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Air Pollution Costs in Ukraine

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Air Pollution Costs in Ukraine

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and Anil Markandya

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| SIEV – Sustainability Indicators and Environmental Valuation |
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Air Pollution Costs in Ukraine

Summary

The paper presents estimation of the health losses from urban air pollution in Ukraine. The methodology developed by US EPA and adjusted in Russia for Eastern European transition countries was applied for health risk assessment. PM_{2.5} was identified as the major source of human health risk, based on experience from the Russian studies. In the absence of reliable computed concentrations of PM_{2.5}, the study was based on monitoring data of total suspended particle (TSP) emissions in Ukraine. Additional cases of mortality and morbidity were calculated based on reporting data on TSP concentration that was recalculated into PM_{2.5}. Then the concentration–response function was applied to estimate individual risk. Next, individual risk was applied to the population exposed to the concentration reported for each city included in the analysis (we selected most polluted cities). For each city we considered individual data on baseline mortality and morbidity and population structure. In total, air pollution related mortality represents about 6 percent of total mortality in Ukraine. In Russia the corresponding indicator totals about 4 percent. The relative mortality risk attributed to air pollution calculated per 100 000 population in both countries is about 55-59 cases. Since applied method is sensitive to the primary data uncertainties we conducted sensitivity analysis applying Monte-Carlo method. Economic damage related to mortality risk was estimated at about 4 percent of GDP. There was no relevant WTP study in Ukraine therefore we applied the benefit-transfer method in order to estimate VSL, since mortality attributed to air pollution is major component of health losses (about 94 percent). In order to compare and aggregate mortality and morbidity risks we recalculated them in DALY. Then morbidity represents about 30 percent of total air pollution health load. Data on baseline morbidity is less reliable than data on baseline mortality; therefore the morbidity risk estimates are more uncertain than mortality estimates. It is likely that morbidity risk is underestimated. Regardless of uncertainties mentioned above and some problems with reported data we can conclude that the mortality risk attributed to air pollution is significant. Therefore, costs of air pollution in Ukraine are sizable and in the nearest future may offset the economic growth. Recovery of the Ukrainian economy based on restoration of polluting industries may lead to stagnation since mortality and morbidity risks not only puts burden on the economy, but also reduce labor force.

Keywords: Air Pollution, Ukraine, Environmental Damages

JEL Classification: Q53, I10, I18

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1. Introduction

The health of the population of the Former Soviet Union suffered notably as a result of the transition to a market economy (See Brainerd, Cutler, 2005). The unprecedented decline in life expectancy, especially among men, was attributed largely to social collapse and the ensuing increase in alcohol consumption and a lack of personal care. The role of environmental factors in this decline is disputed. The precise contribution of environmental pollution to human health in the member states of the FSU was first studied for Russia. Regardless of the conservative approach applied in most of the studies, it was demonstrated that human health risk from air pollution is significant. These results were extrapolated nation-wide and were presented in Bobylev et al, 2002. The total annual mortality rate related to air pollution was about 46,000 or 2.1% of the total non-accidental mortality rate (Bobylev et al, 2002, p.16). Contrary to common belief, air pollution related mortality was an important component of overall mortality, being much more important than TB, transport accidents and suicides, for example. In total the monetary costs of such pollution was estimated at 2-5 percent of current GDP.

In this paper we wish to see if these results are special to the Russian Federation or if they apply to other FSU states. Moreover, we wish to estimate the importance of air pollution as a source of human and economic loss in Ukraine. The paper proceeds as follows. In Section II we discuss briefly the monitoring of air quality in Ukraine, and the data that are available for estimating health impacts. In Section III we discuss the epidemiological basis of the estimated health impacts and the resulting estimates of number of excess deaths and morbidity cases. In Section IV we present some values of the costs of these health and mortality and put them in a comparative context. Section V concludes the paper, with some observations on the policy implications of the results.

II. Measuring Air Quality in Ukraine

Based on a few pilot studies in Russia, it can be concluded that among the hundreds of pollutants controlled by Russian law, only a handful account for up to 90% of human health risk from air pollution (mainly PM10 or PM2.5¹). Fossil fuel combustion is the main source of these pollutants.

Unfortunately, levels of PM10 or PM2.5 are not monitored on a reliable basis in either Russia or Ukraine. Hence any assessment of the impacts of the particles has to be based on what is reliably monitored, which is total suspended particles or TSP, and the link between TSP and PM10 or PM2.5.

In this context it is worth noting that huge amount of effort goes into monitoring a large number of pollutants (more than 35) in the FSU countries. The purpose of undertaking such extensive monitoring was to set emissions standards for individual emitters so that actual concentrations of

¹ PM10 is particulate matter less than 10 microns in diameter; similarly PM2.5 refers to matter less than 2.5 microns in diameter. Small particles, however, are also formed from chemical interactions of SO₂ and other pollutants with ozone. Hence emissions of these pollutants are also important contributors to health impacts.

pollutants did not exceed certain health determined maximum allowable concentrations (MACs). In practice, however, the MACs were not substantiated by practical methods and techniques of air pollution control. It was impossible to attain the desired accuracy of analytical control, to use adequate instrumentation, numerical estimation methods, unit emissions, technological standards, emission control requirements. Neither was there was adequate financing or professional staffing. The improvements in these areas are very slow.

Since air pollution monitoring data in Ukraine only provides data on TSP pollution, conversion factors were used to estimate PM10 and PM2.5 levels. The factors were PM10 = 0.5TSP (US AID Environmental Management Project in 1997); PM2.5= 0.55PM10 (Central European study on air pollution and health, 1997). The last coefficient has a range of 0.4-0.8. We will use this range for the sensitivity analysis reported later. .

