

# Evaluating the effectiveness of a stove exchange programme on $PM_{2.5}$ emission reduction

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## Abstract

Residential wood combustion (RWC) is one of the most important sources of particulate matter ( $PM$ ) in urban areas. As a consequence, different types of regulatory instruments are being implemented to reduce emissions. In this study, we evaluate both the potential and actual effect of a subsidy programme for stove exchange, which has been in place for over 20 years in Oslo (Norway). The subsidy programme provides economic support to the inhabitants for substituting old stoves for RWC with new and cleaner stoves as a measure to reduce  $PM$  emissions. Different approaches were selected to assess the potential effect of the Oslo subsidy programme. First, we evaluate the potential for reductions in emissions and pollution levels through the use of emission and dispersion modelling under different scenarios. We then assess the actual reductions associated with the stoves already replaced with the subsidy. We conclude the study by evaluating the time variation (2005 to 2018) in emissions, wood consumption and emission factors in Oslo in comparison with other municipalities with and without subsidy programmes in place. Results from emission and dispersion modelling show that the replacement of old wood stoves for new ones could have a significant effect on the reduction of emissions (up to 46%) and  $PM_{2.5}$  levels (up to 21%). Despite that, with near 8% of the total existing stoves in Oslo being exchanged with subsidy, the potential for reduction based on improved emission factors was estimated to be smaller by an order of magnitude. We find no evidence that municipalities with subsidy reduce emissions faster than those without subsidy. We therefore conclude that there is no evidence from our modelling results, supported by available observation data, that indicate that the emissions or concentrations in Oslo have been reduced as a result of the subsidy programme.

*Keywords:* Air Quality, MetVed Emissions, Stove Exchange Subsidy, Residential Wood Combustion,  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions,

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## 1. Introduction

RWC is an extensive heating source in Nordic countries, and these countries are concerned about local  $PM$  levels, especially  $PM_{2.5}$  in winter. Emissions from residential heating in

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11 the Nordic area (except in Island) are dominated by RWC, which is responsible for 50  
12 to 80% of the  $PM_{2.5}$  levels (1, 2, 3). Apart from the Nordic area, the use of wood for  
13 heating is also increasing in the rest of Europe and also North America, mostly driven by  
14 government incentives, the rising cost of other energy sources and the public perception that  
15 RWC is a green energy source (4, 5). In Portugal, RWC has been reported to contribute  
16 18% to  $PM_{10}$  levels (6). In Austria during winter months, wood smoke was found to be  
17 responsible for around 10% of the  $PM_{10}$  levels around Vienna, and around 20% in rural areas.  
18 Different studies have published compilations of studies on RWC contributions to ambient  
19  $PM$  concentrations in Australia and New Zealand (77-95% estimated contribution), USA  
20 and Canada (10-80% estimated contribution) and Europe (10-81% estimated contribution),  
21 and the health effects of biomass burning in the developed world (5, 7).

22 Among the various compounds emitted by RWC, special attention is given to  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  
23 which is regulated and extensively measured. The importance of RWC as a contributing  
24 source to  $PM$  levels in urban areas underscores the need for legislation and the designing  
25 of effective mitigation measures to reduce  $PM$  levels. As RWC is considered carbon neutral  
26 and tied to culture and tradition, most efforts to reduce emissions have focused on reducing  
27 them through efficiency and cleaner technologies rather than on banning or reducing the  
28 overall RWC. Existing legislation to reduce RWC emissions in the Nordic countries have  
29 been reviewed by (8). Denmark, Norway and Sweden introduced emission standards for  
30 solid fuel stoves and boilers in the late 1980s or early 1990s, whereas Finland has no emission  
31 requirements. In addition, the Nordic Council of Ministers established in 1989 the Nordic  
32 Swan program to promote a sustainable environment through informing consumers on the  
33 quality of the acquired products and services. The Nordic Swan is a voluntary eco-labelling  
34 system that evaluates the impact of a product on the environment throughout its life cycle.  
35 A stove with a Nordic eco-label must achieve a high efficiency standard and low emissions.  
36 Thus, the emission limits values established for Nordic eco-labelled stoves by the Nordic  
37 Swan program are set at  $2\text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ,  $100\text{ mg m}^{-3}$  and  $1\text{ 250 mg m}^{-3}$ , for  $PM$ ,  $OGC$  (organic  
38 gaseous compounds) and  $CO$ , respectively, which are more stringent than those established  
39 by national legislation. For instance, the current dry fuel emission limit in Norway is  $10$   
40  $\text{g kg}^{-1}$  for  $PM$ .

41 In the European Union, the Eco-design Directive (9) will come into force on January  
42 1st, 2022. This Directive includes requirements for energy efficiency, emission limits for  
43 various compounds and product information. Regarding  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions, the Directive  
44 establishes specific requirements for emissions by closed solid fuel space heaters stoves at  
45  $2.4$  and  $5\text{ g kg}^{-1}$  (dry biomass matter), depending on the employed method for measuring  
46 emissions. The Directive includes, in addition, emission requirements for  $OGC$ , carbon  
47 monoxide ( $CO$ ) and nitrogen oxides ( $NO_X$ ). (8) also summarises other policy measures at  
48 local levels implemented through instruments such as information, outreach and guidelines  
49 towards consumers. The authors noted that these measures have a low impact on regional  
50 emission reductions. Subsidies, on the other hand, may have accelerated changes in local  
51 municipalities, but the overall impact in comparison with municipalities without subsidies  
52 has not been studied (8). In Norway, some municipalities have subsidy programmes to  
53 promote the replacement of old stoves for new, clean-burning appliances. The main aim

54 of the schemes is to reduce emissions and, subsequently,  $PM$  levels in urban areas. In  
55 the ongoing subsidy programme in Oslo Municipality, residents can apply for economic  
56 support to replace old stoves produced before 1998 for newer stoves. This measure has  
57 been in place since 1998 and there is a need to evaluate its potential effectiveness. To our  
58 knowledge, the overall impact of implementing subsidies to reduce emissions from RWC has  
59 not been evaluated based on the assessment of emission changes over time after a long term  
60 implementation of such policy measures.

61 Several studies report on the emissions from RWC from the point of view of the wood  
62 burning stove technologies and user behaviour (6, 10, 11). However, few studies report  
63 on the effectiveness of subsidy programmes to exchange stoves. A study of a small wood  
64 stove exchange in British Columbia found no consistent relationship between the technology  
65 upgrades and the outdoor or indoor  $PM_{2.5}$  concentration (12). Whereas, (13) established  
66 that the contribution to ambient  $PM_{2.5}$  from RWC decreased by a factor of four after the  
67 implementation of a wood stove exchange programme, the authors also stated that additional  
68 analysis considering other winter seasons is needed to verify it. The level of implementation  
69 is one of the determining factors, as a 98% substitution of old stove for new installations was  
70 reported to reduce winter ambient  $PM_{2.5}$  levels by 27% and a reduction in the reporting of  
71 bronchitis, cold, throat infection and influenza among children (14). The evaluation of the  
72 impact of a full conversion from traditional fireplaces to certified or improved wood stoves  
73 has been reported to be feasible measure to reduce  $PM_{10}$  levels in winter (6) and significantly  
74 associated with improvement in human health (15).

75 The aim of our study is to assess the impact that the existing subsidy programme has  
76 had on  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions and potential reduction of pollution levels in Oslo. The results from  
77 our study are highly relevant for designing action plans to reduce emissions from RWC  
78 to improve air quality and also to reduce emissions of short lived climate forces (SLCF),  
79 such as black carbon. RWC is one of the most important sources of black carbon (16);  
80 therefore, reducing RWC emissions would have an additional benefit in mitigating climate  
81 change. The Environmental Agency in Norway developed an action plan for Norwegian  
82 emissions of SLCF in 2013 (17). This action plan includes 14 measures, and among them  
83 is the accelerated introduction of new stoves and pellet burners through financial support  
84 combined with information and outreach. This measure was evaluated, based on expected  
85 emission reduction, as highly cost effective (i.e.,  $-1\,433\text{ NOK }t^{-1}$ ), with a moderate effect  
86 on climate change (i.e.,  $300\text{ kt}$  annual reduction of  $CO_2eq$ ) and a high positive health effect  
87 (i.e.,  $808\text{ NOK }y^{-1}$ ).

