTENTIAL HEALTH AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF LEAF BLOWERS

Public Hearing: January 27, 2000
Date of Revision: February 29, 2000

EXHIBIT # B

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This report on potential health and environmental impacts of leaf blowers was developed by the following Air Resources Board staff:

Mobile Sources Control Division:
Nancy L.C. Steele, D.Env. (Lead)
Scott Rowland
Michael Carter (Branch Chief)

Research Division:
Hector Maldonado
Cindy Stover

And with the assistance of additional staff: Cresencia Gapas-Jackson, Leslie Krinsk, Jeff Long, Keith Macias, Angela Ortega, Muriel Strand, John Swanton, Maggie Wilkinson, and Walter Wong.

The many other individuals who provided information and assistance for this report are listed in Appendix B.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Background and Overview

California Senate Concurrent Resolution No. 19 (SCR 19) requests the Air Resources Board (ARB) to prepare and submit a report to the Legislature on or before January 1, 2000, summarizing the potential health and environmental impacts of leaf blowers and including recommendations for alternatives to the use of leaf blowers and alternative leaf blower technology, if the ARB determines that alternatives are necessary. The goal of this report is to summarize for the California Legislature existing data on health and environmental impacts of leaf blowers, to identify relevant questions not answered in the literature, and suggest areas for future research.

The leaf blower was invented in the early 1970s and introduced to the United States as a lawn and garden maintenance tool. Drought conditions in California facilitated acceptance of the leaf blower as the use of water for many garden clean-up tasks was prohibited. By 1990, annual sales were over 800,000 nationwide, and the tool had become a ubiquitous gardening implement. In 1998, industry shipments of gasoline-powered handheld and backpack leaf blowers increased 30% over 1997 shipments, to 1,868,160 units nationwide.

Soon after the leaf blower was introduced into the U.S., its use was banned as a noise nuisance in two California cities, Carmel-by-the-Sea in 1975 and Beverly Hills in 1978. By 1990, the number of California cities that had banned the use of leaf blowers was up to five. There are currently twenty California cities that have banned leaf blowers, sometimes only within residential neighborhoods and usually targeting gasoline-powered equipment. Another 80 cities have ordinances on the books restricting either usage or noise level or both. Other cities have considered and rejected leaf blower bans. Nationwide, two states, Arizona and New Jersey, have considered laws at the state level, and five other states have at least one city with a leaf blower ordinance.

The issues usually mentioned by those who object to leaf blowers are health impacts from noise, air pollution, and dust. Municipalities regulate leaf blowers most often as public nuisances in response to citizen complaints. Two reports were located that address environmental concerns: the Orange County Grand Jury Report, and a series of reports from the City of Palo Alto City Manager's office. The City of Palo Alto reports were produced in order to make recommendations to the City Council on amending their existing ordinance. The Orange County Grand Jury took action to make recommendations to improve the quality of life in Orange County, and recommended that cities, school districts, community college districts, and the County stop using gasoline-powered leaf blowers in their maintenance and clean-up operations. The major findings of each are similar: leaf blowers produce exhaust emissions, resuspend dust, and generate high noise levels.

As per SCR 19, this report includes a comprehensive review of existing studies of the impacts of leaf blowers on leaf blower operators and on the public at large, and of the availability and actual use of protective equipment for leaf blowers. The receptors identified by the resolution are humans and the environment; sources of impacts are exhaust, noise, and dust. Because the Legislature specified that ARB use existing information, staff conducted no new studies. In order to locate existing data, staff searched the published literature, contacted potential resources and experts, and requested data from the public via mail and through a web page devoted to the leaf blower report. Two public workshops were held in El Monte, California, to facilitate further discussions with interested parties.

The methodology followed for this report depends on both the objectives of SCR 19 and available data. As staff discovered, in some areas, such as exhaust emissions, much is known; in other areas, such as fugitive dust emissions, we know very little. For both fugitive dust and noise, there are few or no data specifically on leaf blower impacts. For all hazards, there have been no dose-response studies related to emissions from leaf blowers, we do not know how many people are affected by those emissions, and no studies were located that address potential health impacts from leaf blowers. Therefore, staff determined to provide the Legislature with a report that has elements of both impact and risk assessments.

The body of the report comprises three components, following the introduction: hazard identification, review of health effects, and a characterization of the potential impacts of leaf blowers on operators and bystanders. In Section II, the emissions are quantified as to specific hazardous constituents, the number of people potentially exposed to emissions is discussed, and laws that seek to control emissions are summarized. Section III reviews health effects, identifying the range of potential negative health outcomes of exposure to the identified hazards. Section IV is a synthesis of hazard identification and health effects, characterizing potential health impacts that may be experienced by those exposed to the exhaust emissions, fugitive dust, and noise from leaf blowers in both occupational and non-occupational setting. Section V discusses recommendations. Additional information, including a discussion of research needs to make progress toward answering some of the questions raised by this report, a description of engine technologies that could reduce exhaust emissions and alternatives to leaf blowers, and a complete bibliography of materials received and consulted but not cited in the report, is found in the appendices.

Description of the Hazards

Hazard identification is the first step in an impact or risk assessment. Each of the three identified hazards are examined in turn, exhaust emissions, dust emissions, and noise. For each, the hazard is described and quantified, to the extent possible, and the number of people potentially exposed to the hazard is discussed. For exhaust emissions, the number of people potentially impacted is as high as the population of the state, differing within air basins. Fugitive dust emissions impact a varying number of people, depending on one=s proximity to the source, the size of the particles, and the amount of time since the source resuspended the particles. Finally, we also discuss laws that control the particular hazard.

Exhaust emissions from leaf blowers consist of the following specific pollutants of concern: hydrocarbons from both burned and unburned fuel, and which combine with other gases in the atmosphere to form ozone; carbon monoxide; fine particulate matter; and other toxic air contaminants in the unburned fuel, including benzene, 1,3-butadiene, acetaldehyde, and formaldehyde. Exhaust emissions from these engines, while high compared to on-road mobile sources on a per engine basis, are a small part of the overall emission inventory. Emissions have only been controlled since 1995, with more stringent standards taking effect in 2000. The exhaust emissions from leaf blowers are consistent with the exhaust emissions of other, similar off-road equipment powered by small, two-stroke engines, such as string trimmers. Manufacturers have developed several different methods to comply with the standards and have done an acceptable job certifying and producing engines that are below the regulated limits. Electric-powered models that are exhaust-free are also available.

Data on fugitive dust indicate that the PM10 emissions impacts from dust suspended by leaf blowers are small, but probably significant. Previous emission estimates range from less than 1% to 5% of the statewide PM10 inventory. The ARB previously estimated statewide fugitive dust emissions to be about 5 percent of the total, the Sacramento Metropolitan AQMD estimated leaf blower fugitive dust emissions to be about 2 percent of the Sacramento county PM10 air burden, and AeroVironment estimated dust attributable to leaf blowers in the South Coast Air Basin to be less than 1% of all fugitive dust sources. Dust emissions attributable to leaf blowers are not part of the inventory of fugitive dust sources. ARB, therefore, does not have official data on the quantity of fugitive dust resuspended by leaf blowers. A more definitive estimate of leaf blower fugitive dust emissions will require verification of appropriate calculation parameters and representative silt loadings, measurement of actual fugitive dust emissions through source testing, and identification of the composition of leaf blower-generated fugitive dust.