Table 1 presents the data on population in the 29 most polluted cities in Ukraine, together with estimated PM2.5 concentrations in these cities (based on TSP monitoring data) and estimated non-accidental mortality (based on total mortality for every city and mortality by causes for Ukraine, WHO, 2002). We estimated that about 5 percent of total mortality belongs to external causes (suicide, homicide, poisoning, traffic accidents, etc.). It should be note that, according to WHO recommendations the MAC value for annual average PM2.5 is 10 ug/m3. These are the lowest levels at which total, cardiopulmonary and lung cancer mortality have been shown to increase with more than 95% confidence in response to fine particles in the ACS study (Pope et al., 2002). In Ukraine this was exceeded in all 29 cities listed below.

III. Air pollution and human health

A large number of epidemiological studies provide evidence that exposure to air pollution is associated with increased morbidity and mortality (WHO, 2004). The most affected are respiratory and cardiovascular systems. The mechanisms “may involve decrements in pulmonary function, effects on hart rate variability and inflammatory response”. Also, there is an evidence of carcinogenity of some components of urban air pollution. Both acute and chronic biological responses are affected by air pollution, since acute responses exacerbate the severity of chronic diseases.

Epidemiologic literature proposes to use Cox proportional hazards model for the long term health risk estimation. Basically, they have the following form:

$$y_C = -[y_B * (e^{-\beta * \Delta C} - 1)] * pop \quad (1)$$

where:

y_C is incremental number of cases of negative health outcome (morbidity or mortality);
 ΔC is the change in mean population-weighted annual concentration of criteria pollutant²;
 β is concentration-response coefficient;
 y_B is baseline level of the health outcome;

² PM pollution could be used as an indicator of pollution mix.

pop is exposed population to which it is appropriate to apply β (the same as in the epi studies, where β was estimated).

For small changes in the annual mean criteria pollutant concentration, it is appropriate to use a linear relationship between incremental health outcome and change in annual mean criteria pollutant concentration:

$$y_C = \beta * \Delta C * y_B * pop \quad (2)$$

Then, β is concentration-response coefficient that reflects change in health outcome per unit of pollution (slope of concentration-response function).

Air pollution and mortality

For PM_{2.5} pollution, β values were developed for all cause mortality, cardiopulmonary mortality, and lung cancer mortality (Pope et al., 2002) Then β is the per cent change in health outcome per unit of pollution (i.e. the slope of concentration-response function). Estimates are given in Table 2 below.

It is appropriate to use β from epidemiological studies, when pollution in the focus area is in the range observed in the study used for the estimation. For example, WHO recommends to apply Pope coefficients for PM_{2.5} pollution in the range of 7.5-50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ PM_{2.5}. Beyond 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ the β value is set at zero.

Experts agree that based on the current status of worldwide research, the risk ratios, or concentration response coefficients from Pope et al (2002) are likely to be the best available evidence for the mortality effects of ambient particulate pollution (PM 2.5). This study provided a global estimate of the health effects of environmental risk factors including health risk from environmental pollution. It was the American Cancer Society study within the framework of Cancer Prevention II prospective study of risk factors for mortality, where 1.2 million Americans from 50 metropolitan areas 30 and older were involved. This study concentrated on long-term exposure to air pollution from fine particulates (PM_{2.5}) that are the most harmful for human health and include sulfates and nitrates. Long-term pollution is more important than short-term, because it include the effects of long-term exposure that can not be captured by a short-term study. The participants were observed for about 16 years. The study controlled for age, sex, weight, height, smoking, alcohol use, occupational exposure, diet, education, marital status, etc. As a result the study came up with the list of concentration-response coefficients, which identify additional risk of non-accidental death, cardio-pulmonary and lung-cancer mortality.

If our goal is to assess total health risk caused by air pollution, one should take into account the difference between observed mortality and baseline mortality. From formula (1) above, y_B should be derived for the baseline situation if we would like to have y_B associated with the ΔC ambient concentration levels (of PM_{2.5}, for example). If y is defined by the equation (2) (choosing a linear specification over the relevant range of C):

$$y_C = \beta * \Delta C * y_B \quad (3)$$

The baseline y_B however, is not directly observed, and is given by:

$$y_B = y_0 - y_C \quad (4)$$

where y_0 is the observed or recorded number of all cause non accidental or cardiopulmonary and lung cancer deaths. Substituting equation (4) in equation (3) provides the following solution for y_B :

$$y_C = \beta * (\Delta C) * y_0 / \{1 + \beta * (\Delta C)\} \quad (5)$$

We have applied Pope's all cause non accidental mortality coefficient $\beta = 0.004$ per 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ of PM2.5. If PM2.5 concentration is above 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, the value was set at 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Since the Pope estimates apply only to persons over the age of 30, this share had to be estimated. In Ukraine demographic data indicate that about 60% of population in Ukraine is older than 30 (<http://www.census.gov/cgi-bin/ipc/idbagg>).

Based on the data on non-accidental deaths in Ukraine presented in Table 1, we estimated that about 22,000 people annually die from air pollution related causes in the most polluted cities of Ukraine. That represents about 10% of total mortality in these cities.

The same analysis could be undertaken based on cardiovascular, respiratory and lung cancer mortality and the corresponding β coefficients from Table 2. Table 3 presents major death causes in Ukraine related to air pollution by region.

Cardiopulmonary mortality is a major cause of death in Ukraine. We estimated that about 66% of total deaths are related to cardiopulmonary causes (weighted average). Lung cancer mortality would elevate this figure up to 68% of total deaths. In this case $\beta = 0.006$ per 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ of PM2.5 should be applied (see Table 2). This is a conservative estimate, since for lung-cancer mortality β is equal to 0.008. Taking this value we find that air pollution related mortality estimated based on cardiopulmonary and lung cancer mortality is totaling 27,000 annual deaths. **Hence the range of air pollution related deaths in Ukraine is estimated to be in the range of 22,000 to 27,000 annually.**

Air pollution related morbidity

Although available information on mortality is quite reliable, morbidity information is not. Therefore, we had to apply the method proposed by Ostro (1994) to estimate respiratory hospital admissions, emergency room visits, restricted activity days, lower respiratory illness in children and respiratory symptoms. For chronic bronchitis we applied the approach from Abbey et al (1995). Method from Ostro (1994) doesn't require baseline morbidity. Thus it is applicable even with poor primary data about background morbidity indicators. Abbey's approach requires a baseline chronic bronchitis morbidity. Official data on chronic bronchitis were provided by the Ministry of Public Health of Ukraine. Both studies Ostro (1994) and Abbey (1995) link exposure to PM10 air pollution with additional morbidity end-points. For air pollution related cases of chronic bronchitis we applied the formula similar to (5), where y_C is additional number of chronic bronchitis and y_0 is observed number of cases for Euro B region. For other morbidity end-points we applied the following formula, as in Ostro (1994):

$$Y_c = \beta * C,$$

Where C is observed PM10 concentration and β is concentration-response coefficient.

