

1 **PM₁₀ exposure and cardiorespiratory mortality – estimating the**
2 **effects and economic losses in São Paulo, Brazil**

3 *RT: Health effects and economic losses of PM₁₀*

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14
15 **Abstract**

16
17 Air pollution is an important health risk concern and an economic burden, notably on low and
18 middle-income countries. The aim of this study was to determine the mortality burden of
19 cardiovascular and respiratory diseases, considering the relative risk due to air pollution and the
20 economic valuation derived from life-years lost within the population of São Paulo, Brazil. This
21 study was conducted considering a retrospective Health Impact Assessment (HIA) approach by
22 means of daily time series of cardiovascular and respiratory deaths considering the population of
23 São Paulo, Brazil from 2000 to 2011. Effects of particulate matter smaller than 10µm (PM₁₀)
24 were estimated in Poisson generalized additive models. Single-day lag effects of air pollutant
25 exposure were estimated for lags 0 through 3 day lags. Therefore, we obtained the Years of Life
26 Lost (YLL) from Disability-Adjusted Life Years (DALY) method to estimate the burden of
27 disease due to air pollution in São Paulo. Value of Life Year (VOLY) converted YLL component
28 to economic losses. The results showed an association between PM₁₀ and cardiovascular and
29 respiratory mortality, lagged 3 days. Total years of life lost sums 231,691.8 years, meaning an
30 economic loss of more than US\$14.1 billion for all period. In conclusion, the knowledge
31 regarding the costs of premature deaths related to air pollution could be useful to strengthen the
32 government's public policies and to facilitate decision making in the context of scarce resources.

33 **Keywords:** Particulate matter, Air pollution, Health effects, Economic valuation, Costs.

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34 INTRODUCTION

35

36 Air pollution exposure has been associated to a large range of adverse health effects, as
37 overall, circulatory and respiratory mortality (Lee *et al.*, 2014; Smargiassi *et al.*, 2014; Khaefi *et*
38 *al.*, 2017).

39 The air pollution effects on health could occur in the day of exposure or on consecutive
40 days, named lag structures (Braga *et al.*, 2001; Martins *et al.*, 2006). In a recent study, Costa *et al.*
41 (2016) found that single-day lag and cumulative effects up to 5 days pointed out relevant
42 increases in mortality in elderly population in association with air pollutant levels, including
43 particulate matter smaller than 10 μm (PM_{10}) (Costa *et al.*, 2016).

44 Vehicles are the main sources of PM_{10} and target of a large range of international public
45 policies. Air pollutants and noise can cause external costs in the range of 1,700–1,800 million
46 CHF each year in Swiss transport system (Vienneau *et al.*, 2015).

47 In Brazil, Miraglia and Gouveia (2014) have estimated the cost of premature deaths due to
48 air pollution in 29 Brazilian capital cities and the result was a loss of US\$1.7 billion annually
49 (Miraglia and Gouveia, 2014). Considering predictive scenarios of reduced concentration of
50 particulate matter smaller than 2.5 μm ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) in order to achieve the World Health Organization
51 (WHO) standards, São Paulo city in Brazil would avoid more than 5,012 premature deaths and
52 savings around of US\$15.1 billion annually (Abe and Miraglia, 2016). The economic studies

53 involving air pollution impacts on health are scarce, mainly in Latin America where policy
54 makers are often confronted with the need of quantifying the cost of a polluted air.

55 In Brazil, São Paulo is the most developed urban area. The gross domestic product is US\$
56 195 billion and is the most polluted city in the country (MMA, 2014; SEADE, 2014). In this
57 sense, a comprehensive approach to deal with this issue is highly recommended. An integrated
58 assessment is required to improve the policy making process for air quality control. However, it
59 has not been a simple procedure, often surrounded by economics conflicts and barriers. In this
60 way, one recommended methodology is the “Health Impact Assessment” (HIA). The HIA
61 methodology is derived from the WHO general method (WHO, 2000) and is useful to quantify a
62 range of impacts, including the effects of air pollution exposure on health. In this study, we aimed
63 to determine the mortality burden of cardiovascular and respiratory diseases, considering the
64 relative risk and the economic costs derived from life-years lost in São Paulo’s population in
65 order to improve pollution control policies.