88 The study has been addressed through three different approaches; 1) we perform emis-  
89 sion and dispersion modelling to assess hypothetical scenarios of introduction of new stoves  
90 technologies; 2) we estimate the emission reduction associated with the stoves that actually  
91 have been replaced with subsidy support since 1998; and 3) we evaluate emissions, wood  
92 consumption and emission factors trends from 2005 to 2018 in Norwegian municipalities  
93 with and without subsidy. Together, these three methods, supported by findings from ob-  
94 servation data, allow us to investigate different aspects of the subsidy programme's success  
95 in reducing emissions.

## 96 2. Methodology

97 In this section, we first describe the subsidy programme in Oslo (Subsection 2.1) followed  
98 by the description of the data sources used in our study (Subsection 2.2). The potential  
99 reductions in emissions and  $PM_{2.5}$  levels was evaluated by emission and dispersion modelling  
100 under different scenarios of wood stove implementation for the year 2015 (Subsection 2.3).  
101 The method used to assess the actual emission reduction associated with the stoves already  
102 exchanged with subsidy since 1998 is described in Subsection 2.4. This section concludes  
103 with a description of the comparison between Oslo and other Norwegian municipalities with  
104 and without subsidy programme (Subsection 2.5).

### 105 2.1. The subsidy programme for stove exchange in Oslo Municipality

106 RWC as a heating source is widespread in Oslo. There are approximately 136 000  
107 RWC registered installations and in 2017 the wood consumption for residential heating  
108 reached 39.5 kt, higher than in the previous five years. To reduce emissions from RWC and  
109 improve urban air quality, Oslo Municipality has had a subsidy programme to promote the  
110 replacement of old stoves produced before 1998 with new ones, and so to increase the share  
111 of clean burning appliances. The subsidy programme was implemented in 1998, at the same  
112 time is setting emission standard for wood burning stoves in Norway (18), which set the  
113 emission limit at 10 g kg<sup>-1</sup> (dry wood) and defined the official division between old stoves  
114 (produced before 1998) and new stoves (produced after 1998). Since 1998, Oslo residents  
115 have been able to apply for economic support to replace old stoves. Those residents living  
116 in central areas of the city are granted around 307 €, whereas residents from areas within  
117 the outermost road ring receive 154 €. A typical stove sold in Norway ranges in price from  
118 about 1 500 to 2 500 €, thus the subsidy covers a considerable part of the cost. From 1998 to  
119 2019, over 11 000 wood stoves have been replaced in Oslo with granted support (Figure 1).

### 120 2.2. Data sources

121 Several of the methods used to evaluate the potential effect of the subsidy programme  
122 rely on data collection processes to establish consistent data-sets. The main data-sets and  
123 corresponding sources are described here.

- 124 • Number of stoves exchanged per year; The number of stoves exchanged with subsidy  
125 support is only available for Oslo Municipality and it was provided by the Climate  
126 Agency. The data-set contains the number of applications and the number of those  
127 which were granted per year from 1998 to May 2019 (Figure 1). In order to get an  
128 application granted, applicants need to provide graphic material (i.e., photographs) of  
129 the old stoves and a certified document regarding the installation of the new stove. For  
130 the other municipalities with subsidy, information on the number of stoves exchanged  
131 with subsidy was not available for this study.
- 132 • Wood consumption and RWC emissions at the municipality level were estimated with  
133 the MetVed model (19). The MetVed model relies on several data-sets including  
134 dwelling number and type, available residential heating technology, location of RWC

135 pipes and wood consumption (for more detail see (19)). Yearly wood consumption and  
136 emissions were estimated for several municipalities for the period from 2005 to 2018,  
137 the period for which there is relatively consistent data on wood consumption per RWC  
138 technology at the county level available from Statistics Norway (20).

- 139 • Averaged emission factors; The annual emission factors per municipality are obtained  
140 based on emissions and wood consumption per year at each municipality between 2005  
141 and 2018.
- 142 • Heating Degree Day (HDD); it is estimated based on average daily temperature from  
143 meteorological stations in Norwegian counties. The data is retrieved from the Nor-  
144 wegian Meteorological Institute (21) for the period from 2005 to 2018. The HDD is  
145 defined as each degree that the average daily temperature is below a threshold tem-  
146 perature, and in this study, we used 15 °C.
- 147 • Population; Yearly population data from 2009 to 2018 was obtained from the City of  
148 Oslo Planning and Building Services.
- 149 •  $PM_{2.5}$  observations in Oslo; annual and seasonal mean  $PM_{2.5}$  values from 2010 to  
150 2018 were retrieved from monitoring stations in Oslo.  $PM$  levels are measured by  
151 continuous monitors and logged with a time resolution of 1 hour. All monitors are  
152 equivalent reference instruments (TEOM 1400A, TEOM1405DF-FDMS and Grimm-  
153 EDM180).

### 154 2.3. Modelling the potential reduction in emission and $PM_{2.5}$ levels

#### 155 2.3.1. Scenarios

156 Emission and dispersion modelling was carried out for 4 scenarios described below and  
157 simulated with 2015 meteorology. The heating degree days per year since 2005 to 2018  
158 was evaluated along with the average temperature in order to assess whether 2015 was in  
159 any way an outlier regarding winter conditions, heating demand and, therefore, exceptional  
160 emissions from residential heating. The evaluation showed that 2015 did not have extreme  
161 temperature conditions, and therefore we could expect average heating requirements. The  
162 scenarios considered in our study are the following:

- 163 • Scenario 1; current situation in 2015 based on reported wood consumption per technol-  
164 ogy and the Norwegian emission factors used in official reporting (22). This scenario  
165 is considered as a reference.
- 166 • Scenario 2; All old stoves are substituted for new stoves produced after 1998 with  
167 Norwegian emission factors of  $11.2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  for new wood stoves as used in official  
168 reporting (22).
- 169 • Scenario 3; A continuous improvement in stove technology. The introduction of stoves  
170 in the market has a linearly improved emission factor from the official  $11.2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  in  
171 1998 to today's stoves classified as eco-design with emission factor  $5.5 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ . This

172 results in an average emission factor of  $9.96 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  for the total wood consumption  
173 reported in the year 2015.

- 174 • Scenario 4; Same as Scenario 3 but today's stoves with emissions factor of  $2.2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ,  
175 which is similar to the emission factors claimed by wood stove producers today. This  
176 results in an average emission factor of  $7.4 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  for the total wood consumption  
177 reported for the year 2015.

### 178 2.3.2. Emissions

179 All emissions represent 2015 and are mainly estimated based on high resolution input  
180 data, that thereafter are aggregated to a 1 km grid, and combined with time variation  
181 functions to result in emissions at  $1 \text{ km}^2 \text{ h}$  resolution. We include in our study all sources  
182 that contribute to  $PM$  levels. Due to the requirement of the dispersion modelling, emissions  
183 are developed for a rectangular area including the populated area of Oslo municipality and  
184 partially surrounding municipalities.

185 RWC is the largest single source of  $PM_{2.5}$  in Oslo (2). RWC emissions are estimated  
186 using the MetVed model that provides emissions at high spatio-temporal resolution (19). The  
187 model combines downscaling with bottom-up principles to estimate wood burning potential  
188 at a  $250 \text{ m}$  grid, which are thereafter re-grid to the  $1 \text{ km}$  resolution of the atmospheric  
189 dispersion model. The MetVed emission model combines several databases that include  
190 housing number and types of dwellings with a spatial resolution of 250 meters, statistics  
191 for energy consumption in households at the municipality level and per type of dwelling,  
192 placement of fireplaces as points and the geographical position of dwellings with information  
193 on the types that they belong to, as well as the available technologies for heating. To obtain  
194 hourly RWC emissions, the MetVed model estimates hourly wood consumption through a  
195 calendar year by combining the heating degree day concept, based on outdoor temperature,  
196 with information on the time of the day and the day of the week when wood burning  
197 occurs based on consumer statistics (for more detail see (19)). The RWC emissions for the  
198 different scenarios are estimated based on the emission factors that represent each scenario  
199 as previously presented.

