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# **Long-term Air Pollution Exposure and Pneumonia Related Mortality in a Large Pooled European Cohort**

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#### **At a Glance Commentary**

#### **Scientific Knowledge on the Subject**

Ambient air pollution exposure has been linked to mortality from chronic cardiorespiratory diseases. However, a limited number of studies investigated the association between air pollution and mortality from respiratory infectious diseases, mainly due to a lack of adult cohorts with sufficient power to investigate these rarer outcomes.

### **What This Study Adds to the Field**

In a large pooled adult cohort of eight European cohorts, we found that long-term exposure to nitrogen dioxide  $(NO<sub>2</sub>)$  and black carbon  $(BC)$  were associated with pneumonia, influenza and acute lower respiratory infections (ALRI) mortality, with higher risks observed in overweight participants and current smokers, as well as in employed subjects. There was no evidence of an exposure threshold for these associations. No association was observed between fine particulate matter ( $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ ) or ozone ( $O<sub>3</sub>$ ) exposures and the investigated endpoints. This study provides suggestive evidence that combustion-related air pollutants  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and BC, even at low levels, below current limit values, may be risk factors for pneumonia related mortality.

#### **Abstract**

**Rationale:** Ambient air pollution exposure has been linked to mortality from chronic cardiorespiratory diseases, while evidence on respiratory infections remains more limited.

**Objectives:** We examined the association between long-term exposure to air pollution and pneumonia related mortality in adults in a pool of eight European cohorts.

**Methods:** Within the multicenter project 'Effects of Low-Level Air Pollution: A Study in Europe' (ELAPSE), we pooled data from eight cohorts among six European countries. Annual mean residential concentrations in 2010 for fine particulate matter  $(PM_{2.5})$ , nitrogen dioxide  $(NO<sub>2</sub>)$ , black carbon  $(BC)$ , and ozone  $(O<sub>3</sub>)$  were estimated using Europe-wide hybrid land use regression models. We applied stratified Cox proportional hazard models to investigate the associations between air pollution and pneumonia, influenza, and acute lower respiratory infections (ALRI) mortality.

**Measurements and Main Results:** Of 325,367 participants, 712 died from pneumonia and influenza combined, 682 from pneumonia, and 695 from ALRI during a mean follow-up of 19.5 years.  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and BC were associated with 10-12% increases in pneumonia and influenza combined mortality, but 95% confidence intervals included unity [hazard ratios: 1.12 (0.99–1.26) per 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>; 1.10 (0.97–1.24) per 0.5 10<sup>-5</sup>m<sup>-1</sup> for BC]. Associations with pneumonia and ALRI mortality were almost identical. We detected effect modification suggesting stronger associations with  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  or BC in overweight, employed, or currently smoking participants compared to normal weight, unemployed, or non-smoking participants.

**Conclusions:** Long-term exposure to combustion-related air pollutants  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $BC$  may be associated with mortality from lower respiratory infections, but larger studies are needed to estimate these associations more precisely.

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#### **Introduction**

Acute [lower respiratory infections \(ALRI\), including pneumonia](https://www.healthline.com/health/pneumonia) (infection of lung alveoli), as well as infections of the airways, such as bronchitis and influenza, are common respiratory diseases that pose a large burden and can be life-threatening, ranking as the fourth leading cause of death worldwide in 2017 (1). Pneumonia is the most common ALRI, caused by viruses, bacteria, or fungi. While there is a general decline in pneumonia mortality rate in European countries (2), pneumonia remains the most frequent cause of death from infection, especially in children and older people (3, 4). Short-term exposure to air pollution has been found to trigger hospital admission or emergency room visits for pneumonia (5, 6). However, it remains uncertain whether long-term exposure to air pollution can lead to increased risks of contracting or dying from pneumonia or other ALRI in adults, due to general lack of cohorts with data on incidence or mortality from these infections (7, 8). An association of long-term exposure to air pollution with increased respiratory infection risk and severity is biologically plausible (9). Experimental studies show that particulate matter (PM) exposure can impair cell immunity and weaken host defense mechanisms, increasing susceptibility to respiratory infections (10). This is caused by direct cellular damage, and indirectly via oxidative stress and inflammation in the lung and system (11-13).

Two systematic reviews of 71 cohort studies on PM with diameter  $\leq$  2.5  $\mu$ m (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and 41 cohort studies on nitrogen dioxide  $(NO<sub>2</sub>)$  reported clear evidence of associations with allcause and respiratory mortality (14, 15). However, only a limited number of studies investigated the association with respiratory infection mortality (such as pneumonia mortality), mainly due to a lack of cohorts with sufficient power to study these rarer endpoints. So far, several cohort studies in adults have examined the associations of different air pollutants with pneumonia related mortality (Table E1), with studies from US (8, 16-21), Canada (22), Japan (23, 24), China (25), or UK (26). All but one (25) of these studies reported positive associations with pneumonia mortality, but several aspects remain uncertain, including the shape of the concentration-response function, which pollutants are most relevant, and which groups are most susceptible. Strong associations were found between long-term exposure to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and PM<sub>2.5</sub> with increased risks of hospitalization for radiologically confirmed pneumonia in adults aged 65 years or older (7). Furthermore, emerging concerns on the link between long-term air pollution exposure and mortality due to the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) infection (27), which may develop into severe or fatal pneumonia, especially among older people and people with comorbidities, raise renewed interest and demand for more data on air pollution and respiratory infections.