For chronic bronchitis we also obtained an estimation using Ostro (1994) method and compared it with Abbey (1995) results. The morbidity coefficients are presented in Table 4.

Thus, in order to estimate the cases of morbidity we used background bronchitis morbidity provided by the Ministry of Public Health, as given in Table 5. The data could be underestimated, since many cases are not reported. However, we use them in our analysis to get a conservative estimate of morbidity cost of air pollution in Ukraine. This yields an estimate of the number of cases of chronic bronchitis attributable to air pollution of 13,000. An alternative approach that could be taken is that recommended by Ostro 1994, who posits 61.2 cases per 100,000 of population per each 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ of PM10 pollution. On this basis the number of cases for the 30 urban areas listed below is about 90,000 cases per year. Hence the range is 13,000-90,000.

Negative morbidity end-points were estimated as shown in Table 6. In that table chronic bronchitis attributed to air pollution is estimated based on the Abbey et al (1995) approach using background data from Ministry of Health. It presents a lower bound estimate. Other health end-points are estimated using the Ostro (1994) method. They present upper bound estimation. However, as we see in the next section, these uncertainties related to the indicators estimated based on Ostro should not significantly influence aggregated human health damage.

Table 7 presents the distribution of estimated health effects across the selected cities as a percentage of total national cases. About 50% of all health effects are in Donetsk, Odesa, Krivy Rog, Zaporizhya, Makiyevka and Dnepropetrivsk, whereas only 34% of the population lives there. Kyiv, Kharkiv and Lviv are relatively clean cities. About 33% of urban population from the covered cities live there, but joint pollution share is only 17% (Figure 1). The remaining cities represent about 33% of population and 35% of air pollution related load.

IV. Estimated Burden of Health Impacts

The burden of health impacts is converted to monetary terms by valuing mortality and morbidity. Valuation is based on robust willingness to pay studies that quantify the value of human health risk reduction. These valuation studies have not been done either in Ukraine or in any other FSU country. Therefore the only method to apply for valuation is a benefit transfer approach. The physical estimates of mortality and morbidity can be converted in monetary values under certain assumptions. The estimated annual cost of urban air pollution health effects is presented in Table 8. Details of how these estimates were derived are given below³.

³ Studies on the valuation of health effects of outdoor air pollution outside the OECD countries are rare. Recent work along this lines, using some benefit transfer has been undertaken in China (Eliason and Lee, 2003), in Russia (Bobylov, 2002) and Peru (Larsen, 2005).

Estimating VSL

The main approaches to estimating mortality use the ‘value of a statistical life (VSL)’ – i.e. the value society attached to saving a life, when it is not known whose life will be saved. The problem is that there are no studies of VSL conducted in Ukraine. This implies that values have to be transferred from studies in other countries. The overwhelming majority of VSL studies have been conducted in countries with substantially higher income level than in Ukraine. VSL estimates from these countries must therefore be adjusted to Ukraine.

A common adjustment method is calibration of VSL in developed country in per capita terms.

$$VSL_U = VSL_D * \left(\frac{GDP_U / N_U}{GDP_D / N_D} \right),$$

Where VSL_U and VSL_D are VSL in Ukraine and in the developed country,

GDP_U / N_U is GDP per capita in Ukraine; GDP_D / N_D is GDP per capita in the developed country.

Although in the literature there is no consensus about reliability of this approach, this is the only tool available to assign economic value to environmental health losses. In the recent study published by Ready et al, 2004 the authors concluded that the benefit transfer method results in error less than 50 percent. However, the authors acknowledge some extremes: it may lead to overestimation as much as 230 percent or underestimation as much as 77 percent (p. 80). This study was conducted for European countries and the issue of PPP and market exchange rate was not as important as it is for lower income countries. In Ukraine the ratio between PPP and market exchange rate is as much as 4.8 in 2004. This makes benefit transfer a very shaky methodology. However, we apply it using market exchange rate for conversion. This is a lower bound of estimation of VSL.

There is also a discrepancy in valuation of VSL in developed countries. Mrozek and Taylor (2002) provide a range for VSL of US \$1.5-2.5 million in their meta-analysis of VSL. In Aldy and Viscusi the mean VSL estimation is about US \$6 million. Again, we apply the lower estimation to be on a conservative side.

Resulting VSL for Ukraine from benefit transfer based on the range of VSL reported by Mrozek and Taylor (2002) (see table 8). However, if GDP would be estimated in PPP, then VSL in Ukraine would be about 434 thousand US \$.

2. Valuing morbidity

A measure of the welfare cost of morbidity is often based on the willingness-to-pay (WTP) for avoiding or reducing the risk of illness. This measure is often found to be several times higher than the cost of medical treatment and the value of time losses (Cropper and Oates 1992), and reflect the value that individuals place on avoiding pain and discomfort. There are, however, no WTP studies from Ukraine. For this reason, the cost-of-illness (COI) approach (mainly medical cost and value of time losses) has been supplemented by a proxy for the cost of pain and discomfort in this report. We applied benefit transfer to estimate the suffering from chronic

bronchitis in Ukraine in the same way, as we did for VSL. The value used for Russia in 2003 as 15,000 US \$. Then corresponding value for Ukraine is 5,000 US \$ per case of chronic bronchitis. We refrain from applying other than COI estimations for the rest of morbidity end-points due to the different structure of health system in the developed and FSU countries. The resulting costs of mortality and morbidity (based on a sum of the COI and the value of DALYS) are given in Table 9.