200 Exhaust emissions from road traffic were calculated for 2015 with NILU's emission model.  
201 The model calculates  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions for each road link. The emission calcula-  
202 tions use detailed emission factors based on HBEFA v.3.3 (Handbook of Emission Factors  
203 for Road Transport) (23). The HBEFA emission factors are defined for different speeds  
204 and driving patterns such as traffic flow, urban driving, slope percentage, etc. The same  
205 applies to fuel type, Euro technology class, engine volume and vehicle age, all of which  
206 influence emission factors for the individual vehicle classes. Road dust emissions are the  
207 dominant contribution to  $PM_{10}$  emissions and also represent a contribution to  $PM_{2.5}$  levels.  
208 In order to calculate the road dust contribution, the model NORTRIP, specially developed  
209 for Nordic conditions, was used (24). NORTRIP calculates the most important parameters  
210 that influence the accumulation of road dust on the road surface and also calculates the  
211 moisture on the road surface that influences the suspension. This is done based on input  
212 data on meteorology, traffic volume and vehicle distribution, and road maintenance, among

213 other parameters (for more details see (24)). The  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  emission inventories  
214 include other sectors (e.g., off-road machinery, shipping), the contributions of which to total  
215 emissions is 4% and 2%, respectively. For more detail about these emissions see (19).

### 216 2.3.3. Dispersion Modelling

217 In order to evaluate to what extent substituting old stoves for new clean stoves affects  
218  $PM$  levels, we use the air quality model EPISODE (25), an off-line Eulerian dispersion  
219 model. EPISODE uses emissions, background concentration and meteorological data as  
220 input data.  $PM_{2.5}$  background concentration from CAMS (26) for 2015 is used to estimate  
221 the contribution from outside the model domain. Meteorological data such as wind speed,  
222 wind direction and atmospheric stability from AROME (27) for 2015 was used on  $1 \times 1 \text{ km}^2$   
223 resolution.

### 224 2.4. Emission reduction from the stoves exchanged with subsidy

225 From 1998 to May 2019, over 11 000 stoves are reported to be exchanged with granted  
226 support 1. We have analysed the emission reduction associated only with these exchanged  
227 11 000 stoves to isolate the effect of the subsidy programme. This assessment is carried out  
228 for the three emission factors for new stoves considered in this study and shown in Fig. 1:

- 229 • Norwegian emission factors for new stoves used in official reporting (22) and that  
230 correspond to emissions factors used in Scenarios 1 and 2;
- 231 • Emission factor that represents a continuous introduction of new wood stoves to today  
232 with eco-design wood stoves with an emission factor of  $5.5 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , corresponding to  
233 emission factors used in Scenario 3;
- 234 • Emissions factor that represent gradual introduction of new wood stoves to today's  
235 emission factor of  $2.2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , corresponding to emission factors used in Scenario 4;

236 Whilst in the scenario analysis we assess the potential effect of a complete exchange of  
237 wood stove for new ones (Scenario 2) or a continuous introduction of new stoves (Scenario  
238 3 and 4) in emission and pollution levels for the year 2015, in this analysis, we modelled the  
239 potentially achieved emission reduction over time by the exchanged stoves with subsidy for  
240 the given set of emission factor assumptions.

241 All the analysis in our study are done under the constraint that exchanging a stove does  
242 not affect the wood consumed in that stove. This constraint is not necessarily realistic.  
243 Consumption in a new stove may be different from the consumption in the old stove that  
244 it replaces. On average, a new stove produces somewhat more heat per  $\text{kg}$  wood (acts to  
245 reduce consumption). Oppositely, it may also increase consumption, as a new stove will  
246 be a more practical and better heat source, and subsequently will be used more frequently  
247 ("rebound effect"). In addition, it is possible that some of the stoves exchanged through  
248 the programme are stoves that would have been exchanged anyway. As it is not possible  
249 to evaluate the annual number of stoves installed within geographical areas outside of the  
250 exchange programme, we support our study with the analysis of trends in wood consumption,

251 which are since 2005 differentiated for new and old stoves. And we compare the trends in  
252 areas with and without subsidy programmes for stove exchange (Subsection 2.5).

### 253 2.5. Time variation of emissions and wood consumption in municipalities with and without 254 subsidy

255 We have evaluated to what degree the subsidy has contributed to lower RWC emissions  
256 over time based on the assessment of the time evolution of emissions, wood consumption and  
257 emission factors at municipality level. For this purpose, consistent data are available from  
258 2005 to 2018 from different municipalities, thus Oslo is compared with other municipalities  
259 with and without subsidy. We found 9 municipalities with similar subsidy programmes  
260 although none of them has been running over 20 years as in Oslo. The subsidies range from  
261 a payout of 300 to 500 € after the stove is exchanged, thus requiring a replacement stove. We  
262 selected 7 comparable municipalities without any subsidy programme based on population  
263 numbers and geography. The municipalities with subsidy are: Oslo, Lillehammer, Bergen,  
264 Bærum, Stavanger, Kristiansand, Moss, Skien and Løten, while the selected municipalities  
265 for comparison without any subsidy programme are: Drammen, Trondheim, Sarpsborg,  
266 Lørenskog, Bodø and Steinkjer.

## 267 3. Results and Discussion

### 268 3.1. Observations of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Oslo

269 Previous to the modelling exercises and the comparative assessment among municipali-  
270 ties, we evaluate ambient  $PM_{2.5}$  levels in Oslo based on observation. The reason is that with  
271 the introduction of new stoves over time, it can be assumed that average emission factor  
272 has been gradually reduced towards what is claimed by regulation or the producers. This  
273 would entail a reduction in emission and  $PM_{2.5}$  concentration that would be reflected in the  
274 observation data in Oslo. There are, however, limited observations of  $PM_{2.5}$  and the only  
275 long time series of urban background concentrations is at Sofienbergparken (location shown  
276 in Fig 3 A as "Urban Background" station) from 2010 to 2018.

277 Traffic and RWC are the two main emission sources of  $PM_{2.5}$  in Oslo (2). Exhaust  
278 particle emissions from vehicles have been significantly reduced since early 2000s due to the  
279 introduction of diesel particles filters and electric vehicles. Unlike traffic emissions, RWC  
280 emission is most intense during winter (Dec.-Feb.) and is limited to the heating season  
281 (HS), taken in this study as October through March. Therefore, it should be possible to  
282 distinguish the difference in spatial and temporal distribution of emissions from these two  
283 sources. Table 1 shows the ambient  $PM_{2.5}$  change in % at six monitoring stations classified  
284 as traffic and at the one urban background station. All stations show a decrease in  $PM_{2.5}$   
285 levels in the period and for all seasons. This could be due to meteorological variability or  
286 emissions reductions. Both the urban background site and the average of the traffic sites  
287 show a lower reduction in the heating season than in the remainder of the year (non-HS).  
288 This does not seem to indicate that the decrease in concentration is due to lowering RWC  
289 emissions, which would decrease in the HS and winter season only. The reduction at the  
290 urban background location, less influenced by traffic emissions, is similar to the average from  
291 traffic locations. This could indicate that also emissions from RWC have been reduced.



Table 1: Average change in mean  $PM_{2.5}$  monthly concentration in units  $\% y^{-1}$  obtained from the first order regression line for seven monitoring stations in Oslo (2010-2018). Also the average of the traffic stations is shown. HS: heating season from October to March. non-HS: non heating season.