Noise is the general term for any loud, unmusical, disagreeable, or unwanted sound, which has the potential of causing hearing loss and other adverse health impacts. While millions of Californians are likely exposed to noise from leaf blowers as bystanders, given the ubiquity of their use and the increasing density of California cities and towns, there is presently no way of knowing for certain how many are actually exposed, because of the lack of studies. In contrast, it is likely that at least 60,000 lawn and garden workers are daily exposed to the noise from leaf blowers. Many gardeners and landscapers in southern California are aware that noise is an issue and apparently would prefer quieter leaf blowers. Purchases of quieter leaf blowers, based on manufacturer data, are increasing. While little data exist on the noise dose received on an 8-hr time-weighted-average by operators of leaf blowers, data indicate that some operators may be exposed above the OSHA permissible exposure limit. It is unlikely that more than 10% of leaf blower operators and members of the gardening crew, and probably a much lower percentage, regularly wear hearing protection, thus exposing them to an increased risk of hearing loss. The sound quality of gasoline-powered leaf blowers may account for the high level of annoyance reported by bystanders.

Review of Health Effects

Potential health effects from exhaust emissions, fugitive dust, and noise range from mild to serious. Fugitive dust is not a single pollutant, but rather is a mixture of many subclasses of pollutants, each containing many different chemical species. Many epidemiological studies have shown statistically significant associations of ambient particulate matter levels with a variety of negative health endpoints, including mortality, hospital admissions, respiratory symptoms and illness, and changes in lung function. Carbon monoxide is a component of exhaust emissions which causes health effects ranging from subtle changes to death. At low exposures, CO causes headaches, dizziness, weakness, and nausea. Children and people with heart disease are particularly at risk from CO exposure. Some toxic compounds in gasoline exhaust, in particular benzene, 1,3-butadiene, acetaldehyde, and formaldehyde, are carcinogens. Ozone, formed in the presence of sunlight from chemical reactions of exhaust emissions, primarily hydrocarbons and nitrogen dioxide, is a strong irritant and exposures can cause airway constriction, coughing, sore throat, and shortness of breath. Finally, noise exposures can damage hearing, and cause other adverse health impacts, including interference with communication, rest and sleep disturbance, changes in performance and behavior, annoyance, and other psychological and physiological changes that may lead to poor health.

Potential Health and Environmental Impacts of Leaf Blowers

Health effects from hazards identified as being generated by leaf blowers range from mild to serious, but the appearance of those effects depends on exposures: the dose, or how much of the hazard is received by a person, and the exposure time. Without reasonable estimates of exposures, ARB cannot conclusively determine the health impacts from leaf blowers; the discussion herein clearly is about potential health impacts. The goal is to direct the discussion and raise questions about the nature of potential health impacts for those exposed to the exhaust emissions, fugitive dust, and noise from leaf blowers in both occupational and non-occupational settings.

For the worker, the analysis suggests concern. Bearing in mind that the worker population is most likely young and healthy, and that these workers may not work in this business for all of their working lives, we nonetheless are cautioned by our research. Leaf blower operators may be exposed to potentially hazardous concentrations of CO and PM intermittently throughout their work day, and noise exposures may be high enough that operators are at increased risk of developing hearing loss. While exposures to CO, PM, and noise may not have immediate, acute effects, the potential health impacts are greater for long term exposures leading to chronic effects. In addition, evidence of significantly elevated concentrations of benzene and 1,3-butadiene in the breathing zone of operators leads to concern about exposures to these toxic air contaminants.

Potential noise and PM health impacts should be reduced by the use of appropriate breathing and hearing protective equipment. Employers should be more vigilant in requiring and ensuring their employees wear breathing and hearing protection. Regulatory agencies should conduct educational and enforcement campaigns, in addition to exploring the extent of the use of protective gear. Exposures to CO and other air toxics are more problematic because there is no effective air filter. More study of CO and other air toxics exposures experienced by leaf blower operators is warranted to determine whether the potential health effects discussed herein are actual effects or not.

Describing the impacts on the public at large is more difficult than for workers because people=s exposures and reactions to those exposures are much more variable. Bystanders are clearly annoyed and stressed by the noise and dust from leaf blowers. They can be interrupted, awakened, and may feel harassed, to the point of taking the time to contact public officials, complain, write letters and set up web sites, form associations, and attend city council meetings. These are actions taken by highly annoyed individuals who believe their health is being negatively impacted. In addition, some sensitive individuals may experience extreme physical reactions, mostly respiratory symptoms, from exposure to the kicked up dust.

On the other hand, others voluntarily purchase and use leaf blowers in their own homes, seemingly immune to the effects that cause other people such problems. While these owner-operators are likely not concerned about the noise and dust, they should still wear protective equipment, for example, eye protection, dust masks, and ear plugs, and their exposures to CO are a potential problem and warrant more study.

Recommendations

The Legislature asked ARB to include recommendations for alternatives in the report, if ARB determines alternatives are necessary. This report makes no recommendations for alternatives. Based on the lack of available data, such conclusions are premature at this time. Exhaust standards already in place have reduced exhaust emissions from the engines used on leaf blowers, and manufacturers have significantly reduced CO emissions further than required by the standards. Ultra-low or zero exhaust emitting leaf blowers could further reduce public and worker exposures. At the January 27, 2000, public hearing, the Air Resources Board directed staff to explore the potential for technological advancement in this area.

For noise, the ARB has no Legislative mandate to control noise emissions, but the evidence seems clear that quieter leaf blowers would reduce worker exposures and protect hearing, and reduce negative impacts on bystanders. In connection with this report, the Air Resources Board received several letters urging that the ARB or another state agency set health-based standards for noise and control noise pollution.

A more complete understanding of the noise and the amount and nature of dust resuspended by leaf blower use and alternative cleaning equipment is suggested to guide decision-making. Costs and benefits of cleaning methods have not been adequately quantified. Staff estimates that a study of fugitive dust generation and exposures to exhaust emissions and dust could cost $1.1 million, require two additional staff, and take two to three years. Adding a study of noise exposures and a comparison of leaf blowers to other cleaning equipment could increase study costs to $1.5 million or more (Appendix H).

Fugitive dust emissions are problematic. The leaf blower is designed to move relatively large materials, which requires enough force to also blow up dust particles. Banning or restricting the use of leaf blowers would reduce fugitive dust emissions, but there are no data on fugitive dust emissions from alternatives, such as vacuums, brooms, and rakes. In addition, without a more complete analysis of potential health impacts, costs and benefits of leaf blower use, and potential health impacts of alternatives, such a recommendation is not warranted.

Some have suggested that part of the problem lies in how leaf blower operators use the tool, that leaf blower operators need to show more courtesy to passersby, shutting off the blower when people are walking by. Often, operators blow dust and debris into the streets, leaving the dust to be resuspended by passing vehicles. Interested stakeholders, including those opposed to leaf blower use, could join together to propose methods for leaf blower use that reduce noise and dust generation, and develop and promote codes of conduct by workers who operate leaf blowers. Those who use leaf blowers professionally would then need to be trained in methods of use that reduce pollution and potential health impacts both for others and for themselves.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

California Senate Concurrent Resolution No. 19 (SCR 19) was introduced by Senator John Burton February 23, 1999, and chaptered May 21, 1999 (Appendix A). The resolution requests the Air Resources Board (ARB) to prepare and submit a report to the Legislature on or before January 1, 2000, "summarizing the potential health and environmental impacts of leaf blowers and including recommendations for alternatives to the use of leaf blowers and alternative leaf blower technology if the state board determines that alternatives are necessary." The Legislature, via SCR 19, raises questions and concerns about potential health and environmental impacts from leaf blowers, and requests that ARB write the report to help to answer these questions and clarify the debate. The goal of this report, then, is to summarize for the California Legislature existing data on health and environmental impacts of leaf blowers, to identify relevant questions not answered in the literature, and suggest areas for future research.

As per SCR 19, this report includes a comprehensive review of existing studies of the impacts of leaf blowers on leaf blower operators and on the public at large, and of the availability and actual use of protective equipment for leaf blowers. The receptors identified by the resolution are humans and the environment; sources of impacts are exhaust, noise, and dust. Because the Legislature specified that ARB use existing information, staff conducted no new studies. In order to locate existing data, staff searched the published literature, contacted potential resources and experts, and requested data from the public via mail and through a web page devoted to the leaf blower report.