 The 'Effects of Low-Level Air Pollution: A Study in Europe' (ELAPSE) project recently showed that long-term exposure to low levels of air pollution increased risks of numerous chronic lung diseases, including adult-onset asthma (28), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) (29), and lung cancer (30). We aimed to examine the association of long-term exposure to  $PM_{2.5}$ , NO<sub>2</sub>, black carbon (BC), and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) with pneumonia related mortality among adults in a pool of eight European cohorts within ELAPSE.

# **Methods**

#### **Study Population**

Within the ELAPSE project, we analyzed pooled data from eight cohorts among six European countries, which contained information of potential confounders and were pooled, harmonized, and stored at a secure server. The cohorts include: (a) Cardiovascular Effects of Air Pollution and Noise in Stockholm (CEANS) cohort in Sweden, which combined four sub-cohorts: Stockholm Diabetes Prevention Program (SDPP) (31), Stockholm Cohort of 60-year-olds (SIXTY) (32), Stockholm Screening Across the Lifespan Twin study (SALT) (33), and Swedish National Study on Aging and Care in Kungsholmen (SNACK) (34); (b) Diet, Cancer and Health cohort (DCH) in Denmark (35); (d) Danish Nurse Cohort (DNC) in Denmark (36), including two cohort recruitment rounds in 1993 and 1999; (c) Etude Epidémiologique auprès de femmes de la Mutuelle Générale de l'Education Nationale (E3N) in France (37); (e) European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition-Netherlands (EPIC-NL) cohort in the Netherlands, which included two sub-cohorts: Monitoring Project on Risk Factors and Chronic Diseases in the Netherlands (Morgen) and Prospect (38); (f) Heinz Nixdorf Recall study (HNR) in Germany (39); (g) Cooperative Health Research in the Region of Augsburg (KORA) in Germany (40), combining two sub-cohorts from baseline rounds in 1994–1995 (S3) and 1999–2001 (S4); and (h) Vorarlberg Health Monitoring and Prevention Programme (VHM&PP) in Austria (41). The cohorts were recruited in the 1990's or early 2000's, from one or several large cities and their surrounding towns, except for the two nationwide cohorts E3N and DNC (Table E2), and detailed information of each cohort was described previously (42). All cohorts were approved by the medical ethics committees in their respective countries.

#### **Air Pollution Exposure Assessment**

The exposure modelling information was described in detail previously (29, 30, 43). In brief, we estimated annual mean concentrations of  $PM_{2.5}$ , NO<sub>2</sub>, BC, and O<sub>3</sub> for 2010 at participants' baseline residential addresses utilizing standardized Europe-wide hybrid land use regression (LUR) models (43), which incorporated monitoring data, satellite data, chemical transport model estimates, land use, and traffic variables as predictors. The LUR models were at a fine spatial scale (100 m  $\times$  100 m grids) and performed well in five-fold hold-out validation, explaining 72%, 59%, 54%, and 69% of measured spatial variation for  $PM_{2.5}$ , NO<sub>2</sub>, BC, and  $O_3$ , respectively. BC was measured by the reflectance of  $PM_{2.5}$  filters for 2009 and 2010, and was expressed in absorbance units.  $O_3$  concentrations were estimated as the maximum running 8-hour averages in warm season from April to September.

 We additionally back-extrapolated pollutants' concentrations for each year from baseline to the end of follow-up (29, 30), incorporating dynamic residential address history during follow-up. Back-extrapolation method was applied by utilizing the estimated monthly average concentrations, at a 26 km  $\times$  26 km spatial resolution (downscaled from a original 50 km  $\times$  50 km resolution using bi-liear interpolation), from the Danish Eulerian Hemispheric Model (DEHM) back to 1990 (44). Predicted modelling exposure data from DEHM provided complete database to perform harmonious back-extrapolation for all four pollutants, whereas routine AirBase monitoring data were less consistent, not available for BC and only available from around 2008 for  $PM_2$ , We back-extrapolated pollutant concentrations for cohorts with available information on residential history, using both a difference method and a ratio method with 2010 as the reference year.

#### **Mortality outcome definition**

We identified mortality outcomes based on the linkage to the mortality registries, in which death certificates for the underlying cause of death were recorded. Cause of death was coded with the International Classification of Diseases (ICD)-9 and ICD-10 classification of diseases. We analysed mortality using three definitions of respiratory infectious diseases: ALRI (ICD-9: 480-486, 466; ICD-10: J12-J18, J20-J22), pneumonia (ICD-9: 480-486; ICD-10: J12-J18), and influenza (ICD-9: 487-488; ICD-10: J09-J11). We defined three outcomes: pneumonia and influenza combined, ALRI, and pneumonia only.