Station	Station type	Winter	HS	non-HS
Alnabru	Traffic	-4.73	-4.85	-6.63
Bygdøy Alle	Traffic	-4.46	-4.22	-3.23
Hjørtnes	Traffic	-3.07	-2.58	-1.93
Kirkeveien	Traffic	-1.46	-2.55	-4.98
Manglerud	Traffic	-3.48	-3.02	-2.54
Rv 4, Aker Sykehus	Traffic	-4.32	-5.17	-5.36
Average	Traffic	-3.59	-3.73	-4.11
Sofienbergparken	Background	-3.71	-3.57	-4.38

### 3.2. Modelled potential reductions in $PM_{2.5}$ emissions and pollution levels

Fig. 2 shows modelled RWC emissions in Oslo municipality for the 4 scenarios modelled in our study. The highest  $PM_{2.5}$  total emissions from RWC in 2015 are the 384 tonnes of the reference Scenario 1. The highest emission rates are observed in the area with high dwelling density and a high proportion of wood burning stoves. The highest emission per dwelling occurs in areas with detached houses and semi-detached houses, but these areas are generally less densely populated.

In a situation where all wood stoves are replaced by new clean-burning installations (Scenario 2),  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions are reduced by 17.9% ( $PM_{2.5}$  emissions: 315 tonnes; Fig. 2). The highest emission reductions are within Ring 2. In this area, there is high dwelling density with a high proportion of wood burning installations. In scenarios 3 and 4, where there is continuous improvement from 11.6 g/kg in 1998 to today's wood-burning stoves with emission factor 5.5 g kg<sup>-1</sup> or 2.2 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, even larger emission reductions are obtained. In scenario 3, the emission reduction is 29% (273 tonnes of  $PM_{2.5}$ ) relative to the reference, and in scenario 4, the reduction amounts to 46.5% (205 tonnes of  $PM_{2.5}$ ). This large difference in emissions between the scenarios highlights the importance of the difference in emission factor between the exchanged stoves.

$PM_{2.5}$  levels in Oslo were modelled for all scenarios for the year 2015 and taking into account all the contributing sources. The  $PM_{2.5}$  annual average concentration in Oslo obtained with scenario 1 emissions is shown in Fig. 3 A. In central Oslo and at the city suburbs is where the highest concentrations are modelled at levels above WHO guidelines of 10  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , but within the regulated limits of 15  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . The high concentrations around central Oslo is a good reason for the double payout of the replacement scheme for installations in this area, as residents living within Ring 2 receive 307 € versus 154 € for those outside.

The relative changes in concentration from the baseline are shown for scenarios 2-4 in Fig. 3 B-D, respectively. In scenario 2, the complete introduction of new wood stoves would result in a reduction of  $PM_{2.5}$  levels on average of 3%, with levels up to 8% (Fig. 3) in central Oslo, resulting in a total reduction of 0.2 and 0.8  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in  $PM_{2.5}$ . The obtained

320 reduction is the largest where the concentration is the highest, showing the relevance of  
321 reducing RWC emissions. The more optimistic emission factors in scenarios 3 and 4 have  
322 the same spatial reduction pattern but are stronger in magnitude. Scenario 3 has average  
323 concentration reductions of 5.4% and up to 12.9% in central Oslo, whereas the same numbers  
324 for Scenario 4 are 8.9% and 21.1% for average and central reductions, respectively (Fig. 3 C  
325 and D).

326 There are no accurate data on the age of all the individual installations in Oslo, neither  
327 of the exact number of old and new stoves nor their spatial distribution. However, wood  
328 consumption data is available per type of technology. The fraction of consumed wood in  
329 new installations was 50% of the total wood consumption in 2015. This suggests that  
330 there are more new ovens than the  $\sim 8\%$  of stoves exchanged since 1998 through 2015. The  
331 reduction in concentrations could be feasible, but it would only be in part due to the subsidy  
332 programme. The high contribution of RWC to annual average reductions in  $PM_{2.5}$  levels  
333 in central Oslo found in the scenarios shows that the subsidy programme targets well the  
334 areas where reductions is intended. Therefore, the scheme overall shows a vast potential  
335 for further reduction if all old installations are replaced. However, this depends on the  
336 assumption that wood consumption does not change. New stoves are reported to be more  
337 efficient, and therefore will reduce wood consumption. At the same time, rebound effects  
338 are common, so inhabitants may shift from a old stove to a new one that they use more  
339 frequently. This would result in an increase in total wood consumption.

340 Modelled  $PM_{2.5}$  levels in winter 2015 have been compared with measurements for the  
341 same period. The comparison has been done for the baseline scenario representing the  
342 situation in 2015 based on Norwegian emission factors used in official reporting (Scenario 1)  
343 and for the scenarios that account for the continuous introduction of new technologies over  
344 time (Scenarios 3 and 4). With this comparison, we aim to shed light on the understanding  
345 of uncertainties in the use of emission factors. Table 2 shows the bias for the three scenarios.  
346 While the average of all considered stations indicates that the lowest bias is obtained for  
347 scenario 1, the individual stations seem to show lower bias for scenario 3. The average is  
348 driven by Alnabru and RV4. Aker sykehus stations, which show a significantly higher bias  
349 than for the rest of the stations. Comparing results from the same model used here with  
350 observations (19) also established the need to evaluate the official emission factors used in  
351 Norway, as well as the possibility of considering emissions factors that evolve over time  
352 based on the introduction of new technologies. This was mainly based on  $PM_{2.5}$ , where the  
353 coupled emission and dispersion model overestimates daily  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations in winter  
354 when compared with observations. Similarly, (28) evaluated organic carbon emissions from  
355 RWC in Europe and established that while emissions are underestimated in most of Europe,  
356 in Norway emissions are overestimated. The results obtained in our study support the need  
357 for establishing emission factors for Norway that better represent real-world emissions and  
358 also represent the technological improvement over time.

### 359 *3.3. Emission reduction from the stove exchanged with subsidy*

360 The total number of stoves that have been exchanged through the subsidy programme  
361 in Oslo municipality is shown in Fig. 1. The number of stoves sums up to  $\sim 11\,000$  stoves,

Table 2: Observed (Obs) and modelled (Mod) winter means (November to March) of daily  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations in 2015 in scenarios 1, 3 and 4 and the bias. Subscripts indicate the scenario. Units:  $\mu g/m^3$ . Bias is represented in % as  $(\text{Obs}-\text{Mod})/\text{Mod}$ .

Station	Obs	$Mod_1$	$Mod_3$	$Mod_4$	$Bias_1$	$Bias_3$	$Bias_4$
Sofienberparken	9.00	9.80	8.57	7.80	-9	5	13
RV4. Aker sykehus	6.54	9.66	8.81	8.28	-48	-35	-27
Manglerud	8.28	7.81	7.16	6.75	6	14	18
Kirkeveien	8.86	10.24	9.08	8.36	-16	-2	6
Hjørtnes	8.58	9.41	8.50	7.93	-10	1	8
Bygdøy Alle	8.80	9.82	8.70	7.99	-12	1	9
Alnabru	13.9	9.49	8.81	8.38	32	37	40
Akerbergveien	8.28	8.77	7.85	7.27	-6	5	12
Average	9.03	9.38	8.44	7.85	-4	7	13

362 about 8% of the total registered stoves in Oslo. Based on the number of exchanged stoves  
363 in Oslo per year, assuming that old and new stoves both use 290  $kg$  dry wood in 2015, the  
364 emission reduction obtained through the subsidy programme was calculated for the three  
365 emission factors situations and compared to a reference.

366 The reference case represents emissions as they would have been if the 11 000 stoves had  
367 not been exchanged. First we used the official emission factors in Norway as it was done in  
368 scenario 1 and 2 and then we calculate emissions reduction based on the cumulative sum  
369 of stoves exchanged over time. The dashed blue line in Fig. 4 A shows the emission factor  
370 of the new stoves, and the solid blue line shows the total emission reduction obtained in  
371 each year. We use the same approach but then, the applied emission factor for the new  
372 stoves that improve over time as in scenario 3 and 4, i.e., a continuous introduction of new  
373 technologies until today's emission factors of 5.5 and 2.2  $g\ kg^{-1}$ , orange and yellow dashed  
374 lines in 4 A, respectively.