B. History of the Leaf Blower and Local Ordinances

The leaf blower was invented by Japanese engineers in the early 1970s and introduced to the United States as a lawn and garden maintenance tool. Drought conditions in California facilitated acceptance of the leaf blower as the use of water for many garden clean-up tasks was prohibited. By 1990, annual sales were over 800,000 nationwide, and the tool had become a ubiquitous gardening implement (CQS 1999a). In 1998, industry shipments of gasoline-powered handheld and backpack leaf blowers increased 30% over 1997 shipments, to 1,868,160 units nationwide (PPEMA 1999).

Soon after the leaf blower was introduced into the U.S., its use was banned in two California cities, Carmel-by-the-Sea in 1975 and Beverly Hills in 1978, as a noise nuisance (CQS 1999a, Allen 1999b). By 1990, the number of California cities that had banned the use of leaf blowers was up to five. There are currently twenty California cities that have banned leaf blowers, sometimes only within residential neighborhoods and usually targeting gasoline-powered equipment. Another 80 cities have ordinances on the books restricting either usage or noise level or both. Other cities have considered and rejected leaf blower bans. Nationwide, two states, Arizona and New Jersey, have considered laws at the state level, and five other states have at least one city with a leaf blower ordinance (IME 1999).

Many owners of professional landscaping companies and professional gardeners believe that the leaf blower is an essential, time- and water-saving tool that has enabled them to offer services at a much lower cost than if they had to use rakes, brooms, and water to clean up the landscape (CLCA 1999). A professional landscaper argues that the customer demands a certain level of garden clean-up, regardless of the tool used (Nakamura 1999). The issues continue to be debated in various public forums, with each side making claims for the efficiency or esthetics of leaf blower use versus rakes and brooms. Leaf blower sales continue to be strong, however, despite the increase in usage restrictions by cities.

C. Environmental Concerns

The issues usually mentioned by those who object to leaf blowers are health impacts from noise, air pollution, and dust (Orange County Grand Jury 1999). The Los Angeles Times Garden Editor, Robert Smaus (1997), argues against using a leaf blower to remove dead plant material, asserting that it should be left in place to contribute to soil health through decomposition. Municipalities regulate leaf blowers most often as public nuisances in response to citizen complaints (for example, City of Los Angeles 1999). Two reports were located that address environmental concerns: an Orange County Grand Jury report (1999), and a series of reports written by the City Manager of Palo Alto (1999a, 1998a, 1998b). The purpose of the City of Palo Alto reports is to develop recommendations to the City Council on amending its existing ordinance. The Orange County Grand Jury took action to make recommendations that would Aimprove the quality of life in Orange County,≅ and recommended that cities, school districts, community college districts, and the County stop using gasoline-powered leaf blowers in their maintenance and clean-up operations. The major findings of each are similar (Table 1).

Table 1. Major Findings of the Orange County Grand Jury and City of Palo Alto

Orange County Grand Jury Report (1999)	**City of Palo Alto City Manager=s Report (1999a)**
(1) Toxic exhaust fumes and emissions are created by gas-powered leaf blowers.	(1) Gasoline-powered leaf blowers produce fuel emissions that add to air pollution.
(2) The high-velocity air jets used in blowing leaves whip up dust and pollutants. The particulate matter (PM) swept into the air by blowing leaves is composed of dust, fecal matter, pesticides, fungi, chemicals, fertilizers, spores, and street dirt which consists of lead and organic and elemental carbon.	(2) Leaf blowers (gasoline and electric) blow pollutants including dust, animal droppings, and pesticides into the air adding to pollutant problems.

(3) Blower engines generate high noise levels. Gasoline-powered leaf blower noise is a danger to the health of the blower operator and an annoyance to the non-consenting citizens in the area of usage.	(3) Leaf blowers (gasoline and electric) do produce noise levels that are offensive and bothersome to some individuals.

As will be discussed in more detail later in this report, the findings in these two reports about exhaust emissions and noise are substantiated in the scientific literature. The report=s findings regarding dust emissions, however, were not documented or based on scientific analysis of actual emissions, but were based on common sense knowledge. The City of Palo Alto continued to examine the issue, at the behest of council members, and reported revised recommendations for the use of leaf blowers in Palo Alto in September (City of Palo Alto 1999b) and January 2000 (City of Palo Alto 2000). The City of Palo Alto subsequently voted to ban the use of fuel-powered leaf blowers throughout the city as of July 1, 2001 (Zinko 2000).

D. Health and Environmental Impacts

SCR 19 asks ARB to summarize potential health and environmental impacts of leaf blowers, and thus our first task is to determine what information and analysis would comprise a summary of health and environmental impacts. The methodology followed for this report is dependent both on the objectives of SCR 19 and on the available data. As staff discovered, in some areas, such as exhaust emissions, we know much; in other areas, such as fugitive dust emissions, we know very little. For both fugitive dust and noise, there are few or no data specifically on leaf blower impacts. For all hazards, there have been no dose-response studies related to emissions from leaf blowers and we do not know how many people are affected by those emissions. Therefore, staff determined to provide the Legislature with a report that has elements of both impact and risk assessments, each of which is described below.

1. Life-cycle Impact Assessment

Life-cycle impact assessment is the examination of potential and actual environmental and human health effects related to the use of resources and environmental releases (Fava et al. 1993). A product=s life-cycle is divided into the stages of raw materials acquisition, manufacturing, distribution/transportation, use/maintenance, recycling, and waste management (Fava et al. 1991). In this case, the relevant stage of the life-cycle is use/maintenance. Life-cycle impact assessment tends to focus on relative emission loadings and resources use and does not directly or quantitatively measure or predict potential effects or identify a causal association with any effect. Identification of the significance and uncertainty of data and analyses are important (Barnthouse 1997).

2. Risk Assessment

A traditional risk assessment, on the other hand, seeks to directly and quantitatively measure or predict causal effects. A risk assessment evaluates the toxic properties of a chemical or other hazard, and the conditions of human exposure, in order to characterize the nature of effects and determine the likelihood of adverse impacts (NRC 1983). The four components of a risk assessment are:

Hazard identification: Determine the identities and quantities of chemicals present, the types of hazards they may produce, and the conditions under which exposure occurs.
Dose-response assessment: Describe the quantitative relationship between the amount of exposure to a substance (dose) and the incidence of adverse effects (response).
Exposure assessment: Identify the nature and size of the population exposed to the substance and the magnitude and duration of their exposure.
Risk characterization: Integrate the data and analyses of the first three components to determine the likelihood that humans (or other species) will experience any of the various adverse effects associated with the substance.

The goal of risk assessment is the quantitative characterization of the risk, i.e., the likelihood that a certain number of individuals will die or experience another adverse endpoint, such as injury or disease. A risk assessment is ideally followed up by risk management, which is the process of identifying, evaluating, selecting, and implementing actions to reduce risk to human health and ecosystems (Omenn et al. 1997). While a risk assessment appears to be preferable because it allows us to assign an absolute value to the adverse impacts, a quantitative assessment is difficult, if not impossible, to perform when data are limited.

E. Public Involvement

To facilitate public involvement in the process of preparing the leaf blower report, staff mailed notices using existing mailing lists for small off-road engines and other interested parties, posted a leaf blower report website, met with interested parties, and held two public workshops, in June and September, 1999. In addition to face-to-face meetings and workshops, staff contacted interested parties through numerous telephone calls and e-mails. A list of persons contacted for this report is found in Appendix B. Letters and documents submitted to the Air Resources Board as of December 15, 1999, are listed in Appendix K. The vast majority of those contacted were very helpful, opening their files and spending time answering questions. ARB staff were provided with manufacturer brochures; unpublished data; old, hard-to-find reports and letters; and given briefings and demonstrations. Many reports have been posted on the Internet, for downloading at no cost, which considerably simplified the task of tracking down significant works and greatly reduced the cost of obtaining the reports.

