

1 **Acute and chronic health impacts of PM_{2.5} in China and the**
2 **influence of interannual meteorological variability**

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22 **Abstract:**

23 High concentrations of PM_{2.5} in China have an adverse impact on human health and
24 present a major problem for air quality control. Here we evaluate premature deaths
25 attributable to chronic and acute exposure to ambient PM_{2.5} at different scales in China
26 over 2013-2017 with an air quality model at 5 km resolution and integrated exposure-
27 response methods. We estimate that 1,210,000 (95% Confidence Interval: 720,000–
28 1,750,000) premature deaths annually are attributable to chronic exposure to PM_{2.5}
29 pollution. Chongqing exhibits the largest chronic per capita mortality (1.4‰) among
30 all provinces. A total of 116,000 (64,000–170,000) deaths annually are attributable to
31 acute exposure during pollution episodes over the period, with Hubei province showing
32 the highest acute per capita mortality (0.15‰). We also find that in urban areas
33 premature deaths are 520,000 (320,000–760,000) due to chronic and 55,000 (3,000–
34 81,000) due to acute exposure, respectively. At a provincial level, the annual mean
35 PM_{2.5} concentration varies by ±20% due to interannual variability in meteorology, and
36 PM_{2.5}-attributable chronic mortality varies by ±8%, and by >±5% and ±1% at a national
37 level. Meteorological variability shows larger impacts on interannual variations in acute
38 risks than that in chronic exposure at both provincial (>±20%) and national (±4%)
39 levels. These findings emphasize that tighter controls of PM_{2.5} and precursor emissions
40 are urgently needed, particularly under unfavorable meteorological conditions in China.

41 **Keywords:** High resolution; air quality model; exposure response functions; health
42 impacts; acute and chronic exposure; urban and rural; meteorological variability

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45 With the rapid urbanization and industrialization of China over recent decades, air
46 pollution has become a severe environmental and social issue, and regional-scale
47 episodes of heavy air pollution have become more frequent (Chan and Yao, 2008;
48 Zhang et al, 2013; Fu et al, 2017). PM_{2.5} (particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter
49 less than 2.5 μm) is one of the main constituents of air pollution. In most cities in China
50 annual mean PM_{2.5} concentrations are 4–10 times higher than the WHO Air Quality
51 Guidelines of 10 μg/m³. High concentrations of PM_{2.5} not only affect the environment,
52 but also have a negative effect on human health. Both long-term and short-term
53 exposure to particulate matter lead to health effects on human beings (Gordian et al.,
54 1996; Dockery, 2001; Pope III et al., 2019). The 2015 Global Burden of Disease Study
55 (GBD 2015) identified outdoor PM_{2.5} pollution as the fifth greatest risk factor for health,
56 with ambient PM_{2.5} exposure responsible for 4.2 million deaths worldwide, and for
57 nearly 1.1 million deaths annually in China (Cohen et al., 2017).

58 Several studies have investigated the health impacts induced by PM_{2.5} exposure
59 (Anenberg et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2013; Beelen et al., 2014; Apte et al., 2015;
60 Lelieveld et al., 2015; Ghude et al., 2016). However, many of these studies rely on
61 limited surface monitoring data (Song et al., 2017; Maji et al., 2018), and this may be
62 insufficient to reproduce the long-term spatial and temporal variations of pollutants.
63 Satellite observations provide valuable additional information with better spatial
64 coverage, but there are substantial uncertainties in quantifying the surface
65 concentrations relevant to health (Liu et al., 2017). Air quality models that are based on
66 understanding of physical and chemical processes provide better temporal and spatial

67 coverage than observations and are therefore useful for supplementing monitoring data.
68 High spatial resolution allows sharp spatial gradients in PM concentrations to be
69 captured, particularly in areas with diverse topography, demography and emissions
70 (Chemel et al, 2010; Crippa et al, 2016). High resolution models are thus particularly
71 valuable for evaluating the health impacts of ambient PM_{2.5} in urban and rural areas
72 (Hu et al., 2015).

73 An integrated exposure-response (IER) function for PM_{2.5} was developed by Burnett
74 et al (2014) for the GBD 2010 study and has been applied widely to estimate chronic
75 health impacts in China. This approach combines information from cohort studies on
76 ambient air pollution, second-hand smoke, household solid fuel and smoking to predict
77 the relative risk over the entire PM_{2.5} exposure range, covering low and high
78 concentrations. Using these IER curves, Lelieveld et al (2015) estimated that PM_{2.5}
79 pollution was responsible for 1.36 million premature deaths in 2010 across China, based
80 on coarse resolution (>100 km) model simulations of PM_{2.5} concentration. GBD 2010
81 used a higher resolution (10 km) data set (Lim et al., 2012) to estimate that 1.23 million
82 premature deaths occurred in 2010, while premature deaths attributable to ambient
83 PM_{2.5} in 2013 were estimated at 1.37 million based on assimilated PM_{2.5} concentrations
84 (Liu et al, 2016). Other studies have analyzed the long-term spatial and temporal
85 variation of mortality induced by ambient PM_{2.5} using satellite data (Liu et al, 2017).
86 However, these studies used an earlier parameterization of IER, and the updated
87 parameterizations of Cohen et al. (2017) are expected to be more accurate. Many of
88 these previous studies have employed national-level baseline rates of disease incidence

89 over China, neglecting the differences between different provinces which are known to
90 be substantial (Xie et al., 2016).

91 To mitigate serious air pollution and the adverse health impacts of pollutant exposure,
92 stringent air pollution control policies were implemented in China in 2013 that required
93 a reduction in PM_{2.5} concentrations of 10% by 2017 (Huang et al., 2018; Cheng et al.,
94 2019). Previous studies have evaluated the health benefits of the reductions in ambient
95 PM_{2.5} over this period, which were driven mainly by the emission control measures
96 (Zheng et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2018; Ding et al., 2019). However, meteorological
97 processes play an important role in the transport and accumulation of PM_{2.5}. Interannual
98 variations in meteorology may thus lead to substantial variations in surface PM_{2.5} that
99 affect the health burden and this has not been thoroughly explored.

100 While long-term cumulative exposure to elevated levels of PM_{2.5} on annual
101 timescales is known to be damaging to health, short-term acute exposure to high PM_{2.5}
102 on daily timescales can also be important (Pope III, 2000), and common health
103 endpoints include mortality, hospitalization, outpatient visits and respiratory symptoms.
104 In China, studies have estimated the health impacts of severe haze events, such as the
105 extreme episode in January 2013 (Li et al., 2013; Xie et al., 2014; Gao et al., 2015).
106 However, few studies have focused on short-term exposure over annual timescales
107 across the country.

108 In this study, we estimate the premature human mortality over the 2013–2017 period
109 attributable to ambient PM_{2.5} across China using updated IER functions and population
110 data, provincial level disease incidence data, and a high-resolution air quality model.

111 We use the terminology “chronic health impacts” to describe premature deaths
112 attributable to long-term exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ and “acute health impacts” to refer to
113 premature deaths attributable to short-term exposure to very high $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations.
114 We explore how $PM_{2.5}$ -induced premature mortality varies at different scales, including
115 the contrasts between urban and rural districts. We then quantify the spatial and
116 interannual variation of chronic and acute health impacts due to the variability in
117 meteorological conditions, and identify the uncertainties. We focus on providing a
118 contemporary assessment of health impacts and a full characterization of the spatial and
119 temporal variations imposed by meteorology, and we therefore neglect year to year
120 changes in emissions, population and land cover which also influence the health
121 impacts. Section 2 introduces the methods used, including the environmental data and
122 functions used for evaluating the chronic and acute health impacts. Section 3 describes
123 and explains the health impacts attributable to ambient $PM_{2.5}$, and assesses the impact
124 of interannual meteorological variability. Section 4 discusses uncertainties, and section
125 5 presents the conclusions.

