

1 **Supplementary Information**

2 **S1. Selective Literature Review**

3 **S1.1 Exposure-Response Coefficients**

4 Particulate Matter (PM) affects human health most severely among all air pollutants and Fine Particle
5 (PM_{2.5}) has substantially increased the numbers of mortality and morbidity (hospital admissions and
6 outpatient visits) worldwide (Xu et al, 2000). The exposure-response coefficient is used to measure the
7 quantitative relationship between PM exposure and its health outcomes. Xu et al (2000), Venner et al
8 (2003) and Kan and Chen (2004) assessed the daily PM-induced mortality in Shenyang, Chongqing and
9 Shanghai. Epidemic studies using exposure-response coefficients confirm increasing risks for mortality
10 and morbidity of contaminant diseases at higher exposure (particulate concentration level).
11

12 **S1.2 Health Costs Assessment**

13 Health costs studies are dedicated to translating various health outcomes into monetary terms and two
14 most frequently-used methods are Contingent Valuation Approach (CVA) and Human Capital Approach
15 (HCA), where CVA focuses on the Willingness-To-Pay of households to avoid the mortality or morbidity
16 risks of a disease whereas HCA emphasizes on Potentially Productive Years of Life Loss (PPYL) and
17 discounted value of future earnings due to a disease. Studies using CVA can be found at national scale
18 (Zeng and Jiang, 2010), provincial scale (Wang and Mullahy, 2006) and city scale (Kan and Chen, 2004) and
19 studies using HCA can be found in Bradley et al (2007) and Wan et al (2004). Both approaches tend to
20 evaluate the economic burden resulting from a particular disease from a patient's perspective that
21 however, are subject to scope limits. CVA quantifies health costs based on respondents' risk perceptions
22 that can be completely different and unmeasurable within different social structures and health-care
23 systems (Kan and Chen, 2004). Meanwhile, as HCA heavily relies on PPYL, it neglects the roles of children
24 and the elderly as well as disease-induced morbidity. Additionally, despite both approaches can provide
25 meaningful microeconomic information regarding the monetary benefits from reducing mortality or
26 morbidity rates, the results can hardly represent the macroeconomic impacts of disease-induced health
27 outcomes on national GDP, especially in the cascading economic impacts occurred along production
28 supply chain because neither of them considers industrial and regional interdependencies.
29

30 **S1.3 A 'Circular Economy' in Input-Output Analysis**

31 Assessing the macroeconomic impacts of disease-induced health outcomes requires us to consider
32 important industrial and regional interdependencies. With regards to production supply chain, reduction
33 in output level of a single sector can affect both sectors purchasing its outputs (downstream sectors) and
34 selling their outputs (upstream sectors). In other words, the initial impacts on a single economic sector
35 can affect other sectors that are not directly under shocks because of their inter-industrial transaction.
36 Analogously, economic impacts initially occurred in a single region can spill over other regions due to
37 intra-regional or international trades. The increasingly significant role of industrial and regional
38 interdependencies brings Input-Output (IO) analysis under spotlights. The concept of 'circular economy'
39 has been well understood by IO analysis developed by Wassily Leontief in 1930, which was initially
40 applied to determination of direct and indirect input requirements for U.S. industrial sectors. Leontief
41 suggested in his developed input-output table that, all economic activities could be assigned to

42 production and consumption sectors. The basic structure of an input-output table is divided into four
 43 quadrants, which are intermediate transactions, final demand, and the primary inputs for production and
 44 primary requirements to final demand. The quadrant of intermediate transactions illustrates the
 45 intermediate transaction between production sectors in an economy. The final demand quadrant
 46 describes the sales to the final consumption such as households, governments and exports. Furthermore,
 47 an input-output table contains information of primary inputs, which describes not only those necessary
 48 inputs for production, such as fixed capitals, compensation of employees and taxes (the third quadrant)
 49 but also the primary inputs to the final consumption (the fourth quadrant) (Miller and Blair, 2009). The
 50 techniques of input-output analysis have been significantly enhanced while the approach was spreading
 51 out to many fields, including energy usage (Guan et al, 2016), environmental pollution (Meng et al, 2015
 52 & 2016), climate change mitigation (Feng et al, 2013; Wiedmann et al, 2006) and adaptation and
 53 economic perturbations (Steenge and Bočkarjova, 2007; Cho et al, 2001; Santos, 2006; Crowther and
 54 Haimes, 2005; Xia et al, forthcoming) as well as to different scales, ranging from national to regional level.
 55