Further details of the morbidity costs are given in Table 10, which presents the cost of illness, the DALYs for different health impacts and the sum of the two. In most cases the cost of illness is substantially higher than DALY estimate. The main exception is chronic bronchitis, which often has a severe effect on people's life without necessarily causing substantial medical treatment cost or time losses.

Table 11 presents estimated annual cost of morbidity by type of cost. The value of time losses represents almost 57 percent of total cost, and the cost of pain and discomfort (proxied by DALYs valued at GDP per capita) represents somewhat less than one-third.

Table 12 provides the baseline data that were used to estimate the cost per case of illness. Some of these data require explanation. The value of time for adults is based on urban wages. Economists commonly apply a range of 30-50 percent of wage rates to reflect the value of time. The rate of 21 Grivnas per day is about 40 percent of average urban wages in average Kiev-Zaporizhya.

There is very little information about the frequency of doctor visits, emergency visits and hospitalization for CB patients in any country in the world. Estimations from (Larson, Egypt) have been applied to Ukraine. Estimated work days lost per year is based on frequency of estimated medical treatment plus an additional 7 days for each hospitalization and one extra day for each doctor and emergency visit. These days are added to reflect time needed for recovery from illness.

To estimate the cost of a new case of CB, the medical cost and value of time losses have been discounted over a 20-year duration of illness. An annual real increase of 2 percent in medical cost and value of time has been applied to reflect an average expected increase in annual labor productivity and real wages. The costs are discounted at 3 percent per year, a rate commonly applied by WHO for health effects.

Sensitivity analysis

There are certain uncertainties in the health risk analysis. Basically, they are presented in the report on pollution cost in Russia. We applied Monte-Carlo approach to analyze these uncertainties. The results are presented in Figure 2 below:

The figure shows that with a probability of 90% there are no less than 14,000 cases of air pollution related mortality in Ukraine (Crystall Ball 7, 10,000 trials).

Table 13 allows comparing different causes of death in Russia and Ukraine. It is easy to see that air pollution related mortality exceeds deaths from TB by a factor of 2. It exceeds deaths from traffic accidents and assaults 3 times. It is almost 2 more than suicide and poisoning. Figure 3

provides the same comparative figures of air pollution mortality with other causes. While the overall mortality rates and those for air pollution for the two countries are similar, there are major differences in the rates attributed to 'social' factors, such as external factors, such as traffic accidents, poisoning, suicide and assault, where the Russia rates are much higher.

V. Conclusions

This paper has shown that Ukraine has considerable health and mortality costs in human and monetary terms associated with air pollution. At a conservative estimate these costs amount to 27,000 excess deaths and 280,000 DALYs lost annually. In monetary terms, we estimate the costs at around 13 billion grivynas (\$2.6 billion), or 4 percent of GDP. By any standards this is a significant cost. In Russia the corresponding indicator is about 5 percent of GDP. Studies in the EU of similar costs, but using much more detailed data and a more sophisticated modeling of the dispersion of air pollution and the creation of particles, comes up with air pollution costs from similar items in the range of 2 percent (Markandya and Tamborra, 2005). Thus by this measure the problem is more serious in Ukraine than in these countries. At the same time, the level of effort devoted to addressing it is much lower. Public and private sector spending on investment in air pollution control is very small (World Bank, 2003). Studies like these provide a useful guide to where efforts should be made to reduce air emissions (the focus needs to be on particulate pollution control in certain cities we have identified), and how the air pollution problem compares with other sources of morbidity and mortality (it is more serious, for example, than most social causes of death and more serious than TB). This is not something that is generally appreciated or acted upon.

The paper also demonstrates how the analysis can be done using limited and uncertain information. Therefore, estimates presented in the paper were complemented by sensitivity analysis. Limited data on air pollution is not enough to develop a detailed action plan for environmental costs burden alleviation, however, it is a good way to draw attention to environmental problems ignored in the former Soviet Union for years. Thus environmental degradation may soon become a significant barrier for economic growth and can not be ignored by policy makers.

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http://www3.who.int/whosis/mort/table1_process.cfm

Table 1. Fine particulates concentration, population and non-accidental mortality in major metropolitan areas of Ukraine (2001) (Annual Averages)

| City | PM2.5 µg/m ³ (Annual Average) | Population, '000 | Non-accidental mortality rate per 1000 |
|------------------|---|------------------|--|
| Lugansk | 33 | 459 | 16.34 |
| Alchevsk | 66 | 118 | 16.34 |
| Kerch | 33 | 157 | 14.25 |
| Yalta | 66 | 81 | 14.25 |
| Dnipropetrovsk | 66 | 1072 | 15.485 |
| Dniprodzerzhinsk | 33 | 253 | 15.485 |
| Krivy Rig | 66 | 704 | 15.485 |
| Donesk | 99 | 1009 | 13.87 |
| Enakiyeve | 99 | 101 | 18.335 |
| Gorlivka | 99 | 287 | 17.765 |
| Dzerzhinsk | 99 | 86 | 17.86 |
| Kramatorsk | 33 | 179 | 16.055 |
| Mariupol | 66 | 488 | 14.06 |
| Makiyivka | 132 | 384 | 17.195 |
| Slovyansk | 33 | 124 | 15.295 |
| Ivano-Frankivsk | 66 | 219 | 8.265 |
| Kirovograd | 66 | 252 | 17.1 |
| Svitlovodsk | 99 | 50 | 17.1 |
| Kremenchug | 66 | 232 | 15.58 |
| Lviv | 66 | 733 | 11.4 |
| Odesa | 66 | 1021 | 15.01 |
| Sumi | 66 | 289 | 17.1 |
| Vinnitsa | 99 | 358 | 15.865 |
| Kiyv | 33 | 2622 | 10.07 |
| Mikolayiv | 33 | 512 | 15.295 |
| Zhitomir | 33 | 282 | 16.245 |
| Zaporizhya | 66 | 808 | 13.965 |
| Rivne | 33 | 249 | 6.935 |
| Uzhgorod | 33 | 117 | 9.025 |
| Kharkiv | 30 | 1470 | 15.00 |
| Total | | 11278 | |

Source: State Committee for Statistics, Ukraine

Note: PM2.5 concentrations are recalculated from TSP concentrations base on the formula presented above.