126 **2. Materials and methods**

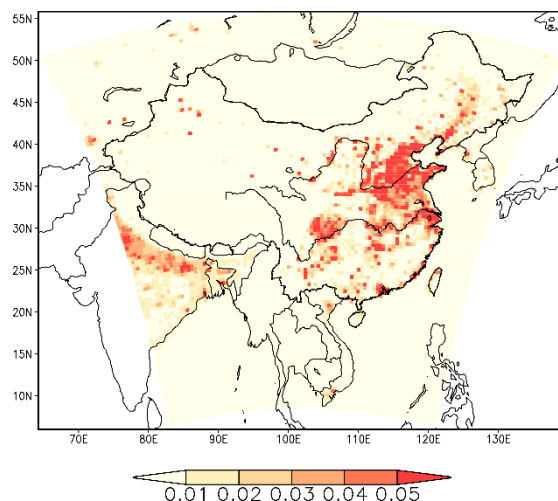
127 **2.1 NAQPMS atmospheric model**

128 The Nested Air Quality Prediction Modeling System (NAQPMS) is used in this study.
129 This is a 3-D regional Eulerian chemical transport model developed at the Institute of
130 Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences (Wang et al, 2006; Li et al 2011,
131 2013). NAQPMS includes a complete description of chemical reactions, advection,
132 diffusion, and dry and wet deposition (Wang et al, 2001). It uses the CBM-Z chemical

133 mechanism that includes 71 species and 176 reactions (Zaveri and Peters, 1999) to
134 calculate gas-phase chemistry. An aerosol thermodynamic model (ISORROPIA1.7) is
135 used to simulate inorganic aerosol chemistry (Nenes et al, 1998, 1999). Heterogeneous
136 chemistry is included for 14 species with 28 reactions (Li et al, 2012). Dry deposition
137 of gases and aerosols is based on the parameterization of Wesely (1989) and Zhang
138 (2001). Wet deposition and aqueous phase chemistry are based on RADM2 (Chang et
139 al, 1987). Dust and sea salt production are calculated following Luo et al (2006) and
140 Athanasopoulou et al (2008). Six secondary organic aerosols are simulated using a two-
141 product module (Odum et al, 1997; Pandis et al, 1991). A more detailed description of
142 NAQPMS can be found in Li et al (2012).

143 **2.2 Model configuration**

144 Figure 1 shows the model domain used in this study, covering China, Mongolia, the
145 Korean Peninsula and Southeast Asia. The model is run at $5 \text{ km} \times 5 \text{ km}$ horizontal
146 resolution and has 999×1069 grid points in latitude and longitude, respectively.
147 Vertically, the model uses 20 terrain-following layers from the surface to 20 km, with
148 the lowest 12 layers below 3 km.



150 Fig 1 Model domain and annual mean emission rate of primary PM_{2.5} ($\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$)

151 Hourly meteorological fields for NAQPMS are taken from the Weather Research and
152 Forecasting (WRF) model v3.3 run at 5 km resolution and driven by the National
153 Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Final Analysis (FNL) 6-hourly data.
154 Comparison of observed and simulated daily mean temperature (T), relative humidity
155 (RH) and wind speed (WS) at 83 sites across China shows normalized mean biases
156 between -0.07 and -0.02 and high correlation coefficients, particularly for temperature
157 (0.98) and relative humidity (0.86), see Table S1 in supplementary material. The model
158 captures both the magnitude and temporal variation of these three meteorological
159 variables well, as shown in Fig S1. The chemical initial and boundary conditions for
160 NAQPMS are taken from simulations with the global model MOZARTv2.4 (Emmons
161 et al., 2010).

162 Anthropogenic emissions are based on an updated version of the Multi Resolution
163 Emission Inventory (MEIC, www.meicmodel.org) for 2013. MEIC provides emissions
164 of 10 major air pollutants and greenhouse gases (SO₂, NO_x, CO, NMVOC, NH₃, CO₂,
165 PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, BC and OC) from anthropogenic sources. The original resolution of MEIC
166 2013 is $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ and the data is interpolated to the 5 km grid weighted by gridded
167 area and location. Biogenic emissions are taken from off-line simulations of the Model
168 for Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) (Guenther et al, 2012) at
169 an original resolution of $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ and re-gridded to $5 \text{ km} \times 5 \text{ km}$ by the same approach.
170 The major emissions in MEGAN are isoprene and monoterpenes, which account for
171 nearly 70% of total biogenic volatile organic compound emissions. China land cover

172 data for 2015 at 1 km resolution were used to distinguish urban and rural areas. This
173 was re-gridded to 5 km x 5 km and grid squares with an urban ratio greater than 0.33
174 were defined as urban areas (Feng et al., 2018).

175 **2.3 Long-term (chronic) premature mortality estimation**

176 An integrated exposure risk (IER) model (Burnett et al., 2014) for PM_{2.5}
177 concentration–response functions was used to evaluate the premature mortality
178 attributable to ambient PM_{2.5} exposure over China from 2013 to 2017. The IER model
179 is based on cohort studies of ambient PM_{2.5} in the US and Europe, including tobacco
180 smoke and the household burning of solid fuel, and provides concentration-response
181 relationships for a wide range of ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations. It has been employed
182 previously in the GBD studies (Lim et al., 2010; GBD 2013; GBD 2015). We consider
183 the premature mortality attributable to PM_{2.5} for the four main health endpoints among
184 adults (over 25 years old), including cerebrovascular disease (Stroke), ischemic heart
185 disease (IHD), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and lung cancer (LC),
186 and for one endpoint among young children, acute lower respiratory infection (LRI).

187 The relative risk (RR) for each health endpoint was calculated using equation (1)

$$188 \quad RR = \begin{cases} 1 + \alpha(1 - e^{-\beta(C-C_0)^\gamma}), & C \geq C_0 \\ 1, & C < C_0 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

189 where C is the annual average PM_{2.5} concentration, C_0 is the counterfactual
190 concentration below which no adverse health effect is observed, and α, β, γ are fitting
191 parameters that reproduce the observed concentration-response curves for the different
192 health endpoints. C_0, α, β and γ are updated from the values used in GBD 2015
193 based on Cohen et al., (2017). A distribution of 1000 sets of parameters is used in the

194 IER model to calculate the mean relative risk and its 95% confidence intervals (CIs).

195 The relative risk can be converted to a premature mortality attributable to ambient
196 PM_{2.5} exposure, for each endpoint for each age and sex (gender) subgroup in each
197 region (subscripts e, a, s, r, respectively).

$$198 \Delta M_{e,a,s,r}(C_r) = Pop_{a,s,r} \times B_{e,a,s,r} \times \frac{RR_{e,a,s}(C_r) - 1}{RR_{e,a,s}(C_r)} \quad (2)$$

199 where $\Delta M_{e,a,s,r}$ is the change in mortality attributable to long-term PM_{2.5} exposure of
200 a specific endpoint at a specific age, sex and region. $Pop_{a,s,r}$ represents the population
201 exposed in a specific age-sex group at a region-level. Population data at 1 km × 1 km
202 resolution for 2014 was obtained from LandScan (<https://landscan.ornl.gov/>) and re-
203 gridded to 5 km × 5 km to match the model resolution. $B_{e,a,s,r}$ represents the baseline
204 provincial mortality, i.e. the incidence of a specific endpoint at a specific age and sex
205 in a particular region, and $RR_{e,a,s}$ reflects the relative risk of the endpoint at a specific
206 age and sex. National baseline incidence rates of Stroke, IHD, COPD, LC and LRI were
207 obtained from the online GBD database (<https://vizhub.healthdata.org/gbd-compare>),
208 and provincial baseline incidence rates were estimated using the relationships between
209 provincial and national rates given by Xie et al. (2016). Per capita mortality is
210 calculated by dividing the number of premature deaths by the population.