F. Overview of this Report

The main body of this report comprises four additional sections, followed by the references cited and appendices. Section II describes the hazards, as identified in SCR 19, from leaf blowers. Hazardous components of exhaust emissions, fugitive dust emissions, and noise are covered in turn, along with who is exposed to each hazard and how society has sought to control exposure to those hazards through laws. Section III reviews health effects of each of the hazards, with exhaust emissions subdivided into particulate matter, carbon monoxide, ozone, and toxic constituents of burned and unburned fuel. Health effects from fugitive dust are covered in the subsection on particulate matter. Section IV discusses the potential health and environmental impacts of leaf blowers, synthesizing the information presented in Sections II and III. Section V discusses recommendations. Additional information, including a discussion of research needs to make progress toward answering some of the questions raised by this report, a description of engine technologies that could reduce exhaust emissions and alternatives to gasoline-powered leaf blowers, and a complete bibliography of materials received and consulted but not cited in the report, is found in the appendix.

II. DESCRIPTION OF THE HAZARDS

This section of the report describes the three potential hazards identified by SCR 19 as resulting from leaf blowers. This report examines the three hazards that have been of most concern of the public and the Legislature. Hazard identification is the first step in an impact or risk assessment. In this section, then, each of the three identified hazards are examined in turn, exhaust emissions, dust emissions, and noise. For each, the hazard is described and quantified, and the number of people potentially exposed to the hazard is discussed. For exhaust emissions, the number of people potentially impacted is as high as the population of the state, differing within air basins. Fugitive dust emissions impact a varying number of people, depending on one=s proximity to the source, the size of the particles, and the amount of time since the source resuspended the particles. Finally, in this section we also discuss laws that control the particular hazard.

A. Exhaust Emissions

Exhaust emissions are those emissions generated from the incomplete combustion of fuel in an engine. The engines that power leaf blower equipment are predominantly two-stroke, less than 25 horsepower (hp) engines. This section describes the two-stroke engine technology prevalent in leaf blower equipment and associated emissions, reviews the leaf blower population and emission inventory data approved by the Board in 1998, and describes federal, state, and local controls on small off-road engines.

1. Characterization of Technology

Small, two-stroke gasoline engines have traditionally powered leaf blowers, and most still are today.[1] The two-stroke engine has several attributes that are advantageous for applications such as leaf blowers. Two-stroke engines are lightweight in comparison to the power they generate, and operate in any position, allowing for great flexibility in equipment applications. Multi-positional operation is made possible by mixing the lubricating oil with the fuel; the engine is, thus, properly lubricated when operated at a steep angle or even upside down.

A major disadvantage of two-stroke engines is high exhaust emissions. Typical two-stroke designs feed more of the fuel/oil mixture than is necessary into the combustion chamber. Through a process known as scavenging, the incoming fuel enters the combustion chamber as the exhaust is leaving. This timing overlap of intake and exhaust port opening can result in as much as 30% of the fuel/oil mixture being exhausted unburned. Thus, exhaust emissions consist of both unburned fuel and products of incomplete combustion. The major pollutants from a two-stroke engine are, therefore, oil-based particulates, a mixture of hydrocarbons, and carbon monoxide. A two-stroke engine forms relatively little oxides of

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[1] Unless otherwise referenced, this section makes use of material in the ARB's Small Off Road Engine staff report and attachments, identified as MSC 98-02; 1998a.

nitrogen emissions, because the extra fuel absorbs the heat and keeps peak combustion temperatures low.

Hydrocarbon emissions, in general, combine with nitrogen oxide emissions from other combustion sources to produce ozone in the atmosphere. Thus ozone, although not directly emitted, is an additional hazard from leaf blower exhaust. In addition, some of the hydrocarbons in fuel and combustion by-products are themselves toxic air contaminants, such as benzene, 1,3-butadiene, acetaldehyde, and formaldehyde (ARB 1997). The major sources of benzene emissions are gasoline fugitive emissions and motor vehicle exhaust; about 25% of benzene emissions are attributed to off-road mobile sources. Most 1,3-butadiene emissions are from incomplete combustion of gasoline and diesel fuels from mobile sources (about 96%). Sources of acetaldehyde include emissions from combustion processes and photochemical oxidation. The ARB has estimated that acetaldehyde emissions from off-road motor vehicles comprise about 27% of the total emissions. Finally, formaldehyde is a product of incomplete combustion and is also formed by photochemical oxidation; mobile sources appear to contribute a relatively small percentage of the total direct emissions of formaldehyde. Data do not exist to allow reliable estimation of toxic air contaminant emissions from small, two-stroke engine exhaust.

A small percentage of blowers utilize four-stroke engines. These blowers are typically "walk-behind" models, used to clean large parking lots and industrial facilities, rather than lawns and driveways. Overall, the engines used in these blowers emit significantly lower emissions than their two-stroke counterparts, with significantly lower levels of hydrocarbons and particulate matter. These four-stroke blower engines have a significantly lower population than the traditional two-stroke blowers and only peripherally fit the definition or commonly-accepted meaning of the term "leaf blower." They are mentioned here only for completeness, but are not otherwise separately addressed in this report.

2. Exhaust Emissions

a. Leaf Blower Population

The best estimates available indicate that there are approximately 410,000 gasoline-powered blowers in use in the state today. Less than 5,000 of those use four-stroke engines; the remainder (99%) utilize two-stroke engines. These data have been developed from information gathered through the development and implementation of ARB's small off-road engine regulation. Since the small off-road engine regulation does not apply to blowers powered by electric motors, data regarding the number of electric blowers are not as extensive. However, information shared by the handheld power equipment industry indicates that approximately 60 percent of blowers sold are electric. This would indicate that there are approximately 600,000 electric blowers in California. It must be stressed that the majority of the blower population being electric does not imply that the majority of usage accrues to electric blowers. In fact, electric blowers are more likely to be used by homeowners for occasional use, whereas virtually all professional gardeners use engine-powered blowers.

b. Emission Inventory

California=s emission inventory is an estimate of the amount and types of criteria pollutants and ozone precursors emitted by all sources of air pollution. The emission inventory method and inputs for small off-road engines, with power ratings of less than 25 hp, were approved by the Board in 1998 (ARB 1998b) (Table 2). Exhaust emissions from leaf blowers contribute from one to nine percent of the small-off road emissions, depending on the type of pollutant, based on the 2000 emissions data. Exhaust emission standards for small off-road engines, which will be implemented beginning in 2000, will result in lower emissions in the future. By 2010, for example, hydrocarbon emissions are expected to shrink by 40% statewide, while CO declines by 35% and PM10 drops 90%. The reductions reflect the replacement of today's blowers with cleaner blowers meeting the 2000 standards.

Table 2. Statewide Inventory of Leaf Blower Exhaust Emissions (tons per day)

	Leaf blowers 2000	**Leaf blowers 2010**	**All Lawn & Garden, 2000**	**All Small Off-Road, 2000**
Hydrocarbons, reactive	7.1	4.2	50.24	80.07
Carbon Monoxide (CO)	16.6	9.8	434.99	1046.19
Fine Particulate Matter (PM10)	0.2	0.02	1.05	3.17

3. Regulating Exhaust Emissions

a. State Regulations

The California Clean Air Act, codified in the Health and Safety Code Sections 43013 and 43018, was passed in 1988 and grants the ARB authority to regulate off-road mobile source categories, including leaf blowers. The federal Clean Air Act requires states to meet national ambient air quality standards (Appendix C) under a schedule established in the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990. Because many air basins in California do not meet some of these standards, the State regularly prepares and submits to the U.S. EPA a plan that specifies measures it will adopt into law to meet the national standards. Other feasible measures not specified in the state implementation plan may also be adopted as needed.