66

67 **METHODS**

68

69 **Local of Study and Population**

70 São Paulo city is located at 23°32'50" S and 46°38'09" W in the state of São Paulo, Brazil. The
71 total area of the municipality is 1,523 km² and is at an altitude of 799 m (2,621 ft.) above sea
72 level with a humid subtropical climate. Its population is approximately 12,038,175 inhabitants in
73 2016 and Regional Human Development Index of 0.805 in 2010 presenting 678 public health
74 facilities. It has a vehicle fleet of about 7,590,181 in 2015 (IBGE, 2016).

75

76 **Type of study and health data**

77 A retrospective HIA was performed using a time series study and the numbers of daily
78 cardiovascular (International Classification of Diseases - ICD 10th revision - codes I00-I52) and
79 respiratory (codes J00-J99) deaths were accessed from the Mortality Information System of the
80 Brazilian Public Health System database (DATASUS), among subjects of both sexes at all ages,
81 living in São Paulo, Brazil. The study period was between January 1, 2000, and December 31,
82 2011. We selected mortality data by the main cause of death of the residents living in the study
83 area.

84

85 **Environmental data**

86 Environmental Company of the State of São Paulo provided air pollutant data (CETESB, 2016)
87 for 16 monitoring stations throughout the city. We have chosen stations that had measured PM₁₀

88 concentrations and we have analyzed the trend and variability of pollutant's concentration. Abe
89 and Miraglia (2016) already used these data in another study Institute of Astronomy, Geophysics
90 and Atmospheric Sciences of the University of São Paulo (IAG/USP) provided daily averages for
91 minimum temperature and relative humidity.

92

93 **Modeling design**

94 Associations between daily counts for each death cause and daily 24-hr average ambient PM₁₀
95 levels were analyzed using Poisson generalized linear models. This model was fitted to estimate
96 single-day lag effects of PM₁₀ exposures on lag 0 through 3 days. All Poisson regression analyses
97 were conducted in the SPSS software, version 21 (IBM Statistics). Statistical significance was set
98 at p value < 0.05. The model was adjusted for day-of-week, minimum temperature and average
99 relative humidity (Conceição *et al.*, 2001). We used cubic smoothing spline functions for
100 temperature and air relative humidity of account for the non-linearity of meteorological variables.
101 The coefficient value exponent provided by Poisson regression was used to calculate the relative
102 risks (RR) of cardiorespiratory mortality in association with PM₁₀ exposure concentrations on the
103 same day of the event (lag 0), one day (lag 1), two days (lag 2) and three days (lag 3) prior to the
104 event.

105 The expression $RR = \exp(\beta * X)$ provides the increase in the relative risk (RR), where β is the
106 coefficient given by the Poisson regression and X means the increase in the concentration of the
107 pollutant. In this case, an increase of $10 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$ in PM_{10} levels was adopted. We calculated the
108 relative risk of mortality with 95% confidence intervals (CI). Additionally, we determined
109 increases in the relative risk for a $10 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$ in PM_{10} concentration as percentage values. This
110 model has been used by several studies worldwide (Zanobetti *et al.*, 2003; Romieu *et al.*, 2012;
111 Costa *et al.*, 2016; Nascimento *et al.*, 2016; Shi *et al.*, 2016)

113 **Economic Valuation**

114 Currently, there has been a growing concern in the creation of methodologies to express
115 trade-offs among economic costs and deaths (Pascal *et al.*, 2013). A method to achieve the value
116 of postponed deaths is termed Value of a Statistical Life (VSL). A valuable key finding is that the
117 VSL rely on health outcomes and consider other characteristics of the risk of death, such as age,
118 time bounded by exposure and death and features of the underlying risk (Cropper *et al.*, 2011;
119 Dekker *et al.*, 2011).

120 In consequence, to achieve a standard indicator, we applied the Disability-Adjusted Life
121 Years (DALY) method to evaluate the burden of disease due to air pollution in São Paulo
122 (Murray and Lopez, 1996; Miraglia *et al.*, 2005). This method involves two elements: Years of
123 Life Lost due to premature death (YLLs) and Years of Life Lived with Disability (YLDs)

124 (Miraglia *et al.*, 2005). In this study, we only assessed the YLL component of DALY. We
125 proceeded YLL estimation through the WHO updated methodology (WHO, 2016).

126 The calculation formula of burden in terms of YLLs is described in the following equation
127 (Eq.1):

$$YLL_s = \frac{KC_e^{r\alpha}}{(r + \beta)^2} \left[e^{-(r+\beta)(L+\alpha)} [-(r + \beta)(L + \alpha) - 1] - e^{-(r+\beta)\alpha} [-(r + \beta)\alpha - 1] \right]$$

128
129 **Eq.1.** The calculation formula of burden in terms of YLL. r is the discount rate, K is the age-
130 weighting modulation factor, C is a constant, a is the age at death, L is the standard expectation of
131 life at age a , and β is the parameter from the age-weighting function. The values adopted for the
132 parameters r , K , C , and β are respectively 3%, 1, 0.1658, and 0.04, as recommended by the
133 Global Burden of Diseases (Murray and Lopez, 1996).