211 **2.4 Short-term (acute) premature mortality estimation**

212 In this study, a Poisson regression model is used to estimate the acute risk attributable
213 to high PM_{2.5} concentrations during a pollution episode, and this approach has been
214 applied widely in the epidemiology of air pollution (Wang and Mauzerall., 2006), based
215 on the following:

216 $\Delta E_r = Pop_r[1 - e^{-\varepsilon(C-C_0)}]E$ (3)

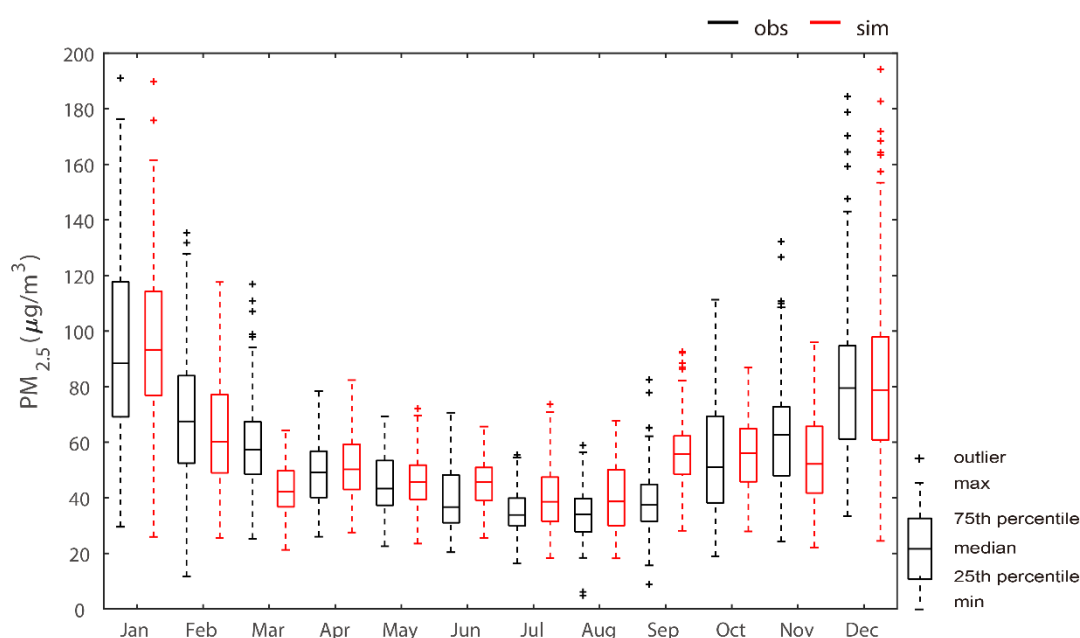
217 where ΔE is the estimated total non-accidental number of mortalities due to daily
218 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at a regional level; Pop is the exposed population in that region;
219 ε is the concentration-response coefficient for mortality, which was selected from a
220 meta-analysis of the coefficients associating short-term $PM_{2.5}$ exposure and health
221 responses in China (Lu et al., 2015); C is the simulated daily mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentration;
222 C_0 is the threshold concentration, for which we use the WHO 24-hour mean $PM_{2.5}$
223 guideline value ($25 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) as reference, and E is the national incidence rate of the total
224 non-accidental mortality endpoints listed in Section 2.3, was taken from the 2013 China
225 Statistical Yearbook of Public Health (NBSC, 2013).

226 **3 Results**

227 **3.1 Evaluation of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations**

228 Observations of hourly surface $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations from 2013 to 2017 were
229 obtained from the China National Environmental Monitoring Centre (www.cnemc.cn)
230 and are used to evaluate the model performance. Monthly frequency distributions of
231 observed and simulated concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ from 1288 sites in China over five
232 years are presented in Fig 2. Strong seasonal variations are observed, with higher $PM_{2.5}$
233 concentrations in winter and spring, and lower concentrations in summer and autumn.
234 These patterns are reproduced well with the model; the distributions of the two data
235 sets are close. In summertime, simulations are $7.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ higher than observations.
236 This may be because there is more precipitation in this season and wet deposition in
237 the model is underestimated (Wang et al., 2018). $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are reproduced

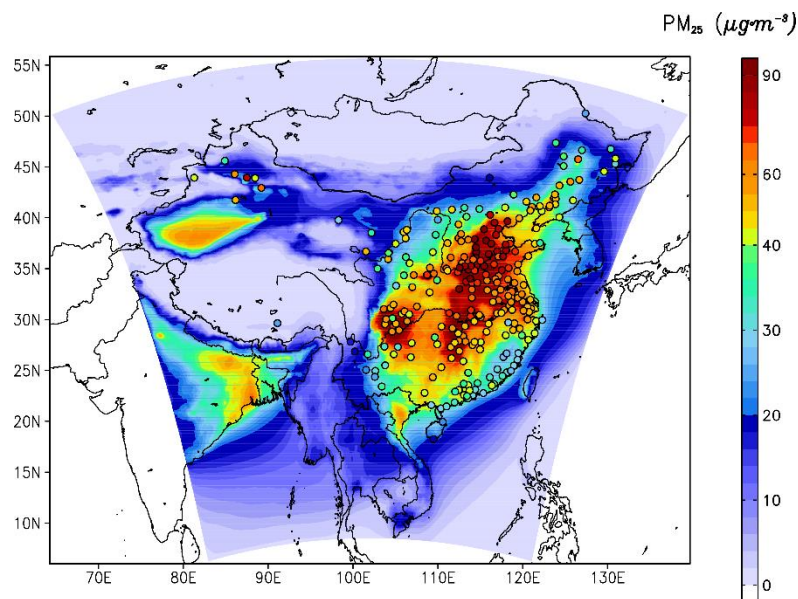
238 well by the model, particularly between 30 and 60 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and are a little high between
 239 70 and 90 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, with 93% of sites lying within a factor of two of the observations,
 240 see Fig S2 and Table S2 in supplementary material. The low model mean bias (0.9
 241 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and reasonably high correlation coefficient ($r=0.74$) indicate that at high
 242 resolution the NAQPMS model can capture the magnitude and temporal variation of
 243 daily $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations relatively well.



244
 245 Fig 2 Observed (black) and simulated (red) monthly frequency distributions of daily
 246 mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations averaged across 1288 sites in China.

247 NAQPMS also reproduces the spatial distribution of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration well. Fig 3
 248 shows a comparison of the 5-year annual mean simulated concentration of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ against
 249 observed average concentrations in 31 provincial capital cities across China. Since the
 250 highest urbanization and industrialization occur in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei, Yangtze
 251 River Delta, Pearl River Delta and Sichuan basin regions, high concentrations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
 252 are found in these regions. The highest 5-year mean concentration is greater than 100

253 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, greatly exceeding the Chinese annual mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration standard of 35
254 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and a factor of ten higher than the WHO limit. In contrast, less populated regions
255 in western China show much lower $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations ($<25\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). Differences from
256 observations at some locations are most likely caused by uncertainties in emissions,
257 changing weather conditions, and weaknesses in process representation in the model.
258 Overall, the temporal variation and spatial distribution of surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration
259 are captured very well at 5 km resolution, providing confidence in the suitability of the
260 results for analysis of the health impacts attributable to ambient $\text{PM}_{2.5}$.