In December 1990, the Board approved emission control regulations for new small off-road engines used in leaf blowers and other applications. The regulations took effect in 1995, and include exhaust emission standards, emissions test procedures, and provisions for warranty and production compliance programs. In March of 1998, the ARB amended the standards to be implemented with the 2000 model year (ARB 1998a). Table 3 illustrates how the standards compare with uncontrolled engines for leaf blower engines. Note that there was no particulate matter standard for 1995-1999 model year leaf blowers, but that a standard will be imposed beginning with the 2000 model year.

Among other features of the small off-road engine regulations is a requirement that production engines be tested to ensure compliance. Examination of the certification data confirms that manufacturers have been complying with the emissions regulations; in fact, engines that have been identified as being used in blowers tend to emit hydrocarbons at levels that are 10 to 40 percent below the existing limits. This performance is consistent with engines used in string trimmers, edgers, and other handheld-type equipment, which are, in many cases, the same engine models used in leaf blowers.

Table 3
Exhaust Emissions Per Engine for Leaf Blowers
(grams per brake-horsepower-hour, g/bhp-hr)

	Uncontrolled Emissions	1995-1999 Standards[2]	2000 and later Standards
HC+NOx	283 + 1.0	180 + 4.0	54[3]
CO	908	600	400
PM	3.6	---[4]	1.5

b. Federal Regulations

Although the federal regulations for mobile sources have traditionally followed the ARB's efforts, the U.S. EPA has taken advantage of some recent developments in two-stroke engine technology. Specifically, compression wave technology has been applied to two-stroke engines, making possible much lower engine emissions. Bolstered by this information, the U.S. EPA (1999a) has proposed standards for blowers and other similar equipment that would be more stringent than the ARB standards. ARB plans a general review of off-road engine technology by 2001, and will consider the implications of this new technology in more detail then. A short description is included in Appendix I.

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[2]Applicable to engines of 20-50 cc displacement, used by the vast majority of leaf blowers.

[3]For yr 2000, the HC + NOx standards have been combined.

[4]There was no particulate standard for this time period.

c. South Coast AQMD Emissions Credit Program

The South Coast Air Quality Management District (SCAQMD), an extreme non-attainment area for ozone, has promulgated Rule 1623 - Credits for Clean Lawn and Garden Equipment. Rule 1623 provides mobile source emission reduction credits for those who voluntarily replace old high-polluting lawn and garden equipment with new low- or zero-emission equipment or who sell new low- or zero-emission equipment without replacement. The intent of the rule is to accelerate the retirement of old high-polluting equipment and increase the use of new low- or zero-emission equipment. In 1990, volatile organic carbon emissions from lawn and garden equipment in the South Coast Air Basin were 22 tons per day (SCAQMD 1996). To date, no entity has applied for or received credits under Rule 1623 (V. Yardemian, pers. com.)

4. Summary

Exhaust emissions from leaf blowers consist of the following specific pollutants of concern: hydrocarbons from both burned and unburned fuel, and which combine with other gases in the atmosphere to form ozone; carbon monoxide; fine particulate matter; and other toxic air contaminants, including benzene, 1,3-butadiene, acetaldehyde, and formaldehyde. Exhaust emissions from these engines, while high compared to on-road mobile sources on a per engine basis, are a small part of the overall emission inventory. Emissions have only been controlled since 1995, with more stringent standards taking effect in 2000. The exhaust emissions from leaf blowers are consistent with the exhaust emissions of other, similar off-road equipment powered by small, two-stroke engines, such as string trimmers. Manufacturers have developed several different methods to comply with the standards and have done an acceptable job certifying and producing engines that are below the regulated limits. Electric-powered models that are exhaust-free are also available.

B. Fugitive Dust Emissions

ABlown dust≅ is the second of the hazards from leaf blowers specified in SCR 19. For the purposes of this report, we will use the term Afugitive dust,≅ which is consistent with the terminology used by the ARB. This section, in addition to defining fugitive dust emissions, characterizes fugitive dust resuspended by leaf blowers by comparing previous estimates of emission factors (amount emitted per hour per leaf blower) and emissions inventory (amount resuspended per day by all leaf blowers statewide) to a current estimate, developed for this report. In addition, the potential composition of leaf blower dust and fugitive dust controls at the state and local levels are described.

1. Definition of Fugitive Dust Emissions

From the Glossary of Air Pollution Terms, available on the ARB=s website,[5] the following definitions are useful:

Fugitive Dust: Dust particles that are introduced into the air through certain activities such as soil cultivation, or vehicles operating on open fields or dirt roadways; a subset of fugitive emissions.

Fugitive Emissions: Emissions not caught by a capture system (often due to equipment leaks, evaporative processes, and windblown disturbances).

Particulate Matter (PM): Any material, except uncombined water, that exists in the solid or liquid state in the atmosphere. The size of particulate matter can vary from coarse, wind-blown dust particles to fine particle combustion products.

Fugitive dust is a subset of particulate matter, which is a complex mixture of large to small particles that are directly emitted or formed in the air. Current control efforts focus on PM small enough to be inhaled, generally those particles smaller than 10 micrometers (Φm). So-called coarse particles are those larger than 2.5 Φm in diameter, and are directly emitted from activities that disturb the soil, including construction, mining, agriculture, travel on roads, and landfill operations, plus windblown dust, pollen, spores, sea salts, and rubber from brake and tire wear. Those with diameters smaller than 2.5 Φm are called fine particles. Fine particles remain suspended in the air for long periods and can travel great distances. They are formed mostly from combustion sources, such as vehicles, boilers, furnaces, and fires, with a small dust component. Fine particles can be directly emitted as soot or formed in the atmosphere as combustion products react with gases from other sources (Finlayson-Pitts & Pitts 1986).

Dust emissions from leaf blowers are not part of the inventory of fugitive dust sources. ARB, therefore, does not have official data on the quantity of fugitive dust resuspended by leaf blowers. No data on the amount and size distributions of resuspended dust from leaf blower activities have been collected, although estimates have been made. ARB evaluated three previous estimates (McGuire 1991, Botsford et al. 1996, Covell 1998) and developed a proposed methodology for estimating fugitive dust emissions from leaf blowers. The estimate presented below begins with the assumptions and calculations contained in the study conducted for the SCAQMD by AeroVironment (Botsford et al. 1996). Additional methodologies and data have been reviewed and derived from the U.S. EPA document commonly termed AP-42, and reports by the Midwest Research Institute; University of California, Riverside; and the Desert Research Institute.

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[5] http://arbis.arb.ca.gov/html/gloss.htm

2. Calculating Leaf Blower Emissions

There are more than 400,000 gasoline-powered leaf blowers, plus approximately 600,000 electric leaf blowers, that are operated an estimated 114,000 hours per day in California. The fundamental premise in the calculations below is that leaf blowers are designed to move relatively large materials such as leaves and other debris, and hence can also be expected to entrain into the air much smaller particles, especially those below 30 Φm diameter, which are termed total suspended particulate (PMtsp). Subsets of PMtsp include PM10, particulates with diameters less than or equal to 10 Φm, and PM2.5, particulates with diameters less than or equal to 2.5 Φm. Particles below 30 Φm are not visible to the naked eye. Note that PM10 includes PM2.5 particles, and PMtsp includes PM10 and PM2.5 particles.

a. Generation of Fugitive Dust by Leaf Blowers

The leaf blower moves debris such as leaves by pushing relatively large volumes of air, typically between 300-700 cubic feet per minute, at a high wind speed, typically 150 to 280 miles per hour (hurricane wind speed is >117 mph). A typical surface is covered with a layer of dust that is spread, probably non-uniformly, along the surface being cleaned. While the intent of a leaf blower operator may not be to move dust, the high wind speed and volume result in small particles being blown into the air. In order to calculate how much fugitive dust is generated by the action of a blower, we assume that this layer of dust can be represented by a single average number, the silt loading. This silt loading value, when combined with the amount of ground cleaned per unit time and the estimated PM weight fractions, produces estimates of fugitive dust emissions from leaf blowers.