134
135 In addition, we considered the Value of Life Year (VOLY) of €50,000 to express the
136 economic terms of YLL (Bickel and Friedrich, 2005). The conversion factor for American dollars
137 was 1.2195 (28 February 2018) which means an equivalent VOLY of US\$ 60,975.00. We
138 considered the relative risk obtained from lag 0 of PM₁₀ exposure for all the economic valuation.
139 The standard life expectation considered was 82.5 years (female) and 80.0 years (male),

140 according to WHO template. The attributable deaths due to PM₁₀ was applied to respiratory
141 diseases in all ages and cardiovascular diseases to adults with minimum age of 30 years.

142 Federal University of São Paulo Ethical Committee approved this study under process
143 number 250.107.

144

145 **RESULTS**

146 **Meteorological and pollutant data**

147 Considering the period between 2000 and 2011, there were 96,845 deaths due to
148 respiratory diseases and 265,654 deaths derived from cardiovascular diseases in São Paulo city.
149 Table 1 shows the average values, minimum and maximum of the meteorological variables PM₁₀
150 concentration average in the whole period was 42.04 µg/m³, with a minimum of 8.26 µg/m³ and
151 maximum of 168.98 µg/m³ (Table 1).

152

153 **Relative Risk and lag function**

154 We used the values of the coefficients, obtained through Poisson regression to obtain the
155 percent of change in RR according to an increment of 10 µg.m⁻³ in PM₁₀ concentrations of (Fig.
156 1). The effects of exposure to PM₁₀ were seen to be significant in all days (p<0.001), with the
157 following values: cardiovascular deaths lag 0 (%RR = 1.113%; 95% CI = 0.89 – 1.33); lag 1

158 (%RR = 0.966%; 95% CI = 0.75 - 1.19); lag 2 (%RR = 0.734%; 95% CI = 0.51 - 0.96) and lag 3
159 (%RR = 0.560%; 95% CI = 0.34 - 0.78). Respiratory deaths lag 0 (%RR = 2.173%; 95% CI
160 =1.81 - 2.54); lag 1 (%RR = 2.181%; 95% CI =1.82 - 2.55); lag 2 (%RR =1.936%; 95% CI =
161 1.57-2.30) and lag 3 (%RR = 1.597%; 95% CI = 1.23 - 1.96).

162

163 **Economic Valuation**

164 Table 2 shows measures of mortality cases and the burden of disease and injury
165 attributable to air pollution in terms of YLL. It can be observed that respiratory and
166 cardiovascular deaths attributable to PM₁₀ correspond to more than US\$ 5.7 billion to US\$ 8.4
167 billion, respectively between the 2000-2011 period. The total for both causes in all the period
168 sums more than US\$ 14 billion, only considering PM₁₀ exposure in São Paulo city.

169

170 **DISCUSSION**

171

172 According to the World Bank, air pollutants' exposure is the third most important
173 premature death health risk in low- and lower-middle-income countries (WBG, 2016). In 2013,
174 nearly 5.5 million deaths were associated with air pollution, an increase from 4.8 million in 1990
175 and it costs the world's economy more than \$5.1 trillion in welfare losses (WBG, 2016). Very
176 few time series studies have addressed HIA of PM₁₀ effects on cardiovascular and respiratory

177 mortality displacement and the associated costs. In China, Yang et al. (2016) found that the mean
178 daily YLL was 248 for deaths from cardiovascular disease associated with $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increases in
179 NO_2 , SO_2 and PM_{10} levels. Another study in China, revealed the mean daily cardiovascular and
180 respiratory deaths were 83 and 14, respectively, from 2006 to 2011, with the corresponding daily
181 YLL of 1,026.4 years and 139,2 years, respectively (Huang *et al.*, 2018).