#### **Statistical Analysis**

We applied Cox proportional hazards models with age as the underlying timescale (45) to examine the associations between long-term air pollution exposure and three mortality outcomes (pneumonia and influenza combined, ALRI, and pneumonia), following the general ELAPSE analytical framework (46). Censoring occurred at the time of event of interest, death from other causes, emigration, loss to follow-up, or the end of follow-up (that ranges from 2011 to 2015 depending on the sub-cohorts), whichever came first. The start of follow-up was the year of enrolment which varied from the early 1990s to the early 2000s (Table E2). Air pollution exposure was included as a linear term. The associations were examined using three models including *a priori* defined individual and area-level covariates: Model 1 included age (time axis), sex (strata), sub-cohort (strata), and year of enrollement; Model 2 further included smoking status (never, former, current), smoking duration (years) for current smokers, smoking intensity (linear and squared term; cigarettes/day) for current smokers, body mass index (BMI, categories: <18.5, 18.5–24.9, 25.0–29.9, and  $\geq$  30 kg/m<sup>2</sup>), marital status (married/cohabiting, divorced/separated, single, widowed), and employment status (employed/self-employed, other); and Model 3 (main model) further adjusted for area-level socio-economic status (SES): mean income in 2001. We determined Model 2 and 3 by balancing the need to adjust for a comprehensive set of covariates and the availability of covariates across eight cohorts. Only participants with complete exposure and covariates information on Model 3 were included in the analyses to ensure comparability among the model results.

 To investigate whether associations persisted at low-level exposures, we performed subset analyses using Model 3 by excluding participants with exposure levels above certain predefined values (40, 30, 20  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>; 25, 20, 15, 12  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for PM<sub>2.5</sub>; 3, 2.5, 2, 1.5 10<sup>-5</sup>m<sup>-1</sup> for BC; and 120, 100, 80  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for O<sub>3</sub>), partially based on existing the EU and US limit values and the 2005 WHO guidelines. We did not conduct subset analysis for  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  exposures below the 2005 WHO guidelines of 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> as only 54 deaths were observed resulting in a noninformative effect estimate. We modelled pollutants as natural cubic splines with two degrees of freedom in Model 3 to assess the shape of the concentration-response functions for the associations, and tested for the deviation of linearity by comparing with linear models using likelihood ratio test. We assessed potential effect modification on the associations by age (<70,

 $\geq$ 70 years old), overweight status (BMI  $\geq$  25 kg/m<sup>2</sup> or not), smoking status, and employment status by including an interaction term into Model 3 tested by the Wald test. In addition, we performed two-pollutant models in Model 3 to disentangle the effect of individual pollutants.

We performed several sensitivity analyses to examine the robustness of the associations. At first, we compared the result and model performance (assess by AIC-Akaike Information Criteria) in Model 3 with alternative models using different adjustment approaches for subcohorts: without adjustment, indicator variables, a frailty term, and a random intercept under a mixed Cox model. Secondly, we compared the results of year 2010 exposure in Model 3 with results of back-extrapolated baseline year exposures and time-varying annual exposures. Timevarying analyses were performed for cohorts with available information on residential address history, including CEANS, DCH, EPIC-NL, and VHM&PP, with 1-year strata of calendar time to account for time trends in air pollution and mortality. We also compared effect estimates in Model 3 in different datasets by excluding one cohort each time. Finally, we applied multiple imputation by chained equations (MICE) to fill in missing covariate values in Model 3 (47), and calculated the combined effect estimates from five imputed complete datasets using the Rubin's rules (48), following the same ELAPSE analytical procedure (49).

 The results are presented as hazard ratios (HR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for increases of 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>, 5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, 0.5 10<sup>-5</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> for BC, and 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for O<sub>3</sub>. All statistical analyses were performed in R software (version 3.4.0).

#### **Results**

The pooled cohort included 381,036 participants. Of those, 55,669 participants with missing covariate data in Model 3 were then excluded. Study locations and population proportion for eight included cohorts in our study were shown in Figure E1. Of 325,367 remained participants in the final analyses, 712 died from pneumonia and influenza combined, 695 from ALRI, 682

from pneumonia, and 30 from influenza, during a mean follow-up of 19.5 years (Table 1 and Table E2). The VHM&PP was the largest cohort, accounting for 44.4% of the population (Figure E1). Baseline characteristics of participants varied widely across sub-cohorts (Table 1), supporting the use of strata for sub-cohorts to adjust for differences in baseline hazard. The mean age was 48.7 years, ranging from 42.1 in VHM&PP to 72.9 in CEANS-SNACK. The majority of participants (66%) were female, as three cohorts/sub-cohorts were female-only by design (DNC, E3N, and EPIC-NL-Prospect). The proportion of current smokers ranged from 13% in E3N to 37% in DNC-1993. Almost half of participants (43%) were overweight, with the highest proportion (74%) in HNR and the lowest (21%) in E3N.