Staff have located no fugitive dust measurement studies on leaf blowers, but have found previous calculations of fugitive dust estimates from leaf blowers. Based on a review of those estimates, staff applied the latest knowledge and research in related fields in order to derive a second-order approximation. This section presents the best estimates using existing data, while recognizing that estimates are only approximations. Variables that would affect fugitive dust emissions, and for which ARB has little or no empirical data, include, for example:

(1) the specific surface types on which leaf blowers are used;
(2) the percentage of use on each specific surface type;
(3) effects of moisture, humidity, and temperature;
(4) silt loading values for surfaces other than paved roadways, shoulders, curbs, and gutters and in different areas of the state; and
(5) measurements of the amount of surface cleaned per unit time by the average operator.

Other variables are not expected to greatly influence fugitive dust emissions; the hurricane-force winds generated by leaf blowers are expected to overcome such influences, for example, as the roughness of relatively flat surfaces and the effect of particle static charge.

b. Size Segregation of Particulate Matter

PM emissions can be subdivided into the following three categories, operator emissions, local emissions, and regional emissions. They are differentiated as follows:

1) Operator emissions. PMtsp emissions approximate emissions to which the operator is exposed. The larger of these particles, between approximately 10 and 30 Φm, have relatively short settling times, on the order of minutes to a couple of hours, maximum (Finlayson-Pitts & Pitts 1986, Gillies et al. 1996, Seinfeld & Pandis 1998). These would be emissions to which both the leaf blower operator and passersby would be exposed.

2) Local emissions. PM10 emissions will be used to estimate "local" PM emissions. PM10, which includes particles at or below 10 Φm, may remain suspended for hours to days in the atmosphere (Finlayson-Pitts & Pitts 1986, Gillies et al. 1996, Seinfeld & Pandis 1998). These are emissions to which persons in the near-downwind-vicinity would be exposed, for example, residents whose lawns are being serviced and their neighbors, persons in commercial buildings whose landscapes are being maintained or serviced, and persons within a few blocks of the source.

3) Regional emissions. PM2.5 emissions may remain suspended for as long as a week or more (Finlayson-Pitts & Pitts 1986, Gillies, et al. 1996, Seinfeld & Pandis 1998). These particles are sized at or below 2.5 Φm, and hence can be considered as contributors to regional PM emissions over a county or air basin because of their long residence time.

c. Calculation Assumptions and Limitations

The method presented uses the following assumptions.

1) Methods used for estimating wind blown dust for paved roads can be applied to estimating fugitive dust emissions from leaf blowers. That is, one can use an "AP-42" type (U.S. EPA 1997) of approach that calculates dust emissions based on the silt loading of the surfaces in question.

2) The typical leaf blower generates sufficient wind speed to cause sidewalk/roadway dust, in particular, particles 30 μm or less in aerodynamic diameter, to become airborne. The AeroVironment study (Botsford et al. 1996) assumed that nozzle air velocities ranged from 120 to 180 mph, and calculated that wind speed at the ground would range from 24 mph to 90 mph, sufficient to raise dust and equivalent, at the middle to high end speeds, to gale-force winds.

3) Currently available paved road, roadside shoulder, and gutter silt loadings (Venkatram & Fitz 1998) can be used to calculate emissions from leaf blowers, as there are no data on silt loadings on other surfaces. Observations and communications with landscapers indicate that leaf blowers are most commonly used to clean hardscape surfaces, such as sidewalks, after lawns and

flower beds have been trimmed and cuttings left on hardscapes. Debris is then frequently blown into the roadway before being collected for disposal.

4) The size fractions for particles for paved road dust can be used to calculate emissions from leaf blowers (G. Muleski, pers. comm.). The ratios of particle size multipliers, or Ak≅ factors, are used to estimate the weight fraction of windblown dust for leaf blower usage. The Ak≅ factor is a dimensionless value that represents the percentage of the total dust loading that is of a certain size fraction (MRI 1997).

5) Silt loading values and usage are assumed to be the same for residential and commercial leaf blower use. In an earlier draft, ARB staff had proposed different silt loading values for residential and commercial leaf blowers; comments were received that indicated that heavier-duty commercial leaf blowers were used in the same way in both residential and commercial settings. In addition, data on nozzle air speeds indicate that most electric leaf blowers, targeted at homeowners, have air speeds at or above 120 mph, the lowest air speed considered in the AeroVironment report (Botsford et al. 1996) as capable of raising dust.

6) The weight of total suspended particulates is equivalent to 100% of the silt loading, the weight fraction that comprises PM10 is 19% of the total, and the weight fraction comprising PM2.5 is 9% of the total (U.S. EPA 1997, MRI 1997, G. Muleski, pers. com). A recent study, however, found that 50-70% of the mass of PMtsp of paved road dust at three southern California locations is present in the PM10 fraction (Miguel et al. 1999), so more data would be helpful.

A final limitation is the recognition that emissions inventories are estimates of the unknown and unknowable actual emissions inventory. An earlier draft of this report was criticized as providing only estimates of emissions, and not actual emissions, when in fact all emissions inventories are based on models developed through scientific research on how the chemicals behave in the atmosphere, limited testing to determine emission factors, and industry-provided data on the population and usage of each particular source of air pollution. Each generation of emission inventories is an improvement over the one previous as assumptions are examined, tested, and modified. As discussed earlier, the estimate in this report builds on previous estimates.

d. Calculation Methodology

The proposed emissions estimation methodology uses measured silt loadings (Venkatram & Fitz 1998) and size fraction multipliers for PM10 and PM2.5 (U.S. EPA 1997, MRI 1997, G. Muleski, pers. com.).

$$EF_{size} = (sL)\ (Q)\ (f_{size})$$

where:

EF_{size} = PM30, or PM10, or PM2.5 emission factors;

sL = silt loading fraction, from ARB (1998b);

Q = amount of ground cleaned per unit time, estimated to be 1,600 m^2/hr, corresponding to a forward speed of 1 mph, with the operator sweeping the blower in a one meter arc;
f_{size}= fraction of PMtsp dust loading that comprises PM10 (0.19) or PM2.5 (0.09).

Silt loading values are the critical parameter in the calculation. ARB has chosen, for this emissions estimate, to use recent data from a study conducted for the ARB by a team at the University of California, Riverside (Venkatram & Fitz 1998) (Table 4). As data were collected only in Riverside County, it is not known how representative they are of other areas of the state or of substrates cleaned by leaf blowers. The data are, however, the most complete we have to date. Because the data are not normally distributed, the median and 95% percentile samples for silt loading are used to represent the data set in calculations.

Table 4
Silt Loading Values, Riverside County
(grams per square meter, g/m²)

Roadway Type	Material Loading, Median	Silt Loading, Median (95%)	Range of Silt Loading Values
Paved Road	108.44	0.16 (6.34)	0.003-107.596
Roadway Shoulders	481.08	3.33 (15.73)	0.107-23.804
Curbs and Gutters	144.92	3.39 (132.94)	0.97-556.65

3. Characterization of Fugitive Dust Emissions

This section includes results from this present analysis, as well as results from previous estimates prepared by the ARB and others for comparison.

a. <u>Emission Factors - This Study</u>

Possible emission factors have been calculated for leaf blower use on paved roadways, roadway shoulders, and curbs and gutters (Table 5). Two emission factors are presented for each surface and particle size, based on the median and 95th percentile of the empirical silt loading data. The resulting range for PM10 is from 48.6 to 1030.6 g/hr for PM10, for example, depending on the surface cleaned. Cleaning of curbs and gutters generates the highest emission factors, whereas paved roadways and shoulders are lower. As discussed before, staff have no data on which to base emission factors for sidewalks, driveways, lawns, or flower beds.