Table 2. Mortality risk associated with a 1 µg/m³ change in PM 2.5

| Cause of Mortality | β |
|--------------------------|-------|
| All-cause non accidental | 0.004 |
| Cardiopulmonary | 0.006 |
| Lung cancer | 0.008 |

Source: adapted from Pope et al, 2002

Table 3. Death rates in Ukraine by major causes of death in 2002, by region

| Region (oblast) | Mortality | Cardio | Pulmonary | Lung cancer | Population, |
|--------------------|------------------------|---------|-----------|-------------|-----------------|
| | per 100 000 population | | | | <i>thousand</i> |
| Cherkaskaya | 1,763.1 | 1,183.2 | 97.1 | 32.4 | 1,398.3 |
| Chernigovskaya | 1,995.5 | 1,299.4 | 95.9 | 42.6 | 919.0 |
| Chernovetskaya | 1,314.2 | 868.5 | 68.0 | 33.3 | 1,236.1 |
| Crimea | 1,474.7 | 935.4 | 51.7 | 35.0 | 2,024.0 |
| Dnipropetrovskaya | 1,626.5 | 1,011.9 | 67.2 | 37.4 | 3,561.2 |
| Donetskaya | 1,712.3 | 1,038.7 | 60.0 | 42.5 | 4,825.6 |
| Ivano-Frankivskaya | 1,272.3 | 760.8 | 83.7 | 28.4 | 1,406.1 |
| Kharkovskaya | 1,602.2 | 1,042.7 | 38.9 | 28.1 | 2,895.8 |
| Khersonskaya | 1,582.7 | 877.2 | 26.7 | 43.6 | 1,172.7 |
| Khmelnitskaya | 1,622.2 | 939.3 | 97.2 | 40.7 | 1,426.6 |
| Kirovogradskaya | 1,796.4 | 969.6 | 86.3 | 44.2 | 1,125.7 |
| Kievskaya | 1,666.6 | 1,162.2 | 42.8 | 38.0 | 1,821.1 |
| Luganskaya | 1,721.5 | 1,064.4 | 85.6 | 39.8 | 2,540.2 |
| Lvivskaya | 1,295.2 | 817.4 | 83.8 | 25.3 | 2,606.0 |
| Mikolayivskaya | 1,605.4 | 721.6 | 56.1 | 39.8 | 1,262.9 |
| Odeskaya | 1,583.9 | 951.9 | 50.5 | 29.9 | 2,455.7 |
| Poltavskaya | 1,805.0 | 1,140.4 | 74.7 | 39.9 | 1,621.2 |
| Rovensskaya | 1,328.7 | 842.3 | 40.1 | 27.3 | 1,171.4 |
| Sumskaya | 1,800.1 | 1,141.3 | 108.2 | 33.0 | 1,296.8 |
| Ternopolskaya | 1,436.7 | 945.9 | 97.4 | 38.9 | 1,138.5 |
| Vinnitskaya | 1,667.3 | 1,156.4 | 65.8 | 33.6 | 1,763.9 |
| Volinska | 1,405.0 | 833.1 | 134.2 | 22.0 | 1,057.2 |
| Zakarpatskaya | 1,192.2 | 643.6 | 50.3 | 25.2 | 1,254.6 |
| Zaporizhskaya | 1,612.1 | 829.7 | 48.4 | 43.9 | 1,926.8 |
| Zhitomirskaya | 1,714.6 | 1,146.8 | 81.3 | 32.3 | 1,389.3 |
| Kiev | 1,056.6 | 649.2 | 26.4 | 23.7 | 2,567.0 |
| Sevastopol | 1,370.3 | 798.1 | 44.9 | 43.0 | 377.2 |

Source: Shalimov S.O. Chief ed. 2004. Bulletin of the National cancer-register of Ukraine. Institute of Oncology of Ukraine. No 5. Kiev.

Pidaev A. Chief ed. 2004. Health indexes and health related expenditures in Ukraine in 2002-2003. Ministry of Public Health of Ukraine. Center of Health Statistics. Kiev

Table 4: Urban Air Pollution Dose-Response Coefficients for Morbidity estimation

| Annual Morbidity Effect | Dose-response coefficient | Per 1 ug/m ³ annual average ambient concentration of: |
|--|---------------------------|--|
| Chronic bronchitis (% change in annual incidence) | 0.9%* | PM 10 |
| Chronic bronchitis (per 100,000 population) | 6.12** | PM 10 |
| Respiratory hospital admissions (per 100,000 population) | 1.2** | PM 10 |
| Emergency room visits (per 100,000 population) | 24** | PM 10 |
| Restricted activity days (per 100,000 adults) | 5,750** | PM 10 |
| Lower respiratory illness in children (per 100,000 children) | 169** | PM 10 |
| Respiratory symptoms (per 100,000 adults) | 18,300** | PM 10 |

Source: **Ostro (1994) and *Abbey et al (1995)