375 The total emission reduction achieved each year from the substituted stoves increases over  
376 time from about 3-5  $t$  in 2005 to approximately 10-22  $t$  in 2018, depending on the considered  
377 emission factor. When using constant emission factor for new stoves (dashed blue line in  
378 4 A), there is a direct connection between the total number of exchanged stoves and the  
379 emission reduction. When continuous improvement of new stoves over time are assumed,  
380 emission reductions show an increasing effect of the subsidy programme over time. This is  
381 a consequence of assuming that the stoves that are replaced late in the period provide a  
382 greater reduction than those that were replaced at the beginning. The total  $PM_{2.5}$  emission  
383 reductions achieved in 2018 is between 10 and 22 tonnes for the three emission factors  
384 situations (Fig. 4), which represents between 2% and 4.4% of the total 501 tonnes of  $PM_{2.5}$   
385 emitted in 2015.

386 The emission reduction shown in this evaluation depends on the assumptions made. We  
387 assume that the stoves exchanged with subsidy would have not been replaced otherwise, and  
388 that consumption does not change. On the one hand, the potential for emission reduction will

389 increase if the replaced wood stove is used more actively than the average stove. Similarly,  
390 the heating effectiveness increases with newer stoves, meaning that it will require less wood  
391 fuel for the same amount of heat output. On the other hand, it is possible that wood  
392 consumption increases by acquiring a new stove.

### 393 *3.4. Emissions trends at Municipality level*

394 The changes in emissions of  $PM_{2.5}$  from RWC in Norwegian municipalities with and  
395 without subsidy programmes for exchanging wood stoves for new clean-burning stoves was  
396 evaluated. This evaluation aims to establish the potential systematic changes among munic-  
397 ipalities with and without subsidy programmes. Emissions from 2005 to 2018 were compared  
398 and the results are shown in Fig. 5.

399 All municipalities have a negative trend in emissions in the period 2005-2018. The  
400 largest absolute reduction can be found for the municipalities with the highest population  
401 (i.e., Trondheim, Oslo, Bergen, Stavanger, Kristiansand). The annual percentage change of  
402  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions relative to 2005 shows a small difference between the municipalities. The  
403 average emission reduction is below 5% per year in all municipalities. The lowest average  
404 reduction, estimated to be 1.7% per year, is found in Oslo, whereas the highest reduction is  
405 observed in Trondheim and Steinkjer (4.6%), which do not have a subsidy programme. It  
406 is noteworthy to highlight that there is no systematic difference among municipalities with  
407 and without subsidy.

408 In order to understand and further assess the potential influence of the subsidy pro-  
409 gramme on emission reductions, we have evaluated changes in total wood consumption and  
410 emission factors over time. This will support the understanding of the most important  
411 underlying reasons for the changes for each municipality. Fig. 6 shows the annual average  
412 change in wood consumption (orange bars) estimated based on the linear regression line  
413 obtained from wood consumption from 2005 to 2018 for each municipality (A) and the rel-  
414 ative consumption change relative to 2005 consumption (B). Every municipality shows an  
415 annual reduction in total wood consumption, and there is no systematic difference between  
416 municipalities with and without subsidy. The lowest relative wood consumption reduction  
417 (Fig. 6B) is estimated to be in Oslo at 1% per year, whereas the strongest reduction is in  
418 Trondheim and Steinkjer municipalities at 4.3% per year.

419 Changes in wood consumption over time could be affected by various factors. For in-  
420 stance, heating demand, and therefore wood stove use, could be affected by temperature  
421 and winter conditions. Another factor that can affect changes in wood consumption at the  
422 municipality level over time is changes in population. In Oslo, for instance, population in-  
423 creased by 18.2% from 2009 to 2019. Therefore, we have evaluated wood consumption trends  
424 at the selected municipalities adjusting for trends in winter conditions and population.

425 Fig. 6 shows the changes in wood consumption (blue bars) adjusted for total annual  
426 heating degree day and population at each municipality between 2009 and 2018. Municipal  
427 population data is only available from 2009 and that is the reason for a shorter time series  
428 in this analysis. The results show a stronger reduction in wood consumption for most of the  
429 municipalities except Kristiansand, Bergen and Steinkjer, which have a weaker reduction.  
430 For most of the municipalities, winter conditions each year and changes in population have

431 on average increased total wood consumption. The strongest adjusted reduction in wood  
432 consumption is again found for Trondheim, whereas Oslo still shows one of the lowest reduc-  
433 tions (2.8% relative to 2009). This evaluation shows that Oslo municipality has one of the  
434 slowest reductions in wood consumption over time compared to other municipalities, both  
435 with and without incentives to reduce emissions. The annual reduction is one of the lowest  
436 even after the effects of winter conditions and population increase are adjusted for.

437 We associate the low reduction in consumption in Oslo with several factors. The ex-  
438 changed old stoves in Oslo can be those that are rarely or never used, and which are substi-  
439 tuted for new ones that are used more frequently. Another reason could be that there is a  
440 shift from other heating technologies to wood burning in new stoves. These reasons can be  
441 supported by existing data at Oslo municipality on wood consumption per technology (i.e.,  
442 open fireplace, stoves produced before 1998 and stoves produced after 1998) from 2005 to  
443 2018. Wood consumption in open fireplaces is relatively constant and is reduced in stoves  
444 produced before 1998. However, wood consumption in new stoves has increased even though  
445 these are claimed to be more efficient, therefore requiring less fuel. For instance in 2017 and  
446 2018, wood consumption in old stoves was 6.2 *kt* and 10.2 *kt*, whereas consumption in new  
447 stoves was 29.2 *kt* and 16.5 *kt*, respectively. These values represent a decrease of about 72%  
448 (2017) and 53% (2018) in wood consumption in old stoves regarding 2005 versus an increase  
449 of about 204% (2017) and 72% (2018) in new ones.

450 The implementation of programmes to exchange old stoves for new ones aims to reduce  
451 the average emission factor. We have evaluated the time variation of emission factors in  
452 the selected municipalities. The yearly emission factors were estimated based on the yearly  
453 emissions and wood consumption for each municipality. The selected municipalities in our  
454 study show a reduction in the weighted emission factors over time that range between 0.09  
455 and 0.15  $g\ kg^{-1}\ y^{-1}$ . One of the strongest emission factor reductions was observed for Oslo  
456 (0.14  $g\ kg^{-1}\ y^{-1}$ ). Fig. 7 shows the results for Oslo municipality (orange lines), the weighted  
457 emission factor for Norway (blue lines) and the average values for the selected municipalities  
458 with (black line) and without (grey line) subsidy. In 2005, the average  $PM_{2.5}$  emission factor  
459 in Oslo municipality was higher than the national emission factor, and from 2005 to 2018  
460 the emission factor reduction in Oslo municipality is stronger (0.14  $g\ kg^{-1}\ y^{-1}$  in Fig. 7)  
461 than that at national level (0.11  $g\ kg^{-1}\ y^{-1}$  in Fig. 7). The stronger reduction of emission  
462 factor could be associated with a faster shift of old stove for new ones. However, this faster  
463 introduction of newer wood stoves could not be associated with the subsidy as the reduction  
464 of emissions factors in the municipalities with and without subsidy does not show discernible  
465 results.

466 Emissions from RWC depend on wood consumption per technology and the correspond-  
467 ing emission factor. In order to guaranty emission reductions, both wood consumption and  
468 emissions factors need to be targeted. If wood consumption increases when emissions factors  
469 are reduced, the overall effect of the measure to reduce emissions is marginal. The increase in  
470 energy consumption associated with improved energy efficiency, known as "rebound effect",  
471 has been previously documented (29) and it poses significant challenges for policy makers in  
472 designing effective measures to reduce emissions associated with users' energy consumption.  
473 Our study based on real wood consumption data and emissions at different municipalities

474 shows that emission reductions are not as strong as previously proposed in actions plans for  
475 Norwegian emissions of SLCF (17). The results from our study would affect the conclusions  
476 regarding cost effectiveness of the accelerated introduction of new stoves to reduce SLCF.