Table 5. Leaf Blower Estimated Emission Factors, This Study (grams per hour, g/hr)

Emission Factor	Paved Roadway, Median (95%)	Shoulders, Median (95%)	Curbs/Gutters, Median (95%)
Total Suspended Particulate	256.0 (10,144.0)	5,328 (25,168)	5,424 (212,704)
PM10	48.6 (1,927.4)	1,012.3 (4,781.9)	1,030.6 (40,413.8)
PM2.5	23.0 (913.0)	479.5 (2,265.0)	488.2 (19,143.4)

b. Statewide Emissions Inventory - This Study

Three potential statewide emissions inventory values (Table 6), in tons per day (tpd), have been calculated by multiplying the median emissions factors, shown above, by the hours of operation for each of three different substrates: paved roadways, paved shoulders, and paved curbs/gutters, based on the Riverside data. From the statewide emissions inventory, the total number of hours of operation in the year 2000 are estimated to be 113,740 hr/day, or 97,302 hr/day for gasoline-powered leaf blowers plus 16,438 hr/day for electric leaf blowers.[6]

Table 6. Leaf Blower Emissions, Possible Statewide Values, This Study (tons per day, tpd)

Emissions Inventory	Paved Roadway, Median	Shoulders, Median	Curbs/Gutters, Median
Total Suspended Particulates	32.1	667.4	679.4
PM10	6.1	126.8	129.1
PM2.5	2.9	60.1	61.2

The goal in developing an emissions inventory is to derive one statewide emissions inventory number for each category of particulate sizes, which can then be subdivided by air basin or air district. Ideally, ARB would have developed emissions factors for each surface cleaned by leaf blowers, and apportioned the emissions based on the percentage of hours spent cleaning each surface annually. Table 6, however, presents an array of values because staff have no data on the percentage of time spent cleaning various surfaces. For comparison, the 1996

[6]On a per-unit basis, electric blowers are assumed to be used 10 hr/yr.

statewide PM10 estimated emission inventory was 2,400 tpd; estimates for paved road dust, unpaved road dust, and fugitive windblown dust were 400, 610, and 310 tpd, respectively. Based on the estimates in Table 6, then, PM10 emissions impacts from leaf blower use could range from insignificant (0.25%) to significant (5.4%), on a statewide basis. Additional study is required to refine the analysis and develop a statewide emission inventory.

c. Previous Emissions Estimates: ARB, 1991

The ARB's Technical Support Division, in a July 9, 1991 response to a request from Richard G. Johnson, Chief of the Air Quality Management Division at the Sacramento Metropolitan Air Quality Management District, prepared a leaf blower emissions estimate in grams per hour of dust (McGuire 1991). PM10 emissions were reported as being 1,180 g/hr, or 2.6 lb/hr, which is the same order of magnitude as the present study's calculated emission factors for roadway shoulders and curbs/gutters (Table 5). If this emission factor is combined with current statewide hours-of-operation data of 113,740 hr/day of leaf blower usage, this would produce an emission inventory of 147.8 tpd of PM10, similar to the present study's inventory for shoulders and curbs/gutters (Table 6).

d. Previous Emissions Estimates: SMAQMD

Sacramento Metropolitan Air Quality Metropolitan District (SMAQMD) staff (Covell 1998) estimated that "Dust Emissions (leaf blowers only)" are 3.2 tpd in Sacramento County. The memo included commercial and residential leaf blower populations (1,750 commercial and 15,750 residential), and hours of use (275 hr/yr for commercial and 10 hr/yr for residential). Using these values one can calculate the assumed g/hr emission factor for particulate matter. The resulting emission factor is 1,680 g/hr, or 3.7 lb/hr. The resulting statewide emission inventory is 210.4 tpd, higher than this study's estimates (Tables 5 & 6).

e. Previous Emissions Estimates: AeroVironment

The South Coast AQMD commissioned AeroVironment to determine emission factors and preliminary emission inventories for sources of fugitive dust previously uninventoried; leaf blowers were one of the categories examined (Botsford et al. 1996). The study focused on PM10, and did not include field measurements. The study assumed that each leaf blower was used, at most, one day per week to clean 92.9 m^2 (1000 ft^2) of ground. Silt loading was assumed to be 1.42 g/m^2. Combining these two values yields an emission factor of 5.5 g/hr. With an estimated 60,000 leaf blowers in the South Coast Air Basin, AeroVironment calculated an emission inventory of 8.6 tpd, just for the South Coast AQMD, more than double the basin-wide inventory calculated for the Sacramento Metropolitan AQMD (above). The obvious difference between this estimate and the others summarized herein is the assumption that each leaf blower is used for no more than one day per week and is used to clean an area equivalent to only one front yard (20 ft by 50 ft); as commercial gardeners could not make a living cleaning one front yard once per week, this figure is obviously much too low. It is, however, coincidentally similar to the present study=s estimate for paved roadways (Table 6).

4. Particulate Composition

Substances such as fecal material, fertilizers, fungal spores, pesticides, herbicides, pollen, and other biological substances have been alleged to make up the dust resuspended by leaf blower usage (Orange County Grand Jury 1999), and thus staff looked for data on the composition of particulate matter. Little information is available. Suspended paved road dust is a major contributor to airborne particulate matter in Los Angeles and other cities (Miguel et al. 1999). Staff considered, therefore, size-segregated chemical speciation profiles for paved road dust to chemically characterize leaf blower PM emissions. The chemical speciation profiles for paved road dust show small percentages of the toxic metals arsenic, chromium, lead, and mercury. In addition to soil particles, paved road dust emissions may contain contributions from tire and brake wear particles. Paved road dust chemical speciation, however, characterizes the dust by elemental composition, and was not useful in estimating health impacts for this assessment. ARB's chemical speciation profile for paved road dust is presented in Appendix D for information.

Recently, however, researchers published a study on allergans in paved road dust and airborne particles (Miguel et al. 1999). The authors found that biologic materials from at least 20 different source materials known to be capable of causing or exacerbating allergenic disease in humans are found in paved road dust, including pollens and pollen fragments, animal dander, and molds. Allergen concentrations in the air are increased above the levels that would otherwise occur in the absence of suspension by passing traffic. The authors conclude that paved road dust is a ubiquitous mixed source of allergenic material, resuspended by passing traffic, and to which virtually the entire population is exposed. The applicability of this study to particulate matter resuspension by leaf blower usage is unknown, but it is likely that leaf blowers would be as effective at resuspending paved road dust as automobiles. Information on the characteristics of other sources of resuspended particulates, for example lawns and gardens, is unfortunately lacking.

5. Regulating Fugitive Dust Emissions

Fugitive dust emissions are generally regulated as a nuisance, although PM10 and PM2.5 are specifically addressed through the state planning process as criteria air pollutants. There are no explicit federal, state, or local regulations governing leaf blower fugitive dust emissions.

a. State and Federal PM10 and PM2.5 Standards

The California and Federal ambient air quality standards for PM10 and PM2.5 are located in Appendix C. Any state that has air basins not in attainment with the standards must submit a plan to U.S. EPA on how they will achieve compliance. For California, most of the state violates the PM10 standard; attainment status has not yet been determined for the new PM2.5 standard (promulgated July 18, 1997 and under challenge in the courts). California, and its air districts, is therefore required to control sources of PM10, including fugitive dust.

b. Local District Regulations

Many air districts have a fugitive dust control rule that prohibits activities that generate dust beyond the property line of an operation. For example, the SCAQMD Rule 403 states: AA person shall not cause or allow the emissions of fugitive dust from any active operation, open storage pile, or undisturbed surface area such that the presence of such dust remains visible in the atmosphere beyond the property line of the emission source.≅ In addition, rules may place limits on the amount of PM10 that can be detected downwind of an operation that generates fugitive dust; for SCAQMD that limit is 50 $\Phi g/m^3$ [SCAQMD Rule 403]. The Mojave AQMD limits PM emissions to 100 $\Phi g/m^3$ [Mojave AQMD Rule 403]. Others, such as the San Joaquin Unified APCD, define and limit visible emissions (40% opacity) from activities that generate fugitive dust emissions [SJUAPCD Rule 8020]. Finally, another approach is to simply request individuals take reasonable precautions to prevent visible particulate matter emissions from moving beyond the property from which the emissions originate [Great Basin Unified APCD Rule 401].