Table 5. Background bronchitis morbidity for adult population in metropolitan areas of Ukraine

| | PM10 concentration | CB background incidence |
|------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| Lugansk | 60 | 522 |
| Alchevsk | 180 | 134 |
| Kerch | 60 | 151 |
| Yalta | 120 | 78 |
| Dnipropetrovsk | 120 | 2228 |
| Dniprodzerzhinsk | 60 | 526 |
| Krivy Rig | 120 | 1463 |
| Donesk | 180 | 2081 |
| Enakiyev | 180 | 208 |
| Gorlivka | 180 | 592 |
| Dzerzhinsk | 180 | 177 |
| Kramatorsk | 60 | 369 |
| Mariupol | 120 | 1007 |
| Makiyivka | 240 | 792 |
| Slovyansk | 60 | 256 |
| Ivano-Frankivsk | 120 | 776 |
| Kirovograd | 120 | 434 |
| Svitlovodsk | 180 | 86 |
| Kremenchug | 120 | 264 |
| Lviv | 120 | 1041 |
| Odesa | 120 | 2800 |
| Sumi | 120 | 473 |
| Vinnitsa | 180 | 1220 |
| Kiyv | 60 | 7513 |
| Mikolayiv | 60 | 847 |
| Zhitomir | 60 | 251 |
| Zaporizhya | 120 | 677 |
| Rivne | 60 | 368 |
| Uzhgorod | 60 | 251 |
| Kharkiv | 50 | 2819 |
| Total | | 30,404 |

Source: Pidaev A. Chief ed. 2004. Health indexes and health related expenditures in Ukraine in 2002-2003. Ministry of Public Health of Ukraine. Center of Health Statistics. Kiev.

Table 6. Total number of morbidity cases due to air pollution in Ukraine

| | Chronic bronchitis | Hospital admissions | Emergency room visits | Restricted activity days | Lower respiratory illness in children | Respiratory symptoms |
|--|-----------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|---|-------------------------|
| Lugansk | 178 | 330 | 6,483 | 1,543,588 | 23,787 | 4,912,637 |
| Alchevsk | 80 | 108 | 2,119 | 429,525 | 2,586 | 1,367,010 |
| Kerch | 51 | 113 | 2,217 | 449,570 | 2,706 | 1,430,804 |
| Yalta | 39 | 117 | 2,288 | 463,887 | 2,793 | 1,476,371 |
| Dnipropetrovsk | 1,104 | 1,544 | 30,282 | 6,139,344 | 36,958 | 19,539,130 |
| Dniprodzerzhinsk | 176 | 182 | 3,573 | 724,466 | 4,361 | 2,305,690 |
| Krivy Rig | 725 | 1,014 | 19,887 | 4,031,808 | 24,271 | 12,831,667 |
| Donesk | 1,235 | 2,179 | 42,753 | 8,667,815 | 52,179 | 27,586,262 |
| Enakiyeve | 124 | 218 | 4,280 | 867,641 | 5,223 | 2,761,360 |
| Gorlivka | 351 | 620 | 12,161 | 2,465,474 | 14,842 | 7,846,637 |
| Dzerzhinsk | 105 | 186 | 3,644 | 738,783 | 4,447 | 2,351,257 |
| Kramatorsk | 124 | 129 | 2,528 | 512,567 | 3,086 | 1,631,299 |
| Mariupol | 502 | 703 | 13,785 | 2,794,776 | 16,824 | 8,894,678 |
| Makiyivka | 520 | 1,106 | 21,694 | 4,398,336 | 26,478 | 13,998,182 |
| Slovyansk | 86 | 89 | 1,751 | 355,074 | 2,138 | 1,130,062 |
| Ivano-Frankivsk | 383 | 315 | 6,186 | 1,254,213 | 7,550 | 3,991,669 |
| Kirovograd | 215 | 363 | 7,118 | 1,443,204 | 8,688 | 4,593,154 |
| Svitlovodsk | 51 | 108 | 2,119 | 429,525 | 2,586 | 1,367,010 |
| Kremenchug | 133 | 334 | 6,554 | 1,328,664 | 7,998 | 4,228,618 |
| Lviv | 526 | 1,056 | 20,706 | 4,197,891 | 25,271 | 13,360,244 |
| Odesa | 1,382 | 1,470 | 28,841 | 5,847,267 | 35,200 | 18,609,563 |
| Sumi | 237 | 416 | 8,164 | 1,655,103 | 9,964 | 5,267,545 |
| Vinnitsa | 707 | 773 | 15,169 | 3,075,399 | 18,514 | 9,787,792 |
| Kiyv | 2,506 | 1,888 | 37,033 | 7,508,097 | 45,198 | 23,895,335 |
| Mikolayiv | 288 | 369 | 7,231 | 1,466,112 | 8,826 | 4,666,061 |
| Zhitomir | 85 | 203 | 3,983 | 807,507 | 4,861 | 2,569,979 |
| Zaporizhya | 345 | 1,164 | 22,824 | 4,627,416 | 27,857 | 14,727,254 |
| Rivne | 125 | 179 | 3,517 | 713,012 | 4,292 | 2,269,237 |
| Uzhgorod | 85 | 84 | 1,653 | 335,030 | 2,017 | 1,066,268 |
| Kharkiv | 847 | 883 | 17,314 | 3,510,174 | 21,131 | 11,171,510 |
| Total | 13,316 | 18,243 | 357,857 | 72,781,264 | 452,631 | 231,634,283 |
| Summary Statistics on Morbidity | | | | | | |
| Health categories | | | Total cases | | Total DALYS | |
| Premature mortality | | | 27,028 | | 202,709 | |
| Chronic bronchitis | | | 13,316 | | 33,291 | |
| Hospital admissions | | | 18,243 | | 292 | |
| Emergency room visits/Outpatient hospital visits | | | 357,857 | | 1,610 | |
| Restricted activity days | | | 73 million | | 21,834 | |
| Lower respiratory illness in children | | | 452,631 | | 2,942 | |
| Respiratory symptoms | | | 232 million | | 17,373 | |
| TOTAL | | | | | 280,051 | |

Source:

Table 7: Estimated Health Impact by City

| | Percent of Total Exposed Population* | Percent of Total Cases** |
|------------------|---|---------------------------------|
| Lugansk | 3.1% | 1.7% |
| Alchevsk | 0.3% | 0.6% |
| Kerch | 1.1% | 0.7% |
| Yalta | 0.6% | 0.7% |
| Dnipropetrovsk | 7.3% | 9.5% |
| Dniprodzerzhinsk | 1.7% | 1.1% |
| Kriviy Rig | 4.8% | 6.2% |
| Donesk | 6.9% | 10.9% |
| Enakiyeve | 0.7% | 1.4% |
| Gorlivka | 2.0% | 4.0% |
| Dzerzhinsk | 0.6% | 1.2% |
| Kramatorsk | 1.2% | 0.8% |
| Mariupol | 3.3% | 3.9% |
| Makiyivka | 2.6% | 6.2% |
| Slovyansk | 0.8% | 0.6% |
| Ivano-Frankivsk | 1.5% | 1.0% |
| Kirovograd | 1.7% | 2.5% |
| Svitlovodsk | 0.3% | 0.7% |
| Kremenchug | 1.6% | 2.1% |
| Lviv | 5.0% | 4.8% |
| Odesa | 7.0% | 8.8% |
| Sumi | 2.0% | 2.8% |
| Vinnitsa | 2.4% | 4.4% |
| Kiyv | 17.9% | 7.7% |
| Mikolayiv | 3.5% | 2.3% |
| Zhitomir | 1.9% | 1.3% |
| Zaporizhya | 5.5% | 6.4% |
| Rivne | 1.7% | 0.5% |
| Uzhgorod | 0.8% | 0.3% |
| Kharkiv | 10.0% | 4.9% |

*Exposed population is reported in Table 2. **Total cases are reported in Table 9.

Table 8. Estimated Value of Statistical Life in Ukraine

| | |
|--|--------|
| | |
| Average VSL in high-income countries (million US \$) | 2 |
| Average GDP/capita in high-income countries (US \$) | 30 000 |
| GDP per capita in Ukraine (US \$ in 2004) | 1360 |
| Estimated VSL in Ukraine (thousand US \$)** | 90,5 |
| Estimated VSL in Ukraine (thousand Grivnas)** | 452 |

* weighted average GDP per capita, based on the sample in Mrozek and Taylor (2002). ** Using an exchange rate of 5 Grivnas per US \$ in 2004.

Table 9: Estimated Annual Cost of Health Impacts (Billion Grivnas)

| Health categories | Total Annual Cost | Percent of Total Cost |
|--|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Mortality | 12.3 | 94.2% |
| Morbidity: | | |
| Chronic bronchitis | 0.13 | 1.0% |
| Hospital admissions | 0.05 | 0.4% |
| Emergency room visits/Outpatient hospital visits | 0.13 | 1.0% |
| Restricted activity days (adults) | 0.38 | 2.9% |
| Lower respiratory illness in children | 0.06 | 0.4% |
| Respiratory symptoms (adults) | 0.00 | 0.0% |
| Total cost of Morbidity | 0.75 | 5.8% |
| TOTAL COST (Mortality and Morbidity) | 13.05 | 100 % |

Table 10: Estimated Unit Cost by Health End-Point (Grivnas)

| Health categories | COI per case (1) | WTP per case (2) | Total Cost per case (3)=(1)+(2) |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------------------|
| Chronic bronchitis | 5,953 | 5,000 | 10,953 |
| Hospital admissions | 2,969 | 0 | 2,969 |
| Emergency room visits/Outpatient hospital visits | 403 | 0 | 403 |
| Restricted activity days (adults) | 149 | 0 | 149 |
| Lower respiratory illness in children | 11 | 0 | 11 |
| Respiratory symptoms (adults) | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |

Table 11: Estimated Annual Cost of Morbidity

| | Annual Cost (Billion Grivnas) |
|--|-------------------------------|
| Cost of medical treatments (doctors, hospitals, clinics) | 0.261 (23%) |
| Cost of time lost to illness | 0.424(40%) |
| DALYs (valued at GDP per capita) | 0.398(37%) |
| TOTAL | 1.089 |

Table 12: Baseline Data for Cost Estimation

| | Baseline | Source: |
|---|----------|---|
| Cost Data for All Health End-Points: | | |
| Cost of hospitalization (Grivnas per day) | 424 | Provided by the Health Risk center in Ukraine |
| Cost of emergency visit (Grivnas) - urban | 318 | |
| Cost of doctor visit (Grivnas) (mainly private doctors) – urban | 106 | |
| Value of time lost to illness (Grivnas per day) | 21 | Based on urban wages in Kiev-Zaporizhya |

Table 13. Weight of different mortality causes in Russia and Ukraine
Actual numbers (and rates per 100,000 of population)

| | Russia | Ukraine |
|--|---------------------|-------------------|
| All causes death | 2,225,332 (1540) | 758,082 (1539) |
| Air pollution* | 85,000 (59) | 27,000 (55) |
| TB total | 29,800 (21) | 11,000 (22) |
| External all causes | 312,000 (216) | 41,000 (83) |
| Transport accidents | 39,500 (27) | 7,000 (14) |
| Poisoning | 59,500 (41) | 14,000 (28) |
| Suicide | 57,000 (39) | 14,500 (29) |
| Assault | 41,000 (28) | 6,400 (13) |
| Total population thousand | 144,500 | 49,246 |
| * Our estimation based on primary data and concentration of TSP in the most polluted cities | | |

Source: 2000 WHO; authors estimation

Figure 1. The share of exposed population and health end-points in the most and least polluted cities in Ukraine (for cities with the pollution load more 5%)