#### 477 4. Conclusions

478 In our study we have assessed both the potential of emissions reduction and to what  
479 extend the subsidy programme to exchange wood stoves, implemented over 20 years ago,  
480 has succeeded in reducing emissions of  $PM_{2.5}$  from RWC in Oslo.

481 The potential effects of the introduction of new stoves was evaluated through emission  
482 and dispersion modelling for the year 2015. The different scenarios constructed represent  
483 a complete transfer to new stoves or continuous introduction over time under different as-  
484 sumed emission factors.  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions and concentration levels were modelled to be  
485 reduced by an average 18-46% and 3-9%, respectively. In Oslo, the largest concentration  
486 reductions were modelled in the areas with the highest  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations. The range  
487 in modelled average concentration reduction shows that the benefit that the subsidy could  
488 have on reducing emissions and pollution levels is strongly dependent on emission factors.  
489 Only 3% concentration reduction was obtained with official emission factors, whereas higher  
490 reductions were modelled for new stoves emission factors resembling stove manufacturers'  
491 claims.

492 The number of stoves actually replaced with the subsidy through the period was just  
493 over 11 000, an estimated 8% of all stoves in Oslo. Emission reductions obtained from these  
494 stoves was calculated and showed an increased effect in reducing emissions over time that  
495 reached 3-6% reduction in 2018. This is assuming that the stoves would not otherwise be  
496 exchanged and that consumption was not affected.

497 Available observations of ambient  $PM_{2.5}$  levels in Oslo indicate a declining trend 3-  
498 5%  $yr^{-1}$  between 2010 and 2018. During winter and the heating season, concentration  
499 reductions in the urban background station are similar to those at the traffic stations, and  
500 the reductions appear similar to the remainder of the year. This indicates that the reductions  
501 are mainly caused by the other main source, traffic, which have emissions throughout the  
502 year. Therefore it is not possible to conclude, based on observation data, whether the subsidy  
503 programme has had an significant effect in reducing  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations in Oslo.

504 The comparison between municipalities with and without subsidies shows no discernible  
505 difference between the two sets. However, Oslo shows a somewhat stronger reduction in  
506 emission factors compared with national values, which can point to an accelerated stove re-  
507 newal. On the other hand, Oslo also shows the slowest reduction in RWC emissions and total  
508 wood consumption of all selected municipalities at 1.7% and 1% per year, respectively, which  
509 may indicate that an accelerated stove exchange leads to an increase in wood consumption.

510 The modelled scenarios show that the subsidy programme could be beneficial for reducing  
511  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations in central Oslo. The potential depends on the emission factors applied,  
512 on how consumption is affected by exchanging a stove and that the stove would not otherwise  
513 be exchanged. We see no evidence that municipalities with subsidies reduce emissions faster  
514 than other municipalities. Therefore, if additional measures targeted at reducing pollution

515 from RWC activity are needed, an option could be, for instance, regulatory or voluntary "no  
516 burn" days or measures to reduce overall consumption of wood.

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## FIGURES

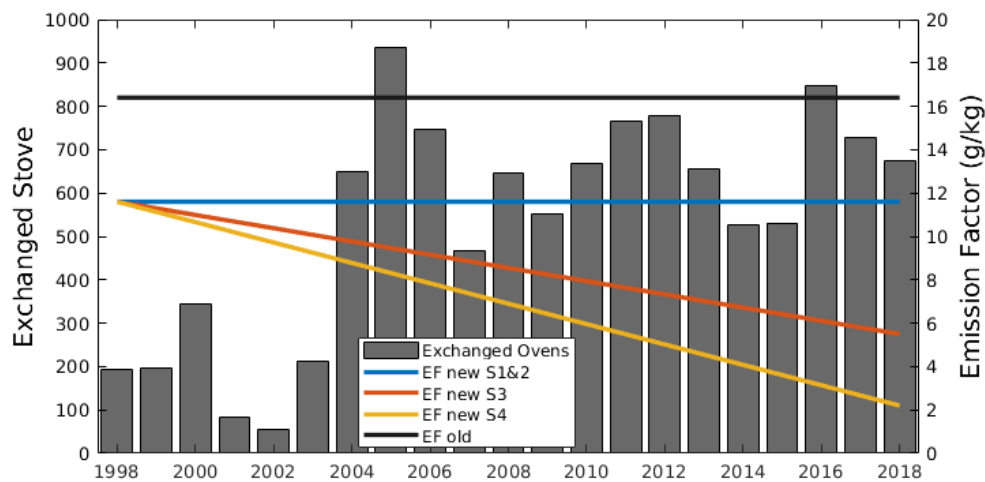


Figure 1: Number of stoves exchanged with subsidy and emissions factors considered in our study. 2005 represents the accumulated value since 1998. "EF old": emission factors for stoves produced before 1998 used for official reporting (22). "EF new S1&2": emission factors for stoves produces after 1998 used for official reporting (22). "EF new S3" and "EF new S4" refer to emissions factors for new stoves considering a continuous improvement over time until today's emission factors of  $5.5$  and  $2.2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , respectively.