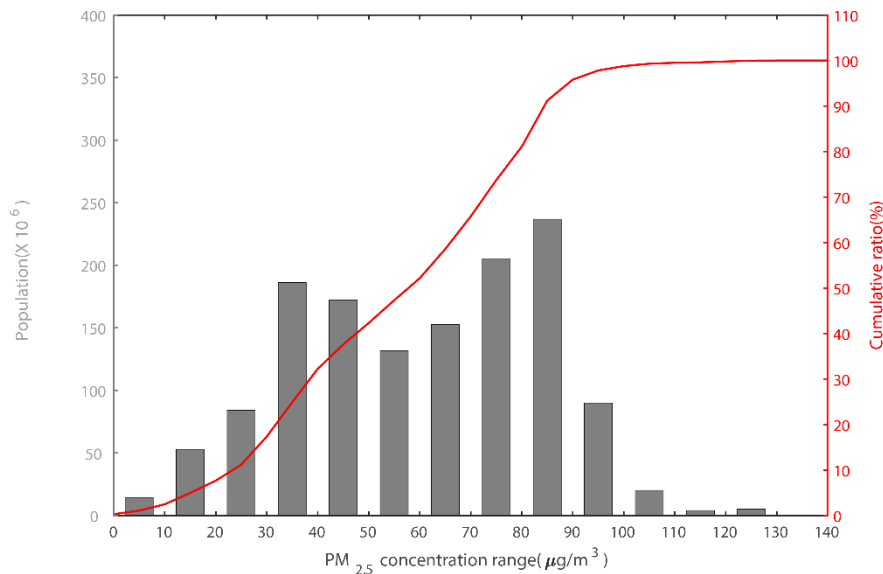
261
262 Fig 3 Spatial distribution of 5-year annual mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration across China;
263 circles show average observed concentration in 259 cities.

264 3.2 Premature mortality attributable to chronic exposure to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$

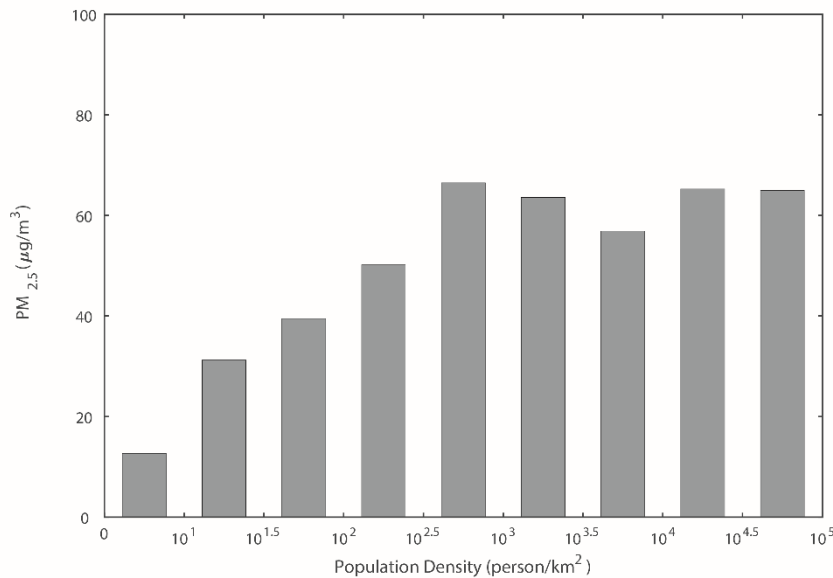
265 Population exposure to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was calculated using simulated $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations
266 in combination with high-resolution population data. Fig 4 shows the number of people
267 exposed to different 5-year mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations and the cumulative exposure.
268 About 1.2 billion people (87% of the total population) are exposed to 5-year mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$

269 concentrations of between 30 and 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The number of people exposed to 5-year
 270 mean concentrations above 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ is about 16.6 million, 1.2% of the population.
 271 About 235 million people (17% of the population) experience levels ≤ 35 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,
 272 meeting Chinese annual mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration standards, but only 14.4 million (1.1%
 273 of the population) do not exceed the WHO annual mean exposure limit of ≤ 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

274 Fig 5 shows how the 5-year mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration varies with population density
 275 across China. $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations increase with population density up to about 300
 276 people/ km^2 , and then stabilize at around 65 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. It is clear that $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ is lowest in
 277 rural and remote districts where the population density is less, and is highest in urban
 278 districts with large populations. The similar concentrations for population densities
 279 greater than 300 people/ km^2 likely reflects the timescales for transport and mixing and
 280 thus the regional nature of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ pollution.



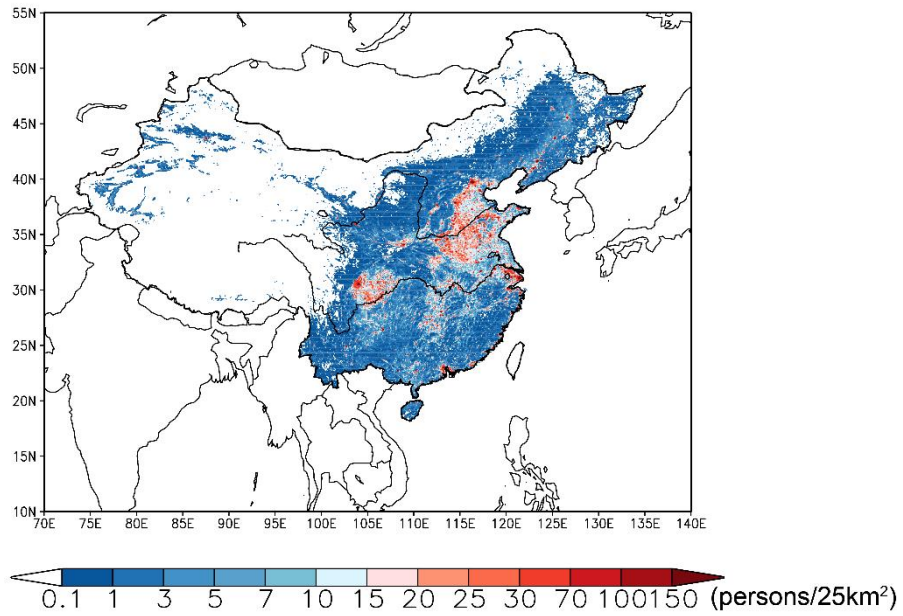
281
 282 Fig 4 Population exposure to 5-year mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$; bars show the number of people
 283 exposed in each 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ concentration range, and the curve shows the cumulative
 284 exposure.



285

286 Fig 5 Relationship between population density and 5-year mean PM_{2.5}

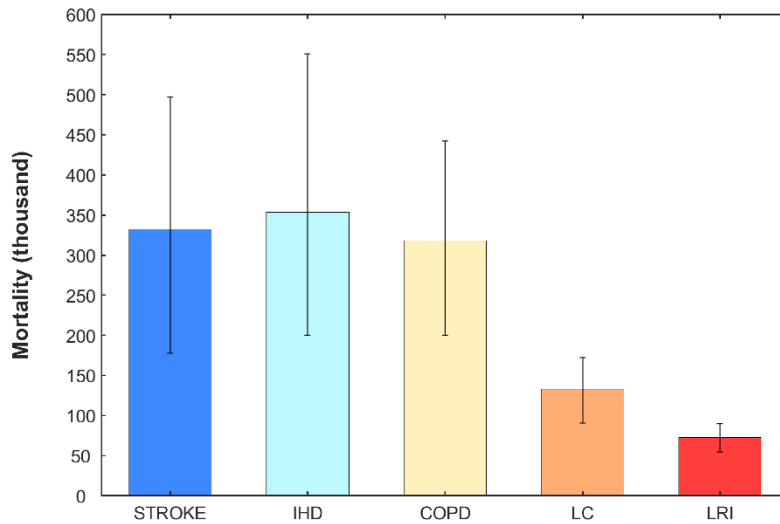
287 Fig 6 shows the spatial distribution of total (all-factor) premature mortality
 288 attributable to chronic exposure to ambient PM_{2.5} across China. Consistent with the
 289 spatial distributions of PM_{2.5} and population, high levels of mortality occur in central-
 290 eastern China and the Sichuan Basin, with approximately 1,210,000 (95% Confidence
 291 Interval: 720,000–1,750,000) premature deaths attributable to chronic exposure to
 292 PM_{2.5} in China on a 5-year average basis. The major causes of deaths are stroke, IHD
 293 and COPD, which contribute 330,000 (180,000–500,000), 350,000 (200,000–550,000)
 294 and 320,000 (200,000–440,000) deaths, accounting for 27%, 29% and 26%,
 295 respectively. Because of lower relative risks in IER model and provincial incidence
 296 rates, contributions from LC and LRI are comparatively small, with 130,000 (90,000–
 297 170,000) and 70,000 (50,000–90,000) premature deaths, 11% and 6%, respectively (Fig
 298 7).