 Figure 1 represents the distribution of air pollution levels by cohorts and sub-cohorts in 2010. The exposure distributions varied between cohorts with the lowest concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and BC in Nordic cohorts (CEANS, DCH, and DNC). Almost all participants were exposed to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  levels (95.5%) below the 2005 WHO guidelines and EU limit value of 40 μg/m<sup>3</sup>, and to PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels (99.99%) below the EU limit value of 25 μg/m<sup>3</sup>. Further, the concentration of  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  in CEANS cohort was below the 2005 WHO guidelines and US limit values of 10 and 12  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively (Figure 1). We also observed varying exposure levels across cohorts and sub-cohorts for the baseline year exposure in Figure E2. Comparing with the 2010 exposure, the concentrations of  $PM_{2.5}$  were much higher at baseline, and smaller differences were observed for other pollutants. Pearson correlations between  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and BC were moderate to high in sub-cohorts  $(0.67-0.93)$  except for in CEANS-SNACK  $(0.43;$  Table E3).  $PM_{2.5}$  was moderately correlated with exposure to BC and  $NO_2$  in most sub-cohorts, and  $O_3$ was negatively correlated with other pollutants in all sub-cohorts, having high correlations with  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and BC in some sub-cohorts (Table E3).

 NO2 and BC were associated with 10-12% increases in respiratory infectious diseases mortality, but 95% confidence intervals (CI) included unity (Table 2). Specifically, in the fully

adjusted Model 3, a 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> increase in NO<sub>2</sub> was associated with increased risks of pneumonia and influenza combined mortality (HR=1.12;  $95\%$  CI: 0.99-1.26), ALRI mortality (1.10; 0.98–1.24), and pneumonia mortality  $(1.11; 0.99–1.26)$ . The corresponding estimates for BC for each  $0.5 \times 10^{-5}$ m<sup>-1</sup> increase were 1.10 (0.97–1.24), 1.08 (0.96–1.22), and 1.09 (0.97–1.24), respectively. Associations with  $PM_{2.5}$  and  $O_3$  had wider confidence intervals and were closer to unity. In two-pollutant models, positive associations with  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and BC were robust to adjustment for either  $PM_{2.5}$  or  $O_3$ . The associations with BC were attenuated to null, while the associations with  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  were enhanced, when adjusting for each other (Table E4).

Associations of both  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $BC$  with pneumonia and influenza combined mortality did not change below predefined cutoffs (Table 3), but confidence intervals became wide at the lower cutoffs for which few cases remained. There was no evidence of a threshold for these two pollutants (Figure 2). For  $PM_{2.5}$ , the association was non-linear with a wide confidence interval (Table 3 and Figure 2), where we found a positive association at lower levels (below 15 μg/m<sup>3</sup>) and no association at higher cutoff levels (below 25 μg/m<sup>3</sup>; Table 3), resulting in an overall inverted U-shaped relationship with a significant deviation from linearity  $(p=0.03)$ ; Figure 2). We described characteristics of participants in different sub-cohorts by  $PM_{2.5}$  levels below or above 15  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, and did not observe significant differences within each sub-cohort (Table E5). However, the majority of participants (74% to 100%) in the three Nordic cohorts (CEANS, DCH, DNC) were exposed to  $PM_{2.5}$  levels below 15  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, in contrast to other cohorts (0.02% to 37%) (Table E5 and Figure 1). Additionally, in the three Nordic cohorts, we found a positive linear slope of exposure-response function between  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  and pneumonia and influenza combined mortality, and a negative linear slope for the other cohorts (Figure E3). The non-linear relationship for  $PM_{2.5}$  could be due to an unequal distribution of sub-cohorts at the range of  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations. Associations with  $O_3$  were negative and linear (Figure 2).

 We observed that the associations between pneumonia and influenza combined mortality with  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $BC$  were stronger in participants who were overweight as compared to normal weight participants (p-value for interaction=0.02 for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and 0.10 for BC), in current smokers as compared to former and never smokers (p-value= $0.17$  for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $0.07$  for BC), and in employed participants as compared to non-employed (p-value=0.29 for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and 0.08 for BC) (Table 4). Due to the non-linear relationship for  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  we did not consider the significant effect modificion results with this pollutant.

 The associations for all pollutants were robust to different sensitivity analyses. We found similar effect estimates, except for BC and  $O_3$  with no adjustment method, and the best model performance with strata when comparing models with different approaches to adjust for subcohorts (Figure E4). The effect estimates were somewhat attenuated when using either backextrapolated baseline year exposures (Table E6), or time-varying exposures (Table E7). The associations were unaffected after appling multiple imputation, as well as by excluding each cohort separately, except for DCH, where attenuation of associations to unity was observed (Table E8).