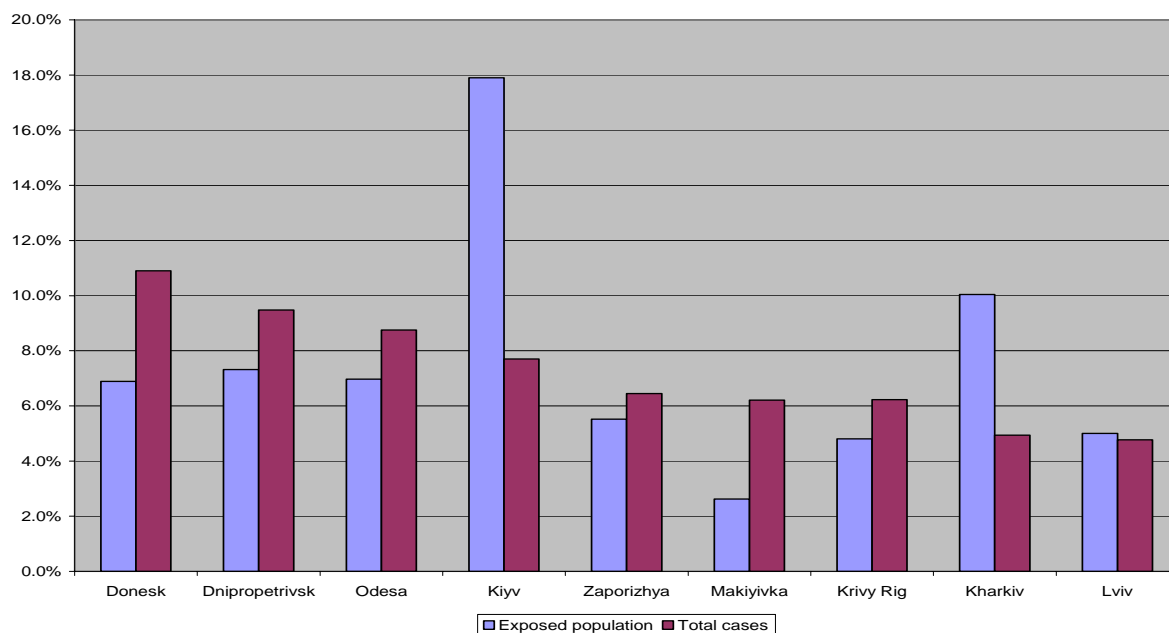
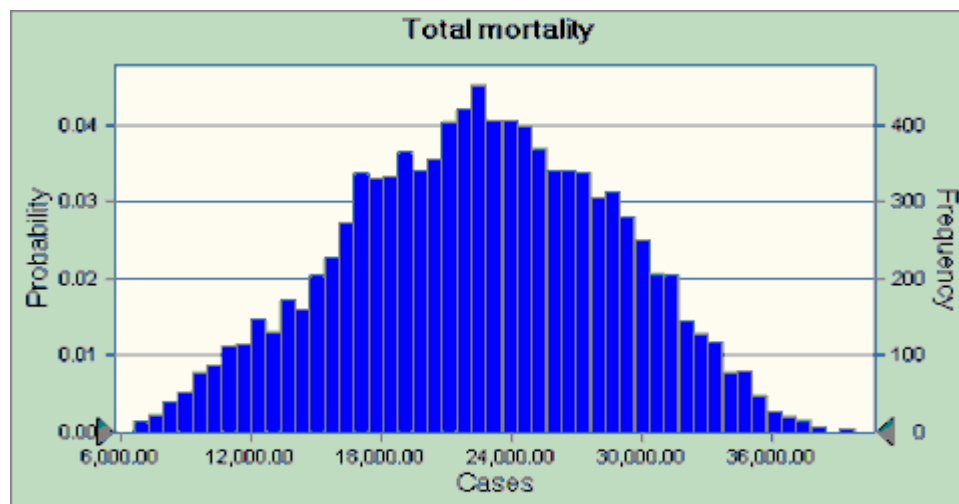
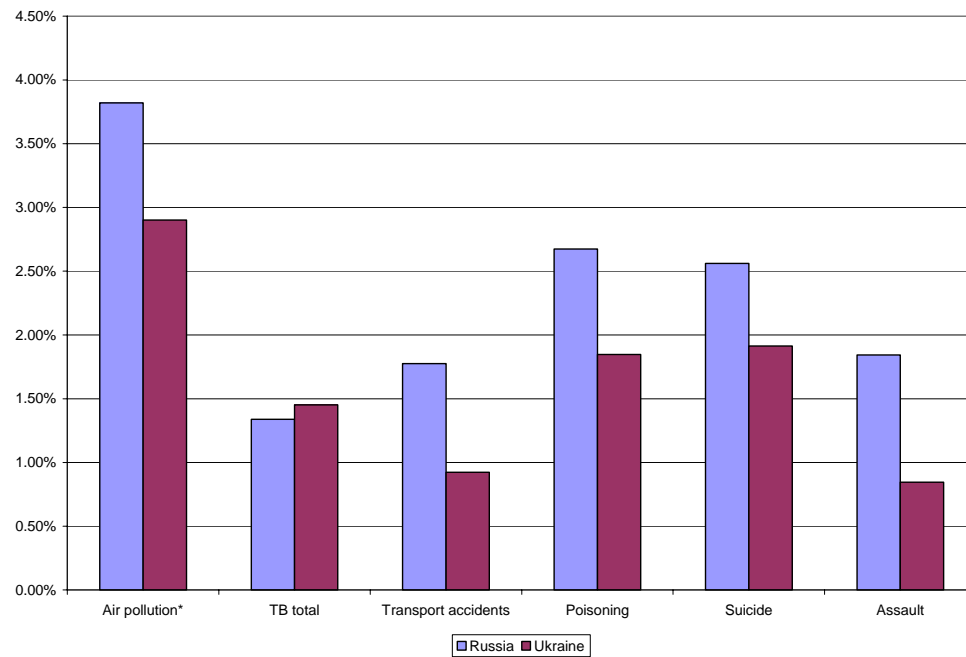


Figure 2: Sensitivity Range for Mortality Costs



| | |
|--------------------|-----------------|
| | Forecast values |
| Trials | 10,000 |
| Mean | 22,530.38 |
| Median | 22,627.51 |
| Standard Deviation | 6,171.81 |
| Variance | 38,091,180.30 |
| Minimum | 6,608.78 |
| Maximum | 43,849.00 |
| Mean Std. Error | 61.72 |

Figure 3: Share of different mortality causes in total mortality of Russia and Ukraine.



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