182 Our findings using retrospective HIA study suggest that in São Paulo city, PM_{10} is
183 associated with a considerable number of cardiovascular and respiratory deaths. Considering
184 2000 to 2011 study period, more than 93,486 respiratory and 138,205 cardiovascular YLL could
185 be associated to PM_{10} exposure. According to Miraglia *et al* (2005) respiratory events
186 corresponded respectively to 18.6% and 36.2% of total deaths in the elderly and children in the
187 population of São Paulo. In the same study, the authors reported that cardiovascular diseases in
188 the elderly corresponded altogether to 47.3% of total deaths in this age group. Elderly and
189 children are the most affected groups, however, pollutants affect all ages in the population, and
190 the exposure could result in a comprehensive decrease in the health status. As reported by Perez
191 *et al.* (2013), road traffic-related pollution exposure was responsible of 15% of all asthma
192 episodes and the authors found similar patterns for coronary heart diseases in older adults.
193 Moreover, concerning cardiovascular mortality cases and myocardial infarction, there is also a

194 large amount of outcomes regarding acute and chronic health (Franklin *et al.*, 2015; Pope *et al.*,
195 2015).

196 In recent times, some cities have been looking for shifting their focus away from vehicles
197 and coming up to greener, citizen-focused mobility opportunities that may also be healthier
198 (Rojas-Rueda *et al.*, 2016). The policy instruments for vehicles restrictions must include,
199 ensuring public transport availability, cycling infrastructure and secure pedestrian areas.
200 According to Rojas-Rueda *et al.*, (2016), policies to encourage active transportation are associated
201 with health benefits in the six European cities, as a result of the implementation of active
202 transportation policies that support the use of bicycles and walking. Moreover, in São Paulo city,
203 air pollution has a causal dose-dependent association with absenteeism (Silva *et al.*, 2012).

204 HIA is useful for health management of governmental authorities to determine the need
205 for action and to address potential public health concerns arising from air pollutants exposure
206 (Hadei *et al.*, 2017). A HIA study of our group has led us to consider scenarios of preventive
207 action and associated avoided costs. As the main point of analysis, if the PM_{2.5} WHO standards
208 (2005) had been reached in São Paulo city, life expectancy would have increased by 15.8 months
209 due to a 266,486 life years' gain and it could represent an economy of more than US\$15 billion
210 annually (Abe and Miraglia, 2016). As a comparison, the present study indicates an economic
211 loss of more than US\$3.3 billion in São Paulo city due to actual PM₁₀ levels. In this sense, any

212 measure concerning diminishing of air pollutants' levels will have a worthy Return On
213 Investment (ROI) in both economic and health figures terms.

214 A Belgian study conducted a similar analysis where the authors concluded that a 10%
215 reduction of pollutants mean a potential annual hospital cost saving of €13.2 million (Devos *et al.*,
216 2015). If WHO annual guidelines for PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} were met, more than triple these amounts
217 would be saved (Devos *et al.*, 2015).

218 As shown in Figure 1, air pollutant effects could be verified even after 3 days of the prior
219 exposure, meaning a persistent effect. Another study in Brazil verified the effect of PM_{2.5}
220 exposure on population health in the city of 260,000 inhabitants called Volta Redonda, in Rio de
221 Janeiro state. The authors declared that a 5 µg/m³ decrease in PM_{2.5} concentration would entail a
222 decrease of 76 hospitalizations and it would lead to savings of around R\$ 84,000.00 annually
223 (approximately US\$ 26,040.00, conversion data 28th Feb 2018), in light of a costs reduction
224 related only to hospitalization due to pneumonia, acute bronchitis, bronchiolitis and asthma
225 (Nascimento *et al.*, 2016). They also verified the PM_{2.5} effects in a lag model, demonstrating an
226 association between PM_{2.5} and health effects even 7 days after the prior exposure. A large study
227 estimated the mortality attributable to PM₁₀ in 29 Brazilian metropolitan areas assessing
228 economic outcome of air pollution. It has resulted in 20,050 premature deaths and representing a
229 loss of \$ 1.7 billion annually (Miraglia and Gouveia, 2014).

230 Zanobetti *et al.* (2003) has concluded that PM₁₀ effect (per 10 µg/m³) in distributed lag
231 models has an effect estimates increased to 4.2% (95% CI, 1.08–7.42) for respiratory deaths and
232 to 1.97% (95% CI, 1.38–2.55) for cardiovascular deaths. Moreover, the authors confirmed that
233 most of the air pollution effect is persistent for more than a month after exposure (Zanobetti *et al.*,
234 2003). For the day of exposure, our study showed an increase of 2.173% and 1.113% in
235 respiratory and cardiovascular deaths, respectively, considering lag 0 per 10 µg.m⁻³. The effect
236 was decreasing until the third lag day; however, it showed significant association, as other studies
237 have been demonstrated the persistent long-term effect of air pollution in health (Fig.1).