299

300 Fig 6 Spatial distribution of premature deaths per year attributable to 5-year mean PM_{2.5}

301 exposure in mainland China.



302

303 Fig 7 Total deaths in China attributable to chronic PM_{2.5} exposure for different health

304 endpoints: Stroke, ischemic heart disease (IHD), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

305 (COPD), lung cancer (LC), and lower respiratory infection (LRI). Error bars represent

306 95% CI.

307 Chronic per capita deaths and corresponding total premature deaths in 31 provinces

308 are presented in Fig 8. There are more than 0.5‰ per capita deaths per year across the
 309 country except in the remote provinces of Tibet and Qinghai. Due to high PM_{2.5}
 310 concentrations in a heavily urbanized region, Chongqing has the highest per capita
 311 mortality (1.4‰) among all provinces (Fig 8a), followed by Sichuan (1.3‰) and
 312 Shandong (1.2‰). The largest totals of premature deaths due to ambient PM_{2.5} occur in
 313 Henan (110,000, 95% CI: 69,000–159,000), Shandong (109,000; 68,000–157,000),
 314 Sichuan (107,000; 68,000–151,240), Hunan (74,000; 46,000–106,000) and Jiangsu
 315 (71,000; 44,000–102,000), which together account for 39% of China’s total premature
 316 deaths. The high number of deaths in these provinces reflect high emissions of air
 317 pollutants and high population, combined with unfavorable geographical conditions
 318 such as their location in basins or downwind of major populated areas, which permit
 319 accumulation or transport of air pollutants. It is worth noting that deaths from COPD
 320 are relatively greater in southwestern provinces including Sichuan, Chongqing, Yunnan
 321 and Guizhou as there is a greater rural population in these regions, and the incidence
 322 rate of COPD is higher in rural areas (Zhong et al., 2011).

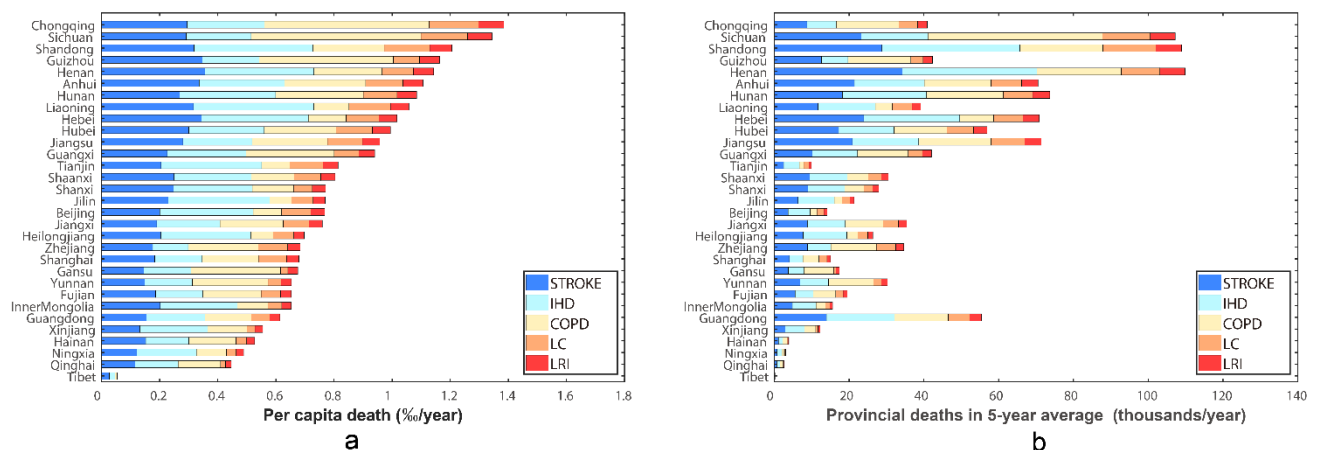


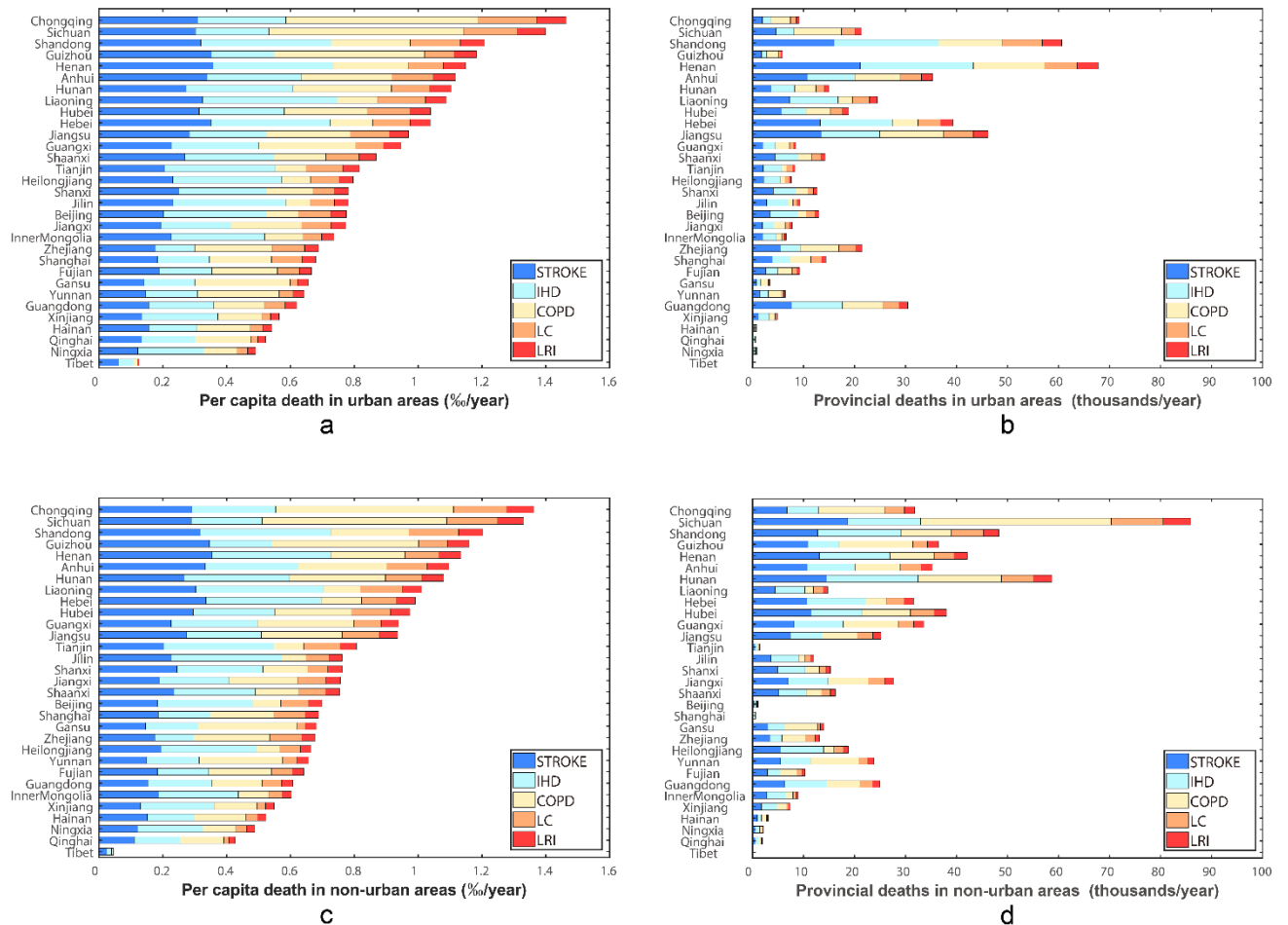
Fig 8 (a) Per capita and (b) total deaths per year due to chronic exposure to PM_{2.5} by

325 province.