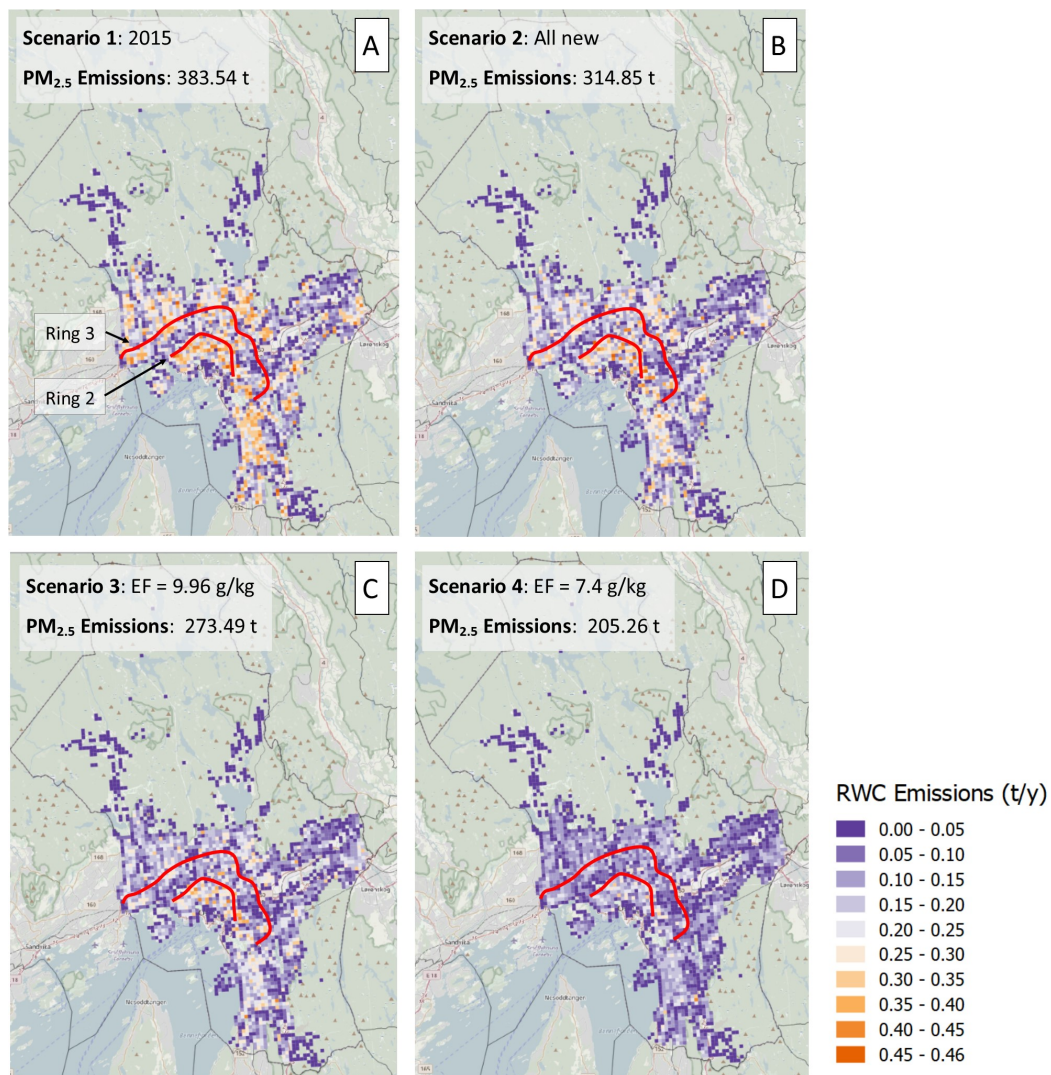


Figure 2:  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions from RWC in the 4 scenarios considered in the dispersion modelling. Scenario 1: current emissions in 2015. Scenario 2: complete substitution of stoves for new ones and official emission factors in Norway. Scenario 3 and 4: continuous improvement in stove technology since 1998 to today's emission factor of 2.2 and 5.5  $g\ kg^{-1}$

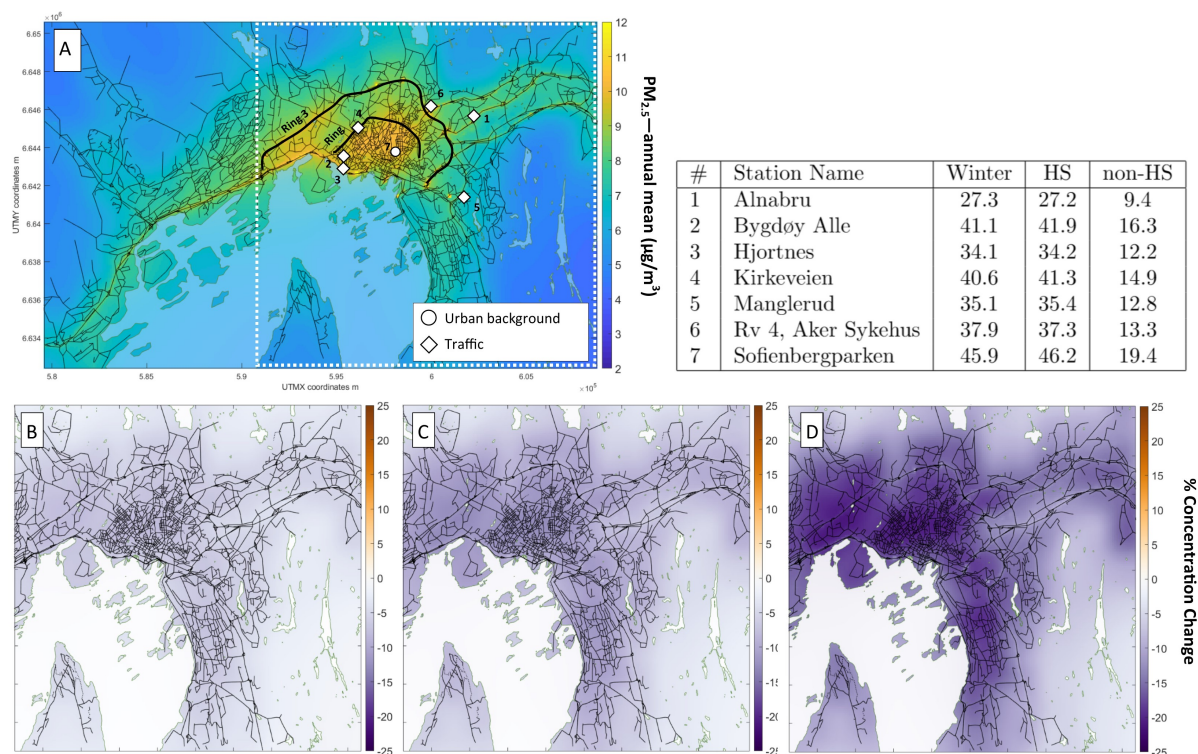


Figure 3: A:  $PM_{2.5}$  annual mean values in 2015. The circle and diamonds represent the location of the monitoring stations labelled from 1 to 7. The name of the stations is shown in the table along with the modelled wood burning contribution to  $PM_{2.5}$  at station receptor point in winter, heating season (HS) and non-heating season (non-HS). B, C and D represent changes in  $PM_{2.5}$  pollution levels in scenario 2, 3 and 4 regarding the reference scenario 1, respectively. The dashed line square in figure A represents the areas zoomed in figures B-D.

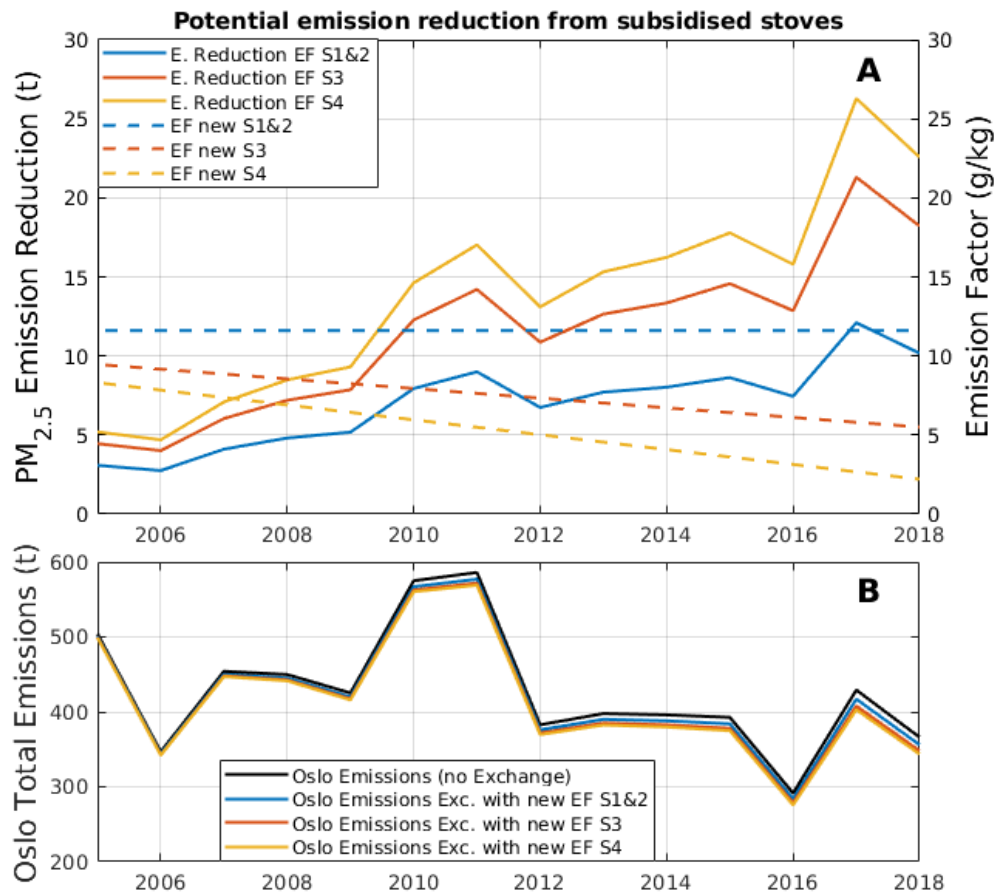


Figure 4: A:  $PM_{2.5}$  emission reduction associated with the number of wood stoves replaced per year with subsidy support in Oslo Municipality (straight lines) according to three emission factors for new stoves (dashed lines). B: total  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions in Oslo since 2005 to 2018 (black line) and emissions as a results of the reductions associated with the exchanged stoves with support for the 3 evaluated emission factors).