# **Discussion**

In this pooled analysis of 325,367 adults from eight European cohorts, we found that long-term exposure to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and BC were associated with 10-12% increases in ALRI mortality, which was mainly driven by pneumonia mortality. Confidence intervals were wide, however, and just included unity. We present novel findings that overweight, current smoking and employment may increase susceptibility to adverse effects of air pollution on risk of dying from respiratory infection diseases. The associations persisted at low-level concentrations, with no evidence of a threshold. Associations with  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  and  $O<sub>3</sub>$  were closer to unity with wider confidence intervals.

Our results on long-term exposure to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and pneumonia related mortality are in accordance with current evidence. Seven previous studies investigated the association of longterm exposure to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  with pneumonia or pneumonia and influenza combined mortality (Table E1), and all (8, 17, 19, 23, 24, 26) but one (25) reported positive associations. Five of these studies (19, 23-26) were included in a recent WHO systematic review, reporting a pooled estimate of 1.06 (1.02–1.10) per 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> increase (15), somewhat smaller than our estimate of 1.12 (0.99–1.26). Our study is the first to detect positive associations between long-term exposure to BC and pneumonia related mortality, with an HR of  $1.10$  (0.97–1.24) per 0.5 10- $5m<sup>-1</sup>$ , which is in contrast to a single other study (25). Our results on NO<sub>2</sub> and BC, combining with previous findings, suggest that air pollution from fossil fuel combustion sources (such as motorised traffic) may be most relevant to increased susceptibility to infectious lung diseases mortality.

For  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ , most previous studies reported positive associations with pneumonia mortality (18, 22, 24, 26) or pneumonia and influenza combined mortality (17, 19-21). In our study, one reason for the lack of a positive association with  $PM_{2.5}$  is the non-linear exposure-response function, with a positive slope at  $PM_{2.5}$  levels below 15  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> and a negative slope above 15 μg/m<sup>3</sup> . Comparisons of exposure-response functions with other studies are limited, as only a few provided these. Pinault et al. found a sub-linear curve for the association of  $PM_{2.5}$  with pneumonia mortality in the Canadian Census Health and Environment Cohort study (22). Burnett et al. reported a near-linear exposure–response relationship for lower respiratory infection mortality and  $PM_{2.5}$  using data from 41 cohorts (50). In contrast, Bowe et al. estimated the burden of death from pneumonia due to  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  using non-linear exposure-response function models in a cohort study of US veterans (51). In our study, the findings of an inverted U-shaped exposure-response curve for  $PM_{2.5}$  is difficult to interpret because  $PM_{2.5}$  levels in three Nordic cohorts (mainly below 15  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>) showed a positive linear association (Figure E3).

Evidence on long-term exposure to  $O_3$  and pneumonia mortality shows mixed results. Three US studies based on Medicare data (16), NIH-AARP Diet and Health Study (17), and Cancer Prevention Study II (CPS-II) (19) all detected positive associations, whereas a national English cohort reported negative associations (HR= $0.84$ ; 0.73– $0.97$ , per 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> increase) (26). Notably, the UK study used annual mean  $O<sub>3</sub>$  levels, while all three US studies reported associations with warm season  $O_3$ , of which two studies also investigated annual  $O_3$  and one observed associations with annual mean  $O_3$  (19) but the other one did not (17). In our study, we have not found clear explanations for the inverse exposure-response function for  $O_3$ . One explanation may be the small exposure contrasts within each sub-cohorts (Figure 1). Another explanation may be the generally low levels of  $O_3$  exposure (ranging from 36 to 116  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>) in our study, as a previous study suggested a possible threshold of 56 ppb (around 110  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>) for the effect of warm season  $O_3$  on mortality (52). The inverse relationship with  $O_3$  could also be due to the strong negative correlations for  $O_3$  with  $NO_2$  and  $BC$  in some sub-cohorts (Table E3), we thus need to be cautious in interpreting the two-pollutant results for  $O_3$ . Notably, we examined the sssociations with warm season  $O_3$  estimated from the DEHM dispersion models, which were at a much lower spatial resolution of  $50 \times 50$  km than the resolution in the ELAPSE models of  $100 \times 100$  m. By using the DEHM dispersion models, we found a positive association of  $O_3$  with pneumonia and influenza combined mortality, with a HR of 1.29 (0.98, 1.70), based on 323,888 participants and 709 deaths, which was in line with the several earlier studies (16, 17, 19). Overall, more research on the effects of long-term exposure to low-levels of  $O_3$  on pneumonia-related mortality is needed.