238 Air pollution effects and economic costs are a crucial issue recognized worldwide. The
239 World Bank estimates 5.5 million lives were lost in 2013 due to diseases associated with outdoor
240 and household air pollution, causing human suffering and reducing economic development. The
241 costs of those deaths, globally, are estimated about US\$ 225 billion in lost labor income in 2013
242 and more than US\$5 trillion in welfare losses, highlighting economic burden of air pollution
243 (WBG, 2016).

244 Despite the fact that São Paulo city has been decreasing the PM₁₀ mean concentrations
245 over the study period (at the beginning of the study was 49.19 µg.m⁻³±1.09 Standard Error (SE)
246 (2000) and the mean concentration at the end of study period was 36.7 µg.m⁻³±0.86 SE (2011)
247 (Table 1), due to national and regional restrictive public policies, more efforts will be needed to

248 diminish mortality and morbidity associated with air pollution. Urgent action is now required to
249 strengthen the public policies against the increase of air pollutants and to facilitate decision
250 making in the context of limited resources. In this sense, a prospective HIA study could be useful
251 in order to highlight health priorities and prevent economic expenditures.

252 The improvement of public policies with respect to pollutant levels are highly required
253 once the premature deaths in Brazil means an overload in health system and serious economic
254 losses (Miraglia and Gouveia, 2014).

255

256 **Limitations and positive aspects of the study**

257 Few studies have examined the air pollution impact on YLL and its economic valuation.
258 Moreover, there are very few studies for evaluating the chronic effects of air pollution in São
259 Paulo, and this could be useful to stakeholders. Furthermore, the public national health data
260 obtained by DATASUS system has some boundaries, as there may be under reporting, data
261 insertion problems, technological limitations and people training. In addition, the meteorological
262 and pollutant data represent an average and may present distortions within the actual data.
263 Although PM_{2.5} concentration was more suitable to consider in health analysis, PM_{2.5} data was not
264 available. Finally, the economic data used a European statistical life-value once there is no

265 similar national study that reflected an adequate value; however, life values should be equal all
266 over the world.

267

268 **CONCLUSIONS**

269 The present study confirms the impact of PM₁₀ on health and on economic burden that have put a
270 real barrier on development and well-being of development countries. We found evidence of
271 association between PM₁₀ and cardiovascular and respiratory mortality, even after a displacement
272 of three days. The total of YLL sums 231,691.8 years, meaning an economic loss of more than
273 US\$ 14.1 billion for São Paulo city. The HIA approach and the knowledge available from this
274 study must be taken into account to highlight priorities in decision-making of public policies that
275 minimize the magnitude of these impacts.

276

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282

283 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

284 None declared.

285

286 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

287 S.G.E.K.M. had the original idea and design the study; K.C.A., G.M.S.S. and M.S.Z.S.C
288 conducted the database collection and performed the analysis; S.G.E.K.M. and K.C.A. conducted
289 the data analysis and interpretation, prepared the text and provided critical revision of the
290 manuscript, which was revised and approved by all authors.

291

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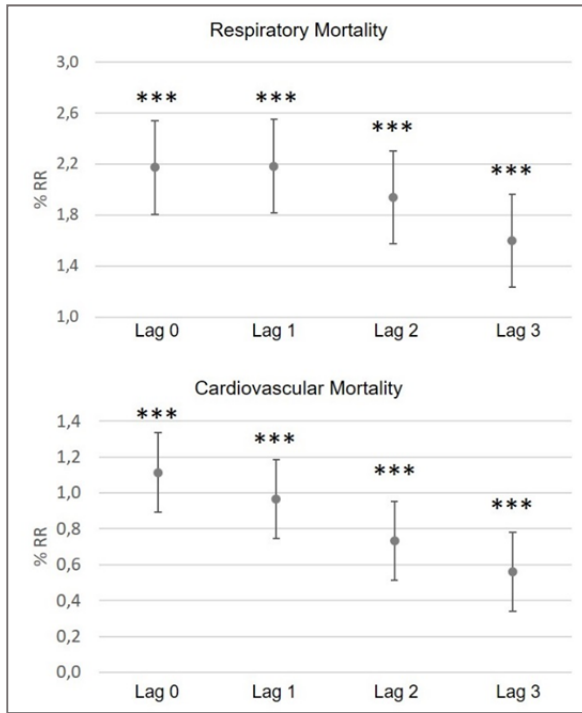
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1 **Table 1.** Minimum, maximum, means and standard error (SE) of temperature, relative
 2 humidity and PM₁₀ concentration between 2000 and 2011 in São Paulo.