326 **3.3 The difference in premature deaths between urban and rural areas**

327 Based on 1 km resolution China land cover data, approximately 44% of the Chinese
328 population live in urban districts. The estimated number of premature deaths in these
329 areas is 520,000 (95% CI: 320,000–760,000). Fig 9 shows the per capita mortality and
330 total premature deaths in urban and rural areas for each province. Per capita deaths are
331 slightly higher in urban (0.1–1.5‰) than in rural (0.05–1.4‰) areas for most provinces,
332 but the differences are not large and the provincial rankings are quite similar. This
333 highlights the regional nature of PM_{2.5} pollution, but also suggests that much finer scale
334 models resolving local sources may be needed to distinguish the characteristics of urban
335 and rural air pollution.

336 Henan province has the greatest number of urban premature deaths (70,000, 95% CI:
337 40,000–100,000). This province in central China has a large population, high levels of
338 urbanization, and is strongly affected by regional transport of pollution. Sichuan
339 province in southwestern China is dominated by mountains and has a large rural
340 population, and this region sees the greatest number of rural deaths (86,000, 95% CI:
341 50,000–120,000). In remote provinces, such as Tibet, Qinghai, Ningxia and Hainan,
342 premature deaths attributable to ambient PM_{2.5} are relatively low in both urban and rural
343 populations.



344

345 Fig 9 Per capita and total premature deaths per year due to 5-year mean PM_{2.5} in urban

346 (a, b) and rural (c, d) areas.

347 3.4 Effects of interannual meteorological variations on premature mortality

348 Several studies have evaluated the air quality and health benefits associated with

349 emission reduction policies over the 2013-2017 period (Zheng et al., 2017; Huang et

350 al., 2018). However, the impact of meteorological conditions on air quality and health

351 is also important and few studies have explored this. Fig 10 shows the relative

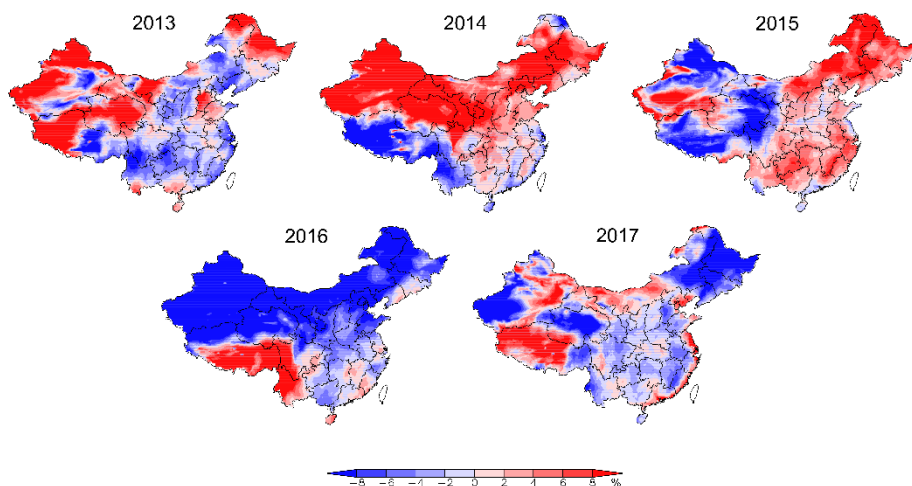
352 variability in annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration and total premature deaths in 31

353 provinces of China from 2013 to 2017. During this period, the interannual variations in

354 PM_{2.5} concentration and PM_{2.5}-attributable mortality due to meteorology are quite small,

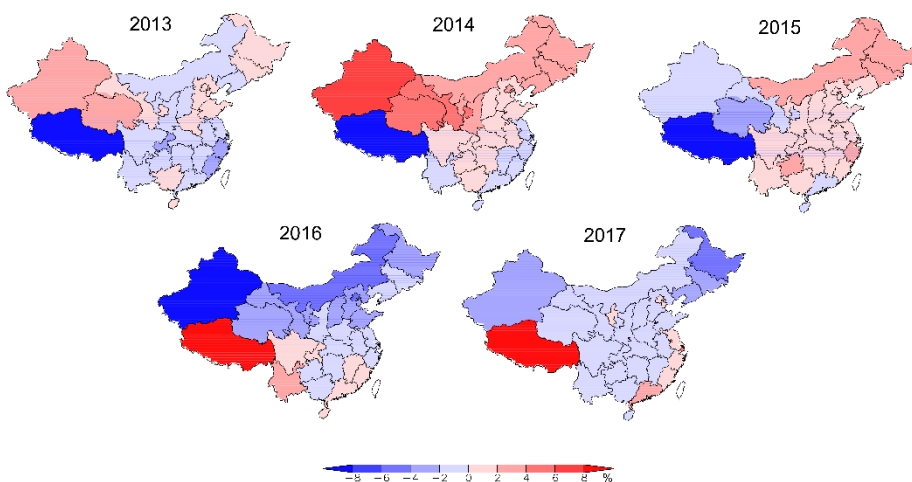
355 $\pm 5\%$ and $\pm 1\%$, respectively. However, at a provincial level annual mean $PM_{2.5}$
356 concentrations vary by as much as 20%, and $PM_{2.5}$ -attributable deaths by up to $\pm 8\%$,
357 except in Tibet (where concentrations vary by $\pm 20\%$ but health impacts by $\pm 75\%$),
358 reflecting the nonlinear relationship between $PM_{2.5}$ concentration and its health impacts.
359 The total number of premature deaths in most Northern provinces was lower in 2016
360 and 2017 than in 2014 and 2015. Although these variations arise from meteorology
361 alone, they supplement the improvement in air quality caused by reducing emissions
362 over the period. The pattern in coastal provinces such as Shanghai and Guangdong is
363 the reverse of that in inland provinces like Anhui and Jiangxi, (i.e. the number of
364 premature deaths increases from 2013-2017) reflecting the influence of marine flow. A
365 strong El Niño affected atmospheric circulation in 2015, leading to weaker winds and
366 greater air pollution over most of China (Chang et al., 2016). The intensity of the
367 Siberian high (I_{SH}) and the East Asia winter monsoon (I_{EAWM}) can also affect air quality
368 in China (Chin et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2016; Li et al., 2016). For
369 example, in 2014 there was a very clear gradient in pollution from northwest to
370 southeast because of the decreased I_{SH} and I_{EAWM} (Ding et al., 2017). Strong winds in
371 2016 and 2017 associated with increasing I_{SH} and I_{EAWM} led to better air quality in these
372 years (Zhang et al., 2018). In Tibet, where emissions are low and air pollution is driven
373 mainly by regional transport, weather conditions have a big impact on air quality. For
374 example, strong winds caused by increased I_{SH} and I_{EAWM} transported more air
375 pollutants to Tibet in 2016. Thus, although interannual variations in meteorology have
376 little influence on $PM_{2.5}$ concentration and premature deaths at a national level, the

377 impacts at a provincial level are substantially larger.