56 S1.4 Input-Output Model in Disaster Risk Studies

57 An IO model was developed based on the concept of a ‘circular economy’ and its advantages in capturing
 58 industrial and regional interdependencies enable to quantify disaster-induced indirect impacts, including
 59 [floods](#) (Steenge and Bočkarjova, 2007), earthquakes (Cho et al, 2001), wilful attacks (Santos, 2006) and
 60 national power outages (Crowther and Haimes, 2005). These events can be categorized as rapid-onset
 61 disasters that generally result in substantial damage to physical capital, such as bridges, roads and other
 62 infrastructures and thus, rapid-onset disaster risk assessment will largely depend on quantifying the direct
 63 damages to physical capital. On contrast, PM pollution is different in nature from disasters mentioned
 64 above because it will last longer and cause severe harm on human health but little damage to physical
 65 capital. We term such kind of disaster as ‘persistent’ disasters. Assessing the economic impacts of
 66 persistent disasters may require a different method, which lacks exploration in existing risk analysis
 67 literature.
 68

69 S2. Additional Information in Methods

70 *Table S1. Concentration-response coefficients for morbidity that were used in this study*

Concentration-response Coefficients for Morbidity		
Health Impacts	Coefficient	Reference
cardiovascular HA	0.0009059	Health risks of air
respiratory HA	0.001882	pollution in Europe –
		HRAPIE project
outpatient visits	0.000389241	Xu et al. (1995)

71

72 S3. Sensitivity Analysis

73 Due to data unavailability in several aspects, the current study is subject to some uncertainties that on
 74 the other hand, open up more research space for scholars. Firstly, labour time loss resulting from
 75 outpatient visits was estimated as 4 hours per visit in order to provide a realistic boundary for study
 76 results when specific time loss data is not available. This assumption was made according to Chinese
 77 medical system which has no pre-booking and follow-up services. I suggest that such conservative
 78 assumption could provide a lower boundary in model results. Secondly, the distribution of the mortality

79 and morbidity counts into industries was based on the occupational respiratory conditions incidence rate
80 from the Bureau of Labour Statistics in the US due to the lack of occupational illness data in China. The
81 data suggest that manufacturing workers entail the highest respiratory condition incidence rate at 2.1%,
82 followed by workers in services sectors at 1.8%, natural resources and mining sector at 1.5% and
83 construction sector at 1.2%. However, the data follows the US sector categorization. As a result, 30
84 industries in China were re-categorized into four large sectors to be aligned with the US sector
85 categorization. The mortality and morbidity counts were firstly assigned to these four sectors and
86 sectoral mortality and morbidity counts were further distributed into industries according to the industry-
87 to-sector output ratio. Therefore, model results can be more accurate when data on industrial disease
88 incident rates in China become available because outdoor workers in some sectors appear to be more
89 directly exposed to PM_{2.5} pollution than indoor workers in other sectors. To differentiate the disease
90 incidence rates for various occupations is crucial because workers in different sectors normally have
91 different working environment with different exposures to PM_{2.5} pollution. Thirdly, the study employs a
92 supply-driven input-output model is frequently criticized in its ignorance regarding the effect of changing
93 output on further changes in industrial value added and possible nonlinear relationships between labour
94 inputs and economic outputs in sectors dominated by monetary capital (Miller and Blair, 2009). However,
95 it is still found to be a suitable candidate model to reflect a more straightforward linkage between
96 changing value added and the entire economy in a way that captures industrial and regional
97 interrelationships and indirect economic loss along production supply chain.

98
99 This section provides a sensitivity analysis for the study on China’s air pollution in 2012 to test the impacts
100 of alternative data or assumptions regarding time required for each cardiovascular admission, each
101 outpatient visit, equal distribution of mortality and morbidity counts into industries and industrial specific
102 air pollutant exposure levels on the modelling results in terms of total economic loss resulting from PM_{2.5}-
103 induced health effects.

104
105 **S3.1 Timed Required for Each Cardiovascular Hospital Admission**

106
107 In the main study, each cardiovascular admission will require 11.9 working days. However, according to
108 Wang and Li (2008), more severe symptom in cardiovascular disease will require over 30 days for each
109 admission. Without considering the possible weekends or holidays, I tested the variation range in total
110 economic loss when each cardiovascular admission takes 30, 60 and 90 working days, respectively. The
111 results can be observed in *Table S2*. It shows a rising trend from 417.49 to 481.31 billion Yuan for 2012.
112 Regardless the increase in working days lost for each cardiovascular admission, the variation range in test
113 results is relatively small.

114
115 *Table S1 Varying Working Day Lost for Each Cardiovascular Admission*

Sensitivity Analysis – cardiovascular hospital admission time	
Number of working days lost	Output Loss (billion Yuan)
30	417.49
60	449.40
90	481.31

116
117 **S3.2 Required Times for Each Outpatient Visit**

118
119 In the study, it was assumed that 4 hours (0.5 working day) were required for each outpatient visit and
120 each outpatient visits the clinic once during the study year. Due to the lack of data on the required time
121 for each outpatient visit in China, this assumption was made based on the current status of Chinese
122 medical system where no pre-booking and follow-up services are available. Therefore, this section tests
123 the impacts of alternative time required for each outpatient visit on the modelling results as shown in
124 *Table S3* As can be seen from the tables, the total economic loss rise from 366.58 to 461.53 billion Yuan