 We present novel findings of potential susceptibility of overweight participants and smokers, and those who are employed in showing stronger associations with dying from respiratory infections. There are no other studies that explored effect modification of the association between air pollution and infectious disease mortality, so we draw some

comparisons with studies on chronic respiratory disease mortality and COVID-19 (viral respiratory infectious disease). Results on smoking are in agreement with Beelen et al. who reported stronger associations of respiratory mortality with black smoke in current smokers in the NLCS-AIR study, though without reaching statistically significant interaction  $(p=0.11)$  (53). Hamer et al. in UK Biobank study found that smokers and obese people had elevated risks of COVID-19 hospital admission compared to never smokers and healthy weight participants as references, respectively (54). Yang et al. found that participants with high BMI ( $\geq 26.3 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) had higher risks for respiratory mortality related to exposure to  $PM_{2.5}$  and BC (25). A recent study proposed a hypothesis that obesity, acting as an effect modifier of air pollution-induced lung injury, could play a role in the relationship between exposure to air pollution and COVID-19 severity (55). Plausible mechanisms for how overweight/obesity and smoking can enhance risks of infection due to air pollution, may be underlying depletion of anti-oxidative stress capacity and impairment of immune defenses (10, 13). Our results on higher susceptibility of employed as compared to unemployed participants may reflect higher risks of infection related to contact with more people, at work or transport to and from work, in employed participants.

 The main strength of our study is the pooled data from eight European cohorts allowing for investigating mortality from lower respiratory infections, a rather rare outcome, as well as detailed information on individual and area-level potential confounders. However, the number of deaths from respiratory infections was still small in this large population, resulting in wide confidence intervals. Another strength of this study is the harmonized exposure data based on the Europe-wide hybrid LUR models at a fine spatial scale, especially for data on BC, facilitating just the second study on this pollutant with pneumonia mortality. One limitation of this study is the use of exposure data for year 2010 at the baseline of the cohorts recruited in 1990s and early 2000s, due to lack of monitoring stations for  $PM_{2.5}$  in Europe prior to 2010. However, a study reported stable spatial distribution of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  over 10 years in the Netherlands

(56). Similarly, in our study the predictions from 2010 model were highly correlated ( $R^2 > 76\%$ ) with 2000 and 2005 models for  $NO_2$  and  $O_3$ , and 2013 model for  $PM_{2.5}$  at the European scale (43), indicating limited impacts of temporal misalignment by exposures based on the year 2010. In sensitivity analyses, we also observed that associations were insensitive to either using backextrapolated baseline year exposures (Table E6) or time-varying exposures for four cohorts with address history information (Table E7). We therefore assume that the chosen approach to exposure assessment yields reasonable accurate estimates for included study regions and pollutants, while acknowledging some degrees of exposure misclassification. The potential for exposure misclassification also exists when using modelled exposures at the residential address and ignoring time spent outdoors and commuting to work, which are inevitably not equivalent to personal exposure from outdoor sources, as well as relatively moderate model performance  $(R<sup>2</sup> = 0.59$  and 0.54) for NO<sub>2</sub> and BC in our LUR models. Additionally, we mostly evaluated associations with exposure contrasts within sub-cohorts due to the use of strata for sub-cohorts in analyses. We did not adjust for spatial contrasts in long-term exposure to high or low temperatures, because such contrasts are absent within most of our single city-based cohorts. Spatial variation in temperature is occasionally, but not usually included in analyses of longterm effects of air pollution on all-cause and cause-specific (including respiratory) mortality and morbidity. An early study found no association between annual mean temperature and pneumonia admissions among the elderly (57), including all admissions and all US counties over the 1984-1989 period. In a recent nationwide study on air pollution and mortality, Di et al. found that effect estimates for  $PM_{2.5}$  and  $O_3$  were insensitive to adjustment for annual mean temperature and relative humidity (58). Removal of the two nationwide cohorts (E3N and DCH) furthermore made no difference. We also lacked the information on influenza vaccinations, which could be a confounder for association between air pollution and pneumonia and influenza related mortality. We do not have information on the differences in ICD coding

instructions between cohorts and study periods. Finally, we acknowledge that the large number of analyses, including main, subset, two-pollutant, effect-modification models and a number of sensitivity analyses, may result in a risk of some false discoveries. We did not apply procedures such as Bonferroni corrections to redefine statistical significance, as we focus on the size of the effect estimates and not on statistical significance.

 In conclusion, our findings from the ELAPSE pooled cohort provide suggestive evidence that long-term exposure to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and BC may increase the risk of mortality from pneumonia and related infectious diseases in adults, and suggest that overweight, current smoking, and employed participants may be especially vulnerable.

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Tjønneland A, Verschuren WMM, Vienneau D, Wolf K, Katsouyanni K, Brunekreef B, Hoek G, Samoli E. Long term exposure to low level air pollution and mortality in eight European cohorts within the ELAPSE project: pooled analysis. *BMJ (Clinical research ed)* 2021; 374: n1904.

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# **Figure 1. Distribution of annual average concentrations of air pollution for the year 2010 by cohorts and sub-cohorts (N=325,367).**

The bold lines in the middle of the box indicate the median values (the 50<sup>th</sup> percentile). The lower and upper hinges correspond to the  $25<sup>th</sup>$  and  $75<sup>th</sup>$  percentiles. The lower and upper whiskers extend to the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles.