6. Summary

Data on fugitive dust indicate that the PM10 emissions impacts from dust suspended by leaf blowers are small, but probably significant. Previous emission estimates range from less than 1% to 5% of the statewide PM10 inventory. The ARB previously estimated statewide fugitive dust emissions to be about 5 percent of the total, the Sacramento Metropolitan AQMD estimated leaf blower fugitive dust emissions to be about 2 percent of the Sacramento county PM10 air burden, and AeroVironment estimated dust attributed to leaf blowers in the South Coast Air Basin to be less than 1% of all fugitive dust sources. Dust emissions attributable to leaf blowers are not part of the inventory of fugitive dust sources. ARB, therefore, does not have official data on the quantity of fugitive dust resuspended by leaf blowers. A more definitive estimate of leaf blower fugitive dust emissions will require research to verify appropriate calculation parameters, determine representative silt loadings, measure actual fugitive dust emissions through source testing, and identify the chemical composition of leaf blower-generated fugitive dust.

C. Noise Emissions

The third of the hazards from leaf blowers identified in SCR 19 is noise. This section defines noise, describes the physical properties of sound and how sound loudness is measured, discusses noise sources, the numbers of Californians potentially exposed to noise, and how noise is regulated at the federal, state, and local levels, and addresses specific sound loudness and quality from leaf blowers. In addition, the incidence of the use of hearing protection, and other personal protective equipment, by leaf blower operators is described.

1. Defining Noise

Noise is the general term for any loud, unmusical, disagreeable, or unwanted sound. In addition to damaging hearing, noise causes other adverse health impacts, including interference with communication, rest and sleep disturbance, changes in performance and behavior, annoyance, and other psychological and physiological changes that may lead to poor health (Berglund & Lindvall 1995). In this report, noise will be used to refer both to unwanted sounds and sounds that damage hearing. The two characteristics, although related, do not always occur together.

The effects of sound on the ear are determined by its quality, which consists of the duration, intensity, frequency, and overtone structure, and the psychoacoustic variables of pitch, loudness, and tone quality or timbre, of the sound. Long duration, high intensity sounds are the most damaging and usually perceived as the most annoying. High frequency sounds, up to the limit of hearing, tend to be more annoying and potentially more hazardous than low frequency sounds. Intermittent sounds appear to be less damaging than continuous noise because the ear appears to be able to recover, or heal, during intervening quiet periods. Random, intermittent sounds, however, may be more annoying, although not necessarily hazardous, because of their unpredictability (Suter 1991).

The context of the sound is also important. While certain sounds may be desirable to some people, for example, music at an outdoor party, others may consider them noise, for example, those trying to sleep. Even desirable sounds, such as loud music, may cause damage to hearing and would be considered noise in this context. Thus, not only do loudness, pitch, and impulsiveness of sound determine whether the sound is noise, but also the time of day, duration, control (or lack thereof), and even one=s personality determine whether sounds are unwanted or not.

The physical and psychoacoustic characteristics of sound, and thus noise, are described in more detail in Appendix E. The discussion is focused on information necessary for the reader to understand how sound is measured, and clarify measures of leaf blower sound. The interested reader is referred for more information to any physics or acoustic reference book, or the works referred to herein.

2. Measuring the Loudness of Sound

The weakest intensity of sound a health human ear can detect has an amplitude of 20 millionths of a Pascal[7] (20 μPa). The loudest sound the human ear can tolerate, the threshold of pain, has an amplitude ten million times larger, or 200,000,000 μPa. The range of sound intensity between the faintest and the loudest audible sounds is so large that sound pressures are expressed using a logarithmically compressed scale, termed the decibel (dB) scale. The decibel is simply a unit of comparison between two sound pressures. In most cases, the reference sound pressure is the acoustical zero, or the lower limit of hearing. The decibel scale converts sound pressure levels (SPL) to a logarithmic scale, relative to 20 ΦPa (Figure 1).

$$SPL,\ dB = 10\ \log_{10}(P^2/P_o^2)$$

Where P is the pressure fluctuation in Pascals,
P_o is the reference pressure; usually 20 ΦPa.

Thus, from this relationship, each doubling of sound pressure levels results in an increase of 6 dB. From the relationship between sound intensity and distance (Appendix E), we find also that doubling the distance between the speaker (source) and listener (receiver), drops the level of the sound by approximately 6 dB. Sound pressure levels are not directly additive, however, but must first be expressed as mean square pressures before adding (Berglund & Lindvall 1995). The equation is as follows:

$$SPL = 10\ \log_{10}[10^{SPL_1/10} + 10^{SPL_2/10} + ... + 10^{SPL_x/10}]$$

For example, if two sound sources have SPLs of 80 dB and 90 dB, then the resulting sound pressure is 90.4 dB. Adding two sounds with the same SPL, for example 90 dB, increases the total SPL by 3 dB, to 93 dB.

a. Loudness Description

Sound pressure level, however, does not completely describe loudness, which is a subjective perception of sound intensity. Loudness increases with intensity, but is also dependent on frequency. Thus the human ear may not perceive a six dB increase as twice as loud. In general, people are more sensitive to sounds in the middle of the range of hearing, from around 200 Hz to 5000 Hz. Fletcher and Munson (1933) first established the 1000-Hz tone as the standard sound against which other tones would be judged for loudness. Later, Stevens (1955) proposed that the unit of loudness be termed the sone, and that one sone be ascribed to a 1000-Hz

[7]Other units used to represent an equivalent sound pressure include 0.0002 Φbar, 0.0002 dyne/cm^2, and 20 ΦN/m^2.

tone set at a SPL of 40 dB under specified listening conditions. On the sone scale, a sound twice as loud as one sone would be two sones, four times as loud would be four sones, and so on.

Equal loudness contours, identified in units of phons, demonstrate how the SPL, in dB, of a tone must be varied to maintain the perception of constant loudness. Ideally, sound measurement meters would give a reading equal to loudness in phons, but because phons are based on human perception, and perception process will vary from individual to individual, this has not been practical until recently (Berglund & Lindvall 1995). Loudness is still measured in decibels, however, following past practices. Various filters have been devised to approximate the frequency characteristics of the human ear, by weighting sound pressure level measurements as a function of frequency. Several weighting systems have been developed, but the one in most common use is the A-weighted filter, with sound pressure levels commonly expressed as dBA. Loudness levels range from about 20 dB (24-hr average) in very quiet rural areas, to between 50 and 70 dB during the daytime in cities. Additional examples of typical loudness measures are illustrated in Figure 1.

Perceived Sound Level	Sound Level: dB	Sound Level: μPa	Examples	Leaf Blower Reference
PAINFULLY LOUD	160	$2x10^9$	fireworks at 3 feet	
	150		jet at takeoff	
	140	$2x10^8$	threshold of pain	OSHA limit for impulse noise
UNCOMFORTABLY LOUD	130		power drill	
	120	$2x10^7$	thunder	
	110		auto horn at 1 meter	90-105 dB leaf blower at operators ear
	100	$2x10^6$	snowmobile	
VERY LOUD	90		diesel truck, food blender	90 dB OSHA permissible exposure limit
	80	$2x10^5$	garbage disposal	
MODERATELY LOUD	70		vacuum cleaner	62-75 dB Leaf blower at 50 feet
	60	$2x10^4$	ordinary conversation	
	50		average home	
QUIET	40	$2x10^3$	library	
	30		quiet conversation	
VERY QUIET	20	$2x10^2$	soft whisper	
	10		rustling leaves	
BARELY AUDIBLE	0	$2x10^1$	threshold of hearing	dB= decibels μPa= micro Pascals

Fig. I. Comparison of sound levels in the environment