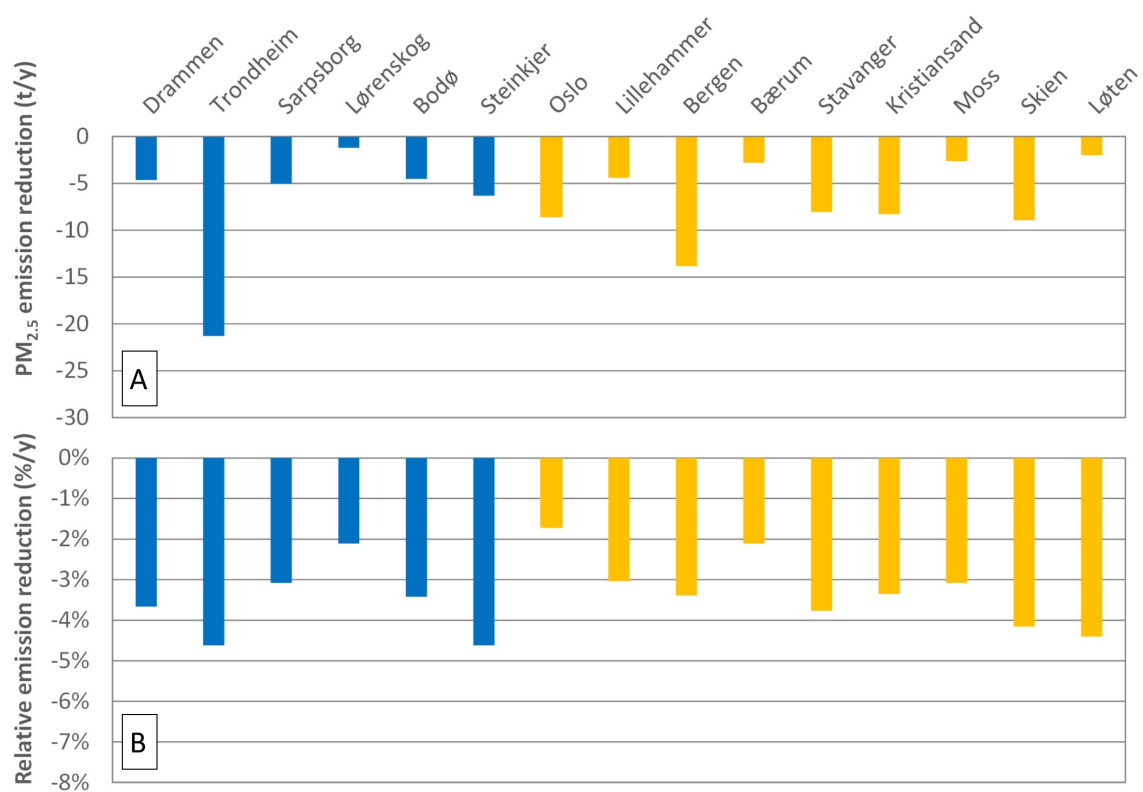


Figure 5: A:  $PM_{2.5}$  emission reductions ( $t/y$ ) at municipalities with (orange bars) and without (blue bars) subsidy to exchange stoves for RWC obtained from the slope of the linear regression line from emissions from 2005 to 2018. B: annual emission reduction relative to emissions in 2005.

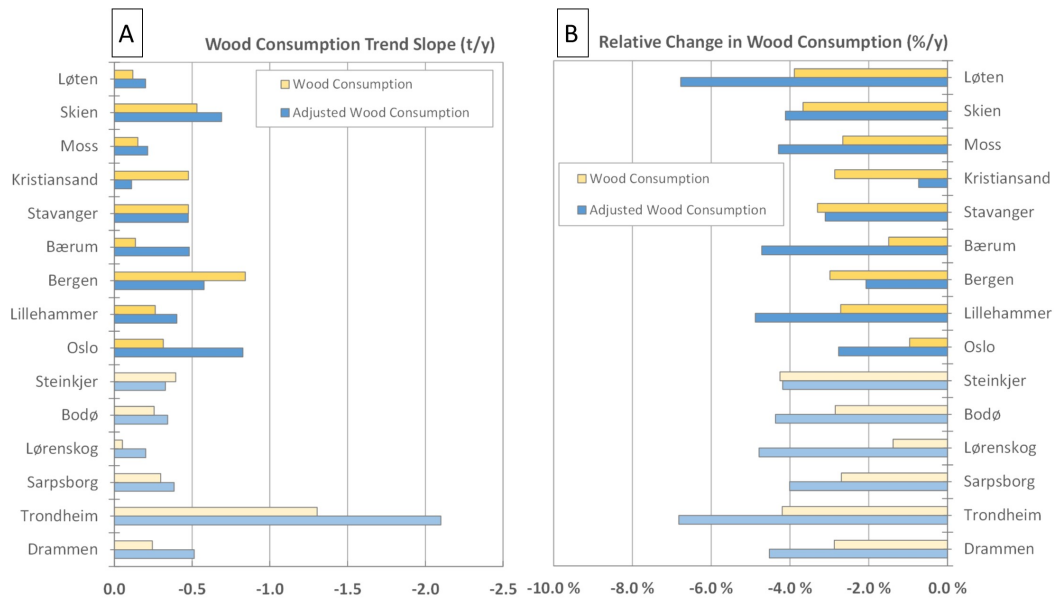


Figure 6: Changes in wood consumption ( $kt\ y^{-1}$ ) in selected Norwegian municipalities (orange bars) obtained from the slope of the regression line from wood consumption from 2005 to 2018 (A) and the relative change in wood consumption per year relative to consumption in 2005 (B). The blue bars represent the changes in wood consumption ( $kt\ y^{-1}$ ) (A) and the relative change regarding consumption in 2009 (B) adjusted by HDD and population at each municipality. The dark colour bars represent municipalities with subsidy, whereas the light colour bars represent those municipalities without subsidy.

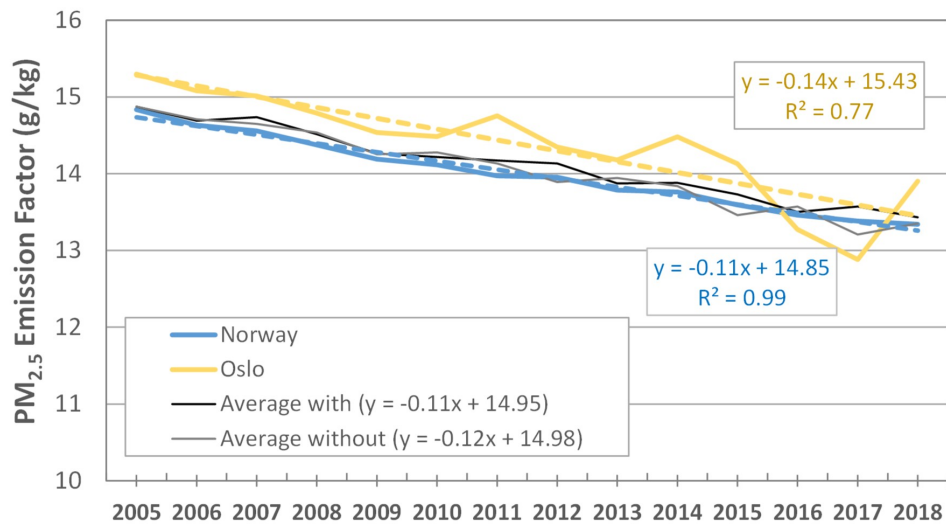


Figure 7: Time variation of the weighted  $PM_{2.5}$  emission factor in Oslo Municipality (orange), Norway (blue), and the average of municipalities with (black) and without (grey) subsidy. The corresponding linear regression lines are added for Oslo (orange dashed line) and Norway (blue dashed line). The equations for the averages represent the linear regression lines.