Red dotted dash lines represent different limited values in the EU, U.S., and 2005 WHO guidelines. For  $PM_{2.5}$ , they indicate the annual average limited/guideline values of WHO (2005) version; 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>), U.S. (12  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>), and EU (25  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>). For NO<sub>2</sub>, they indicate the annual average limited/guideline values of WHO (2005 version) and EU (40  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>), and WHO HRAPIE (health risks of air pollution in Europe) (20  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>).

 $O<sub>3</sub>$  was in the warm season from April 1 through September 30.

Definition of abbreviation:  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ , particulate matters with aerodynamic diameters of less than 2.5  $\mu$ m; NO<sub>2</sub>, nitrogen dioxide; BC, black carbon; O<sub>3</sub>, ozone.

# **Figure 2. Concentration-response curves for the associations between long-term exposure to air pollution and pneumonia and influenza mortality.**

Natural cubic splines with two degrees of freedom were fit for air pollutants based on Model 3, with hazard ratios set equal to one for the minimum pollutant exposures.

Solid black lines indicate hazard ratio values and black dashed lines indicate their 95% confidence intervals. Green dotted lines indicate the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles of air pollutants' concentrations. Red dotted dash lines represent different limited/guideline values in EU, U.S., and WHO (2005 version). X-axes are truncated at 60  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> and 3 10<sup>-5</sup>m<sup>-1</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub> and BC.

Cohort/sub-		Deaths,	Follow-		Female	<b>Current</b>	<b>Smoking</b>	<b>Smoking</b>	Over	Married/	<b>Employed</b>	Mean		
cohort	${\bf N}$			N§	up time,	Age, years	$(\%)$	smokers	duration,	intensity,	weight	cohabiting	$(\%)$	income,
			years			$(\%)$	years*	$n/day*$	$(\%)\phi$	$(\%)$		euro†		
<b>Pooled Cohort</b>	325,367	712	19.5	$48.7 \pm 13.4$	66	24	$6.2 \pm 12.7$	$3.7 \pm 7.8$	43	$72\,$	70	$20.1 \pm 5.8$		
<b>CEANS</b>	20,702	43	13.0	$56.3 \pm 11.4$	58	22	$7.5 \pm 14.9$	$2.9 \pm 6.5$	51	$72\,$	69	$25.3 \pm 5.6$		
<b>SDPP</b>	7,727	$\mathbf{0}$	15.9	$47.1 \pm 4.9$	61	26	$7.4 \pm 13.0$	$3.6 \pm 7.1$	52	84	91	$24.3 \pm 4.2$		
<b>SIXTY</b>	3,969	6	15.5	$60.0 \pm 0.0$	52	21	$7.7 \pm 15.5$	$2.8 \pm 6.5$	65	74	68	$24.7 \pm 6.9$		
<b>SALT</b>	6,176	15	10.4	$57.8 \pm 10.6$	55	21	$8.0 \pm 16.1$	$2.7 \pm 6.4$	40	68	64	$25.3 \pm 6.6$		
<b>SNACK</b>	2,830	22	7.4	72.9±10.4	62	14	$6.2 \pm 16.0$	$1.7 + 5.2$	53	46	23	$28.7 \pm 2.2$		
<b>DCH</b>	53,647	157	18.2	$56.7 \pm 4.4$	52	36	$13.2 \pm 18.1$	$6.0 + 9.6$	56	$72\,$	78	$20.2 \pm 3.4$		
<b>DNC</b>	25,171	113	17.3	$53.5 \pm 8.3$	100	35	$10.5 \pm 15.5$	$4.8 \pm 8.1$	29	$70\,$	78	$19.1 \pm 2.5$		
1993	17,043	108	18.7	$56.2 \pm 8.4$	100	37	$11.8 \pm 16.4$	$5.2 \pm 8.4$	28	68	70	$19.2 \pm 2.6$		
1999	8,128	5	14.4	47.9±4.2	100	29	$7.8 \pm 12.8$	$3.8 \pm 7.2$	30	76	95	$19.0 \pm 2.4$		
E3N	39,006	18	16.7	$53.0 \pm 6.8$	100	13	$3.7 \pm 10.0$	$1.5 \pm 5.1$	21	83	68	$11.2 \pm 3.0$		
<b>EPIC-NL</b>	32,872	55	16.7	$49.5 \pm 11.9$	75	29	$8.5 \pm 14.5$	$4.4 \pm 8.3$	52	70	61	$12.6 \pm 1.6$		
Morgen	18,302	19	16.8	42.9±11.2	55	35	$8.6 \pm 13.3$	$5.5 \pm 9.0$	50	65	69	$12.2 \pm 1.6$		
Prospect	14,570	36	16.4	$57.7 \pm 6.1$	100	23	$8.4 \pm 15.9$	$3.1 \pm 7.1$	55	77	51	$13.1 \pm 1.4$		
<b>HNR</b>	4,733	11	12.0	$59.7 \pm 7.8$	50	24	$8.1 \pm 15.3$	$4.4 \pm 9.8$	74	75	40	$25.2 \pm 8.2$		
<b>KORA</b>	4,853	26	14.3	49.4±13.9	51	21	$5.3 \pm 11.5$	$3.5 \pm 8.0$	68	$80\,$	57	$37.3 \pm 6.0$		
S <sub>3</sub>	2,572	15	15.6	49.4±13.9	51	20	$5.1 \pm 11.5$	$3.3 \pm 7.9$	67	80	55	$36.7 + 4.4$		
S <sub>4</sub>	2,281	11	12.9	$49.3 \pm 13.8$	51	23	$5.6 \pm 11.6$	$3.6 \pm 8.0$	69	79	59	$38.0 \pm 7.3$		
<b>VHM&amp;PP</b>	144,383	289	23.1	$42.1 \pm 15.0$	56	20	$2.7 \pm 6.5$	$3.1 \pm 7.4$	43	69	70	$22.9 \pm 1.7$		