378

379 Fig 10 (a) Interannual anomaly in gridded PM_{2.5} concentration relative to the 5-year
380 mean for mainland China.



381

382 Fig 10 (b) Interannual anomaly in premature deaths attributable to chronic exposure to
383 PM_{2.5} relative to the 5-year mean for mainland China.

384 3.5 Acute deaths attributable to heavy pollution episodes

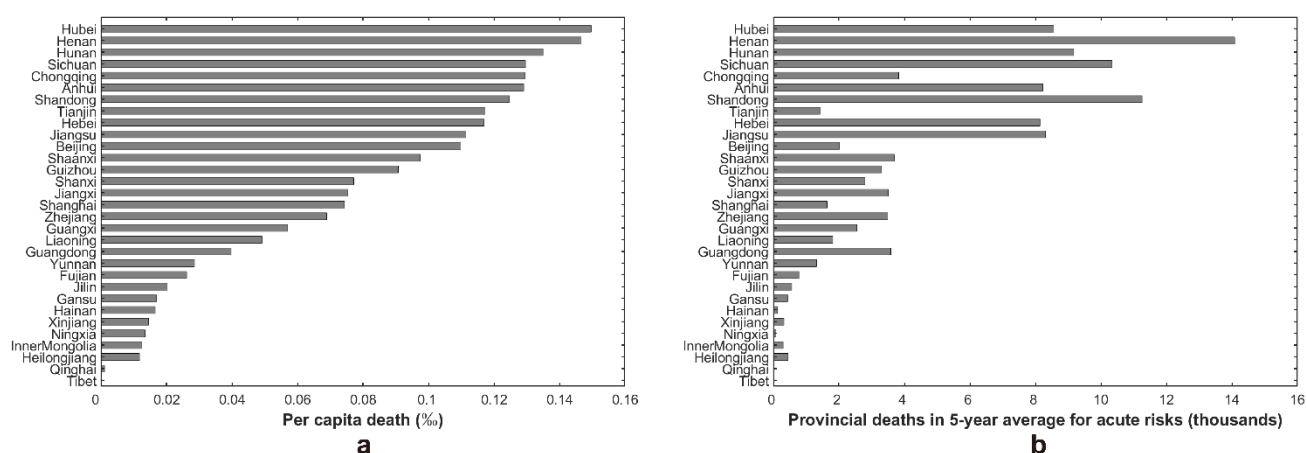
385 The number of acute deaths across China was calculated using daily mean PM_{2.5}
386 concentrations with a Poisson regression function, concentration-response coefficients

387 and incidence rates of mortality as described in Section 2. We find an average annual
388 total of 116,000 (95% CI: 64,000–170,000) premature deaths over the 5-year period.
389 The highest acute per capita mortality (0.15‰) is in Hubei province, while the greatest
390 total number occur in Henan province (14,100, 95% CI: 7,800–20,600) (Fig 11). Both
391 experienced heavy pollution episodes but Henan has the larger population. Li et al
392 (2019) estimated that there were 33,000 deaths attributable to acute exposure to PM_{2.5}
393 in 2015 using daily observations from 104 counties across China. Our results are much
394 higher because we have considered heavy air pollution episodes across all 2862
395 counties in China.

396 We estimate a total of 55,000 (3,000-81,000) acute deaths in urban areas, and the
397 acute per capita deaths are highest in Henan and Hubei provinces, most likely due to
398 higher concentrations, terrain and the regional nature of PM_{2.5}. Interannual variability
399 in meteorology has greater impacts on acute risks than chronic, particularly at a
400 provincial level. Acute deaths vary by $\pm 20\%$ in most provinces, while in some remote
401 places variations can be much larger. This highlights that meteorological conditions
402 have a greater influence on daily than annual mean PM_{2.5} concentrations, and this leads
403 to larger variations in risks. There are substantially fewer acute than chronic deaths, but
404 as acute risks are associated with air pollution episodes, there is a much greater range
405 in per capita acute deaths from PM_{2.5} across provinces (0.001–0.15‰) than chronic
406 deaths (0.4–1.4‰), except in Tibet where per capita deaths are much lower for both
407 acute (insignificant) and chronic (0.6‰) exposure.

408 Our results demonstrate that the long-term health impacts attributable to chronic

409 exposure to PM_{2.5} are more important for the overall public health burden than acute
 410 risks (Pope III, 2000), even though heavy pollution episodes and their related health
 411 impacts attract more public attention. It should be noted however, that understanding
 412 of the mortality burden attributable to short-term exposure needs to be improved and
 413 more specific exposure-response models for different populations and end-points
 414 should be developed in future.



415 **a**

416 Fig 11 (a) Per capita and (b) total deaths due to the acute risks of PM_{2.5} for each province.

417 **4 Discussion**

418 A comparison of studies of premature deaths attributable to chronic exposure to PM_{2.5}
 419 across China is shown in Table 1. Our estimate of 1.19–1.22 million from 2013 to 2017,
 420 is consistent with other studies (Lim et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016; Cohen et al., 2017;
 421 Zheng et al., 2016; Ding et al., 2019). Here we used emissions for 2013 for all five
 422 years to allow exploration of the effect of meteorological variability on concentrations
 423 and health impacts. The effect of emissions reductions was neglected and our estimate
 424 for 2015 is therefore a little higher than the GBD evaluation (Cohen et al., 2017), even
 425 though the same exposure-response coefficients were adopted. The variations we find

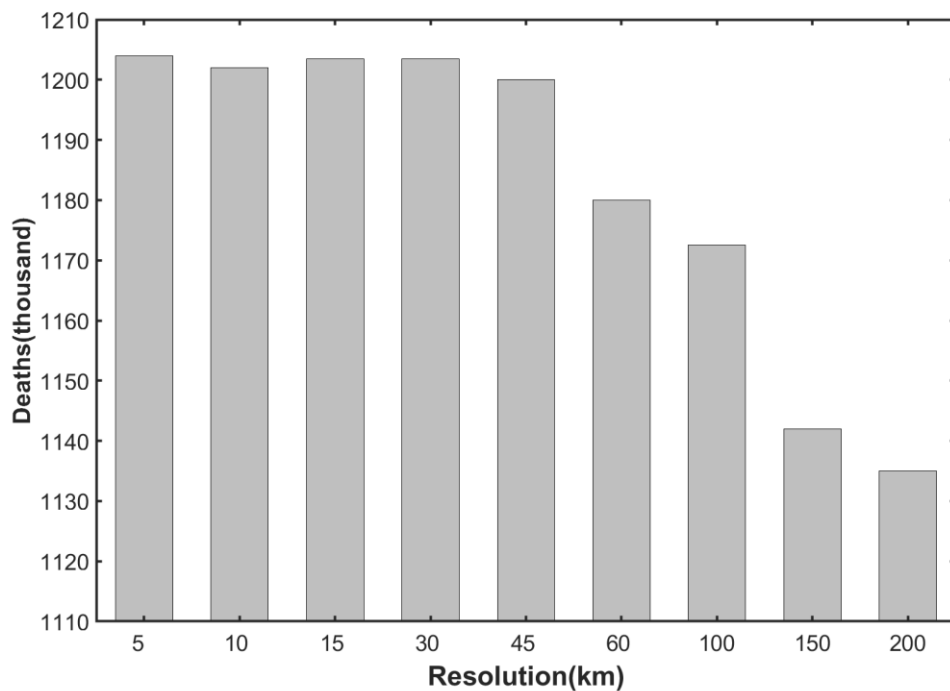
426 due to meteorology are much smaller than the differences between previous studies
 427 shown in Table 1, highlighting that these differences arise from the analysis approach,
 428 exposure-response coefficients, emissions and model resolution rather than differences
 429 in meteorology. Coarse spatial resolution is likely to lead to greater discrepancies, as
 430 seen in the study of Lelieveld et al., 2015. Our model simulations performed at 5 km
 431 resolution over the whole of China are at higher resolution than any previous published
 432 studies. Higher resolution distributions of surface PM_{2.5} are now becoming available
 433 from satellite products (e.g. Wei et al., 2019) although these are derived from aerosol
 434 optical depth retrievals using downscaled meteorological variables and
 435 interpolation/scaling approaches, and thus the reliable information content is less than
 436 the resolution suggests. In contrast, our studies are based on sound understanding of the
 437 underlying physical processes, and have information content that is as high as these
 438 alternative products.

