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Q1 Preface

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A B S T R A C T

The Asian Network on Climate Science and Technology (www.ancst.org), in collaboration 13
 with Tsinghua University, held a conference on environmental and climate science, air 14
 pollution, urban planning and transportation in July 2015, with over 40 Asian experts 15
 participating and presentation. This was followed by a meeting with local government and 16
 community experts on the practical conclusions of the conference. Of the papers presented 17
 at the conference a selection are included in this special issue of *Journal of Environmental* 18
Science, which also reflects the conclusions of the Paris Climate meeting in Dec 2015, when 19
 the major nations of the world agreed about the compelling need to reduce the upward 20
 trend of adverse impacts associated with global climate change. Now is the time for urban 21
 areas to work out the serious consequences for their populations, but also how they should 22
 work together to take action to reduce global warming to benefit their own communities 23
 and also the whole planet! 24

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Q4 Introduction

33 The conurbations of Asia are rapidly expanding and changing
 34 faster than at any time in history, with some urban areas and
 35 populations doubling in less than 10 years. Their physical and
 36 natural states are also being transformed. Very tall buildings
 37 in business districts and new 50 story housing estates now
 38 rise to 100 m or more; urban coast-lines are moving out
 39 into the adjoining seas and lakes, with economies doubling
 40 at about the same rate, people in cities are consuming and
 41 discharging ever larger volumes of natural resources, and
 42 transforming the natural environment of their surroundings,
 43 with more people travelling across larger cities, transport
 44 facilities are having to expand, although in many cities they
 45 are still not sufficient to avoid saturation and even shut-down.
 46 In many cities, the rise in air pollution is exceeding interna-
 47 tional health standards, which particularly affect the elderly
 48 and small children. In addition to the worsening of short and
 49 long term environmental changes, an increasing numbers of

people are impacted by natural hazards within these areas. 50
 Innovative cities are using a range of measures, including 51
 technologies and better planning, with cleaner transport with 52
 electric vehicles and new building systems incorporating, in 53
 tropical cities, air-conditioning to lower indoor temperatures 54
 and air-cleaners to remove fine particles from living spaces 55
 and in passenger vehicles. 56

It is even more important that vulnerable communities 57
 are provided with public sheltering facilities to reduce the 58
 impacts of periods of high temperature, high pollution and 59
 dangerous flooding. But many Asian cities are losing the vital 60
 contribution to public health of green spaces, despite studies 61
 showing why maintaining parks and road-side trees is a cost 62
 effective measure against high temperature and pollution, 63
 and flooding. 64

Atmospheric measurements and computer models con- 65
 firm that, as the urban areas expand, they affect both higher 66
 layers in the atmosphere and also how they are affecting 67
 the environment over hundreds of kilometres away from the 68

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Q5 cities (Hunt et al., 2016). With urbanisation reducing the
70 vegetation cover from 80% down to 1%, and enlarging the
71 areas of high buildings, the albedo and the diurnal cycle of
72 heating and cooling are changed substantially. The main
73 consequence is that the mean surface temperature in urban
74 areas has risen faster than by global warming, by about 1.4°C
75 over the large conurbations. The pattern of precipitation
76 has also changed. Just like other mesoscale disturbances in
77 boundary layer flows, large change in surface conditions over
78 the conurbation affect precipitation and temperature in areas
Q6 more than 100 km down-wind (Cheng and Johnny, 2012).

80 Leaders of the major cities around the world are now well
81 aware that the physical growth and the transformations of
82 their regions are affecting the climate and the environment of
83 the whole world, with serious consequences for the long term
84 well-being of the whole of the world's population. Since
85 the energy use by transport, housing and industry of urban
86 areas are responsible for more than half the total consump-
87 tion of carbon based fuels, large cities are responsible for the
88 increasing global level of green-house gases and consequently
89 for the continuing rise in global average temperature. Further-
90 more leaders are also showing their responsibility by explaining
91 to their public how their urban areas are also experiencing
92 adverse feed-back effects including rising global temperatures,
93 changing patterns of global climate and, for coastal cities, rising
94 sea levels and ocean acidification.

95 Of great concern to cities are the increased risks of more
96 extended periods of very hot or very cold weather and high
97 levels of dust and pollution, which can be more acute in cities
98 than in the surrounding areas. In either of these temperature
99 extremes there is greater incidence of illness and death
100 among vulnerable groups such as the elderly, young children
101 and asthmatics, which are further exacerbated when there
102 are high levels of air pollution carried into the cities from
103 agricultural burning, shipping in coastal cities and industries.
104 Worsening environments on land and sea also have negative
105 economic effects such as on tourism, fishing, agriculture and
106 forestry.