Year	Minimum Temperature (°C)			Relative Humidity (%)			PM ₁₀ (µg.m ⁻³)		
	Mean ± SE	Maximun	Minimun	Mean ± SE	Maximun	Minimun	Mean ± SE	Maximun	Minimun
2000	14.87 ± 0.20	21.30	-0.20	79.44 ± 0.48	95.90	45.67	49.19 ± 1.09	126.60	15.23
2001	15.54 ± 0.18	21.00	3.70	79.46 ± 0.39	95.70	54.70	47.84 ± 1.06	168.98	14.01
2002	16.03 ± 0.17	21.80	3.70	78.81 ± 0.43	96.60	51.20	50.06 ± 1.12	140.28	15.18
2003	15.23 ± 0.18	21.50	3.70	79.06 ± 0.48	96.08	45.54	47.49 ± 1.21	133.94	9.62
2004	14.77 ± 0.17	20.60	4.10	81.01 ± 0.41	97.29	52.29	41.79 ± 1.03	118.48	11.96
2005	15.44 ± 0.16	21.00	5.20	80.96 ± 0.41	94.46	50.54	37.57 ± 0.87	89.19	11.92
2006	15.06 ± 0.18	21.20	4.30	79.76 ± 0.45	96.04	49.50	39.11 ± 1.00	119.34	11.36
2007	17.04 ± 0.17	22.38	6.35	73.46 ± 0.52	98.79	40.40	45.43 ± 0.97	105.11	13.49
2008	16.33 ± 0.14	21.72	9.16	66.30 ± 0.52	99.58	41.41	39.00 ± 1.01	98.80	13.12
2009	15.70 ± 0.18	21.40	4.60	73.39 ± 0.48	99.19	46.33	32.37 ± 0.63	76.09	9.49
2010	15.15 ± 0.19	21.20	0.90	70.12 ± 0.61	93.78	35.74	37.87 ± 1.04	130.79	8.26
2011	14.94 ± 0.19	21.20	2.40	88.04 ± 0.48	99.31	54.27	36.70 ± 0.86	106.38	8.49

3

1 **Table 2.** YLL from respiratory and cardiovascular diseases attributable to exposure to PM₁₀ and the
 2 economic valuation, in euro and dollars, per year.

3

Year	Respiratory YLL	Economic valuation (€)	Economic valuation (US\$)	Cardiovascular YLL	Economic valuation (€)	Economic valuation (US\$)	Total (US\$)
2000	9,145.0	457,250,000.00	557,616,375.00	14,060.6	703,030,000.00	857,345,085.00	1,414,961,460.00
2001	8,646.9	432,345,000.00	527,244,727.50	13,260.6	663,030,000.00	808,565,085.00	1,335,809,812.50
2002	9,280.9	464,045,000.00	565,902,877.50	13,733.9	686,695,000.00	837,424,552.50	1,403,327,430.00
2003	8,905.7	445,285,000.00	543,025,057.50	12,944.5	647,225,000.00	789,290,887.50	1,332,315,945.00
2004	8,092.3	404,615,000.00	493,427,992.50	11,685.4	584,270,000.00	712,517,265.00	1,205,945,257.50
2005	6,502.9	325,145,000.00	396,514,327.50	9,807.3	490,365,000.00	598,000,117.50	994,514,445.00
2006	7,269.4	363,470,000.00	443,251,665.00	10,406.5	520,325,000.00	634,536,337.50	1,077,788,002.50
2007	8,247.5	412,375,000.00	502,891,312.50	12,162.4	608,120,000.00	741,602,340.00	1,244,493,652.50
2008	6,792.8	339,640,000.00	414,190,980.00	10,673.0	533,650,000.00	650,786,175.00	1,064,977,155.00
2009	6,182.8	309,140,000.00	376,996,230.00	8,884.1	444,205,000.00	541,707,997.50	918,704,227.50
2010	6,991.2	349,560,000.00	426,288,420.00	10,366.8	518,340,000.00	632,115,630.00	1,058,404,050.00
2011	7,429.4	371,470,000.00	453,007,665.00	10,219.8	510,990,000.00	623,152,305.00	1,076,159,970.00
Total	93,486.8	4,674,340,000.00	5,700,357,630.00	138,205.0	6,910,245,000.00	8,427,049,875.00	14,127,401,407.50

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