439 Table 1 Comparison of studies for premature deaths attributable to PM_{2.5} in China

Year	Exposure- Response coefficients	Observation or Model	Premature deaths (million)	Reference
2010	GBD2010	TM5+satellite+obs 0.1°×0.1°	1.23	Lim et al. (2012)
2010	GBD2010	EMAC, 1.1°×1.1°	1.36	Lelieveld et al. (2015)
2004-2012	GBD2010	Satellite, 10 km	0.80-1.20	Liu et al (2016)
2013	GBD2015	WRF-Chem, 60 km	1.33	Gao et al. (2018)

2013	GBD2010	Assimilation+obs	1.37	Liu et al. (2016)
2015	GBD2015	TM5+satellite+obs	1.10	Cohen et al. (2017)
		0.1°×0.1°		
2013-2015	GBD2010	CMAQ+satellite+obs,	1.10-1.22	Zheng et al. (2016)
		36 km		
2013-2015	GBD2015	CMAQ+obs, 27 km	1.10-1.39	Ding et al. (2019)
2013-2017	GBD2015	NAQPMS, 5 km	1.19-1.22	This study

440 To determine the benefits of using fine model resolution, we estimated the chronic
441 premature deaths in 2013 at 5 km resolution and compared them with results aggregated
442 to coarser resolutions from 10 km to 200 km. The number of premature deaths remains
443 similar between 5 and 45 km resolution, and then decreases gradually, so that it is about
444 6% lower at 200 km resolution. One reason for the relative insensitivity of mortality
445 estimates to model resolution is that the lifetime of PM_{2.5} is relatively long, allowing
446 transport over regional scales. However, we may underestimate this sensitivity as our
447 estimates are based on aggregation from 5 km resolution rather than native model
448 simulations at coarse resolution where the use of coarse resolution meteorology and
449 emissions will lead to larger differences.



450

451 Fig 12 The premature deaths due to $PM_{2.5}$ at different resolutions.

452 There are a number of uncertainties in our analysis of the health impacts of $PM_{2.5}$ at
 453 a provincial level. The IER model integrates data from cohort studies in western
 454 countries, based on active and secondhand smoking and household air pollution, and
 455 these factors may be significantly different in China. Additionally, the health impact of
 456 $PM_{2.5}$ are likely influenced by chemical composition, size distribution and source (Ostro
 457 et al., 2015) which can also be expected to differ between world regions and even
 458 different provinces. These suggest that in order to improve evaluation of the long-term
 459 health impacts in China, researchers should develop and update location- and
 460 population-specific exposure-response functions or coefficients. In the current study we
 461 have considered the health impact attributable to outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ concentration only, and
 462 ignored the impacts of exposure to indoor pollution. Household fuel burning,
 463 decoration materials and household and personal care products can release gaseous and

464 particulate pollutants, and people spend about 90% of their time in a public or private
465 indoor environment (Cincinelli et al., 2017). Therefore, it is important to develop indoor
466 exposure-response functions and include estimates of indoor health impacts in China in
467 future studies (Pan X, 2005). There are model biases in heavily polluted and densely
468 populated areas because of uncertainties in emissions, meteorology and model process
469 representation, but NAQPMS reproduce the temporal and spatial distribution of annual
470 average PM_{2.5} concentration reasonably well. In future work, however, higher
471 resolution models with finer scale emissions would be useful to quantify health impacts
472 at smaller scales.

473 **5 Conclusions**

474 We have estimated chronic and acute premature deaths attributable to ambient PM_{2.5}
475 over China for 2013-2017 using the NAQPMS model at 5 km resolution combined with
476 integrated exposure-response methods. An estimated average of 1,210,000 (95% CI:
477 720,000–1,750,000) premature deaths per year are caused by chronic exposure to
478 ambient PM_{2.5} in China. Stroke, ischemic heart disease and chronic obstructive
479 pulmonary disease each account for about 25% of this total. The polluted and highly
480 populated provinces of Henan, Shandong, Sichuan, Hunan and Jiangsu account for 39%
481 of the premature deaths due to chronic exposure to PM_{2.5} in China. However, the inland
482 municipality of Chongqing has the biggest chronic per capita mortality (1.4‰) among
483 all provinces. These results are based on use of a model at 5 km resolution, and we
484 demonstrate that this provides a modest improvement over the use of a coarser
485 resolution assessment, although the benefits would be greater for short-lived pollutants.

486 Combining concentration data from NAQPMS simulations with high-resolution land
487 cover data, we differentiate the chronic health impacts of PM_{2.5} in urban and rural
488 districts. Approximately 44% of the Chinese population live in urban districts, and these
489 areas account for 520,000 (320,000–760,000) deaths, i.e. around 43% of the total. Per
490 capita deaths are marginally higher in urban areas (0.1–1.5‰) than in rural areas (0.05–
491 1.4‰) for most provinces. These results highlight the regional nature of PM_{2.5} pollution,
492 and hence the need for high resolution concentration data, but we note that much finer
493 scale models may be needed to capture the different features of air pollution and health
494 impacts in urban and rural areas.

495 At a national level the impacts of interannual variability in meteorological conditions
496 on PM_{2.5} concentrations and consequently chronic premature deaths are quite small, ±5%
497 and ±1%, respectively. However, the interannual variation in annual mean PM_{2.5}
498 concentration and chronic mortality are much more variable and differ from year to
499 year in different provinces. Annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration varies by ±20% at a
500 provincial level, and the provincial deaths attributable to PM_{2.5} varies by ±8% except
501 in Tibet, where the variability is as high as ±75%. Large-scale weather systems such as
502 El Niño, the Siberian high and the East Asian winter monsoon are the main causes of
503 these variations. These systems typically affect circulation, including wind speed and
504 direction, and lead to differences in the transport and accumulation of air pollutants at
505 a provincial level.

506 We also quantify the acute health impacts of PM_{2.5} exposure during high pollution
507 episodes. There are 116,000 (64,000–170,000) acute deaths in China attributable to

508 episodes of high PM_{2.5} concentration each year, and 47% of these occur in urban areas.
509 Interannual variability of meteorological conditions has larger impacts on acute risks
510 than chronic exposure, acute deaths vary by $\pm 20\%$ in most provinces. This highlights
511 that meteorological conditions have more substantial influence on daily mean PM_{2.5}
512 concentrations, leading to larger variations in acute risks. There is a much greater range
513 in acute per capita deaths (0.00–0.15‰) than chronic (0.4–1.4‰). The shortcomings in
514 current analyses of acute deaths suggests that the current understanding of the mortality
515 burden attributable to short-term PM_{2.5} exposure should be improved and better
516 exposure-response models need to be developed in future. Although heavy pollution
517 episodes and their related health impacts attract substantial public attention, we find
518 that the long-term health impacts caused by ambient PM_{2.5} concentration are more
519 important for the overall public health burden. These results suggest that policy makers
520 need not only to control and prevent heavy pollution episodes, but also design effective
521 policies for the long-term improvement of regional air quality to reduce adverse health
522 impacts.

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529 **Data Availability Statement**

530 All the main research data can be found at Mendeley Data.

531

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