125 with the rising amount of time required for each outpatient visit from 2 to 8 hours, confirming the
 126 impacts of required time for outpatient visit on the overall model results. The results tend to be more
 127 sensitive to the required outpatient time due to a relatively large size of pollution-induced outpatients.
 128 This indicates the needs for more accurate data on frequency and time required for outpatient visits in
 129 order to further improve the accuracy of model results. However, I suggested that the current
 130 assumptions concerning outpatient visits are consistent with the ongoing situation in Chinese medical
 131 system in a background of extreme air pollution condition throughout the year and thus, they tend to
 132 provide a conservative estimation in total economic loss by considering time for queuing, inquiry and
 133 medical treatment. It is noteworthy that no holiday that might be potentially embodied in the working
 134 days lost was considered.
 135

136 *Table S2 Varying Time Required for Each Outpatient Visit*

Sensitivity Analysis – time required for each outpatient visit (hour)	
Hours Lost	Output Loss (billion Yuan)
2	366.58
6	429.88
8	461.53

137

138 **S3.3 Equal Distribution of Mortality and Morbidity Counts in Industries**

139

140 Another assumption in the study is the distribution of mortality and morbidity counts into industries,
 141 which was based on the occupational respiratory conditions incidence rate from the Bureau of Labour
 142 Statistics in the US due to the lack of occupational illness data in China. The data suggest that
 143 manufacturing workers entail the highest respiratory condition incidence rate at 2.1%, followed by
 144 workers in services sectors at 1.8%, natural resources and mining sector at 1.5% and construction sector
 145 at 1.2%. When equally assigning these counts into a total number of 886 industries in terms of 896
 146 deaths, 813 cardiovascular admissions, 1688 respiratory admissions and 89362 outpatient visits, the total
 147 economic loss become 446.55 billion Yuan. Such case, however, can hardly happen in the real case.
 148

149 **S3.4 Distribution of Mortality and Morbidity Counts based on Industrial Exposure Rates**

150

151 We also employed another approach in distributing counts of mortality, hospital admissions and
 152 outpatient visits from Xia et al (2016) that was based on the data related to occupational exposures to
 153 harmful substances or environments (Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2007). It sketches a relatively
 154 comprehensive picture regarding the exposure coefficients for all industries and the belonging sub-
 155 industries for four main sectors, including natural resources and mining, manufacturing, construction and
 156 service. The 30 Chinese industries in each province from our multi-regional input-output table were
 157 mapped into each of these sectors. For those industries with combinative features, including food and
 158 beverage and tobacco manufacturing; financial activities and rental and leasing; electric power
 159 generation, transmission and distribution; water, sewage and other systems; and wholesale and retail
 160 trade, I summed up the exposure coefficient for each industry and used the averaged industrial values for
 161 those with missing data. For example, regarding the construction sector that is normally regarded as a
 162 principle sector in the US, is however classified as a sub-industry under secondary industry in China
 163 without any further specification. Therefore, for the construction sector, the total number of exposure
 164 cases was calculated as 182. The overview of occupational exposures to harmful substances or
 165 environments is summarized in *Table S4*. Mortality, hospital admissions and outpatient visits counts in
 166 each province were assigned to industries according to these exposure proportions. For industries
 167 without output, I focused on the industrial-to-total provincial proportions. The total economic loss based
 168 on such distribution of mortality and morbidity counts was 344.89 billion Yuan. Therefore, model results
 169

170 were not significantly affected by the ways to assign mortality and morbidity counts. Since the US sector
 171 categorization tends to attach greater importance to service sector, it might be inconsistent with the
 172 Chinese economic structure. The model estimations can be more robust once the specific dataset for
 173 different occupational exposure levels is available in China.

174

175 *Table S3 Occupational Exposure to Harmful Substances or Environment*

Occupational Exposure to Harmful Substances and Environments	
Occupation	Exposure
<i>Natural resources and mining</i>	
Agriculture, forestry, fishing, hunting	35
Coal mining	17
Oil, gas wells	8
Metal ore mining	17
Nonmetal mineral mining, quarrying	17
<i>Manufacturing</i>	
Food, beverage and tobacco product	10
Textile mills	3
Textile clothing product	3
Wood product	3
Paper and printing related support activities	3
Petroleum and coal product	3
Chemical manufacturing	3
Nonmetal mineral product	3
Primary metal manufacturing	3
Fabricated metal product	10
Machinery manufacturing	3
Transportation equipment	3
Electrical equipment, appliance, component	3
Computer and electronic product	3
Furniture, institutional-related product	3
Miscellaneous manufacturing	3
<i>Service-providing</i>	
Natural gas distribution	4
Electric power generation, transmission, distribution and water, sewage, other systems	15
Transportation	37
Wholesale trade, retail trade	23
Accommodation and food service	11
Financial activities, rental, leasing	13
Professional scientific, technical service	5
Other services	10
<i>Construction</i>	
Construction	182

176 *(Source: US Bureau of Labour Statistics)*

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