107 The variability of global climate change also causes variabil-
108 ity in natural hazards and their impacts in large urban areas,
109 especially in Asia. Some geophysical hazard-events occur
110 relatively slowly, such as those associated with high or low
111 temperature, or floods from high precipitation. With very high
112 temperatures, weak winds driven by deep turbulent convection
113 can vary markedly across urban areas, usually with the
114 maximum temperatures occurring towards the downwind
115 part of the city. Also these patterns tend to vary unsteadily
116 in time, depending on the surface conditions and density
117 of high buildings. During extreme atmospheric events, large
118 cities meet requirements for extra levels of energy for cooling or
119 heating, as well as meeting the usual demands for transpor-
120 tation. Urban planning and design need to become more
121 energy efficient in the future, to avoid contributing an in-
122 creasing proportion of global greenhouse gas emissions. With
123 more complete environmental data at ground level, and new
124 data from tall meteorological masts and towers such as those
125 in Beijing and other Asian cities, these environmental hazards
126 could be better monitored, predicted and understood as shown
127 recently in London where tower data have demonstrated
128 their utility. The health of cities will also benefit from studies

leading to better ventilated streets and well maintained green 129
spaces. 130

Near the Equator, except when there are violent wind 131
storms, the wind speeds are generally low, especially in the 132
evening. The expansion of large cities, which further reduces 133
wind speeds, also contributes to higher temperatures locally 134
and over the whole globe. For inland urban areas over the 135
winter months, the high concentrations of urban and rural 136
aerosols prevent the sun's rays reaching the ground level, 137
further reducing the temperature and even freezing small 138
rivers, as observed in Delhi in 2014. In north Indian plain, 139
there are increasing economic impacts as winter transport is 140
severely disrupted for days on end not only aircraft, but even 141
trains and road traffic reminiscent of Europe and USA before 142
the 1960s. 143

The cities in South East Asia, particularly Manila, not only 144
experience serious impacts from the worsening atmospheric 145
environment, but they also suffer from multiple hazards 146
resulting from severe rain, mud slides, high winds and 147
flooding on the coasts and inland. Such events can occur 148
simultaneously or in close succession (Hunt, 2009). The Q7
impacts of these hazards on communities are magnified in 150
the most increasing populous areas which are often located in 151
vulnerable locations, for example next to rivers, on hillsides or 152
on the coasts, where typhoon flooding can devastate whole 153
communities. Future planning has to allow for future trends 154
that show how over the past 100 years, peak rainfall rates 155
have doubled and their frequency has also increased, which 156
has been partly caused as by the effects of urban growth. 157
Since global warming is increasing and also atmospheric 158
humidity, the severity and frequency of these flood hazards 159
are likely to keep increasing, especially in tropical regions. 160

But technology can reduce the impact of these hazards 161
through forecasting their movement a few hours ahead, for 162
example with the aid of using weather radar systems for 163
tracking moving clouds of intense rain. With improved model- 164
ling and communications, even to individuals, local communi- 165
ties can now evacuate flood prone areas and move to public 166
refuge buildings (Lagmay et al., 2017a), which are being 167
repositioned more appropriately using models and data of 168
how floods build up in these critical areas. Many lives have 169
been saved, but unless the urban infrastructure is improved, the 170
impacts on property will keep on increasing. 171

A range of policies for dealing with the issues are being 172
considered in major urban areas in Asia. In some cities in 173
China, planning policies have focussed on reducing the 174
continued spatial growth of some of the largest cities by 175
creating separate new towns about 50–100 km away. In 176
principle, this approach should produce lower air pollution 177
in satellite cities by reducing commuting distances of car 178
drivers, and moderate rising urban temperatures by limiting 179
the growth of the mega city. But there is evidence that people 180
do not necessarily behave according to plan. It is found that 181
commuting distances can even increase because, while jobs 182
can be moved, families may not want to be displaced. Other 183
planning policies as in Delhi and Singapore are focusing on 184
how to reduce air pollution whether it is produced regionally 185
or locally within the cities. At a local level, populations 186
are exposed to road-side traffic pollution in street canyons 187
and densely-developed city regions. Because of low levels of 188

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