**Table 1. Baseline demographic characteristics of participants by the pooled cohort, cohorts and sub-cohorts.**

Results of participants' characteristics at baseline are presented as Mean ± SD, Number, or Percentage.

\*: Smoking duration and smoking intensity are only for current smokers. We set these variable to zero for never and former smokers.

 $\phi$ : BMI  $\geq$  25 kg/m<sup>2</sup> indicates overweight according to the World Health Organization (WHO) categories.

 $\ddot{\tau}$ : Area-level mean year income in euros  $\times$  1,000 in the year 2001. The spatial scale of an area varied from neighborhoods and city districts

(CEANS, E3N, EPIC-NL, and HNR) to municipalities (DNC, DCH, KORA, and VHM&PP).

§: The number of deaths of pneumonia and influenza combined.

Definition of abbreviation: BMI, body mass index; SD, standard deviation.

**Table 2. Associations between long-term air pollution exposure and specific respiratory infection mortality (N=325,367).**

	Model 1*	Model 2*	Model 3*	Model $3\phi$
	Pneumonia and Influenza (712 deaths)			
NO <sub>2</sub>	1.12(1.00, 1.26)	1.06(0.94, 1.19)	1.12(0.99, 1.26)	1.12(0.99, 1.26)
$PM_{2.5}$	0.96(0.80, 1.15)	0.92(0.77, 1.11)	0.96(0.80, 1.15)	0.96(0.81, 1.13)
BC	1.11(0.99, 1.25)	1.05(0.93, 1.19)	1.10(0.97, 1.24)	1.10(0.97, 1.24)
$O_3$	0.86(0.73, 1.01)	0.94(0.79, 1.11)	0.92(0.78, 1.09)	0.89(0.71, 1.13)
	Acute lower respiratory infection (695 deaths)			
NO <sub>2</sub>	1.11(0.99, 1.25)	1.05(0.93, 1.18)	1.10(0.98, 1.24)	1.10(0.98, 1.24)
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	0.94(0.78, 1.13)	0.90(0.75, 1.09)	0.93(0.78, 1.12)	0.94(0.80, 1.11)
BC	1.10(0.98, 1.24)	1.04(0.92, 1.17)	1.08(0.96, 1.22)	1.08(0.96, 1.22)
$O_3$	0.88(0.75, 1.04)	0.96(0.81, 1.14)	0.95(0.80, 1.12)	0.93(0.73, 1.17)
Pneumonia (682 deaths)				
NO <sub>2</sub>	1.12(1.00, 1.26)	1.06(0.94, 1.19)	1.11(0.99, 1.26)	1.12(0.99, 1.26)
$PM_{2.5}$	0.94(0.78, 1.13)	0.90(0.75, 1.09)	0.93(0.77, 1.12)	0.94(0.79, 1.11)
BC	1.11(0.99, 1.26)	1.05(0.93, 1.19)	1.09(0.97, 1.24)	1.09(0.97, 1.24)
$O_3$	0.86(0.73, 1.02)	0.94(0.80, 1.11)	0.92(0.78, 1.09)	0.89(0.70, 1.14)

Model 1 adjusted for age (time axis), sex (strata), sub-cohort (strata), and calendar year of baseline; Model 2 additionally adjusted for smoking (status, duration, intensity, and intensity<sup>2</sup>), BMI (category), marital status, and employment status;

Model 3 further adjusted for area-level mean year income.

\*: Results are presented as hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval [HR (95%CI)] for the following increases: 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>, 5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, 0.5 10<sup>-5</sup>m<sup>-1</sup> for BC and 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for  $O_3$ .

 $\phi$ : Results are presented for interquartile range (IQR) increases: 10.2  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>, 4.5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for  $PM_{2.5}$ , 0.5 10<sup>-5</sup>m<sup>-1</sup> for BC and 14.1  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for O<sub>3</sub>.

	<b>Cut-off levels</b>	<b>Number of</b>	<b>Number of</b>	
<b>Pollutants</b>		participants	deaths	<b>HR (95%CI)</b>
NO <sub>2</sub>				
	All levels	325,367	712	1.12(0.99, 1.26)
	$< 40 \mu g/m^3$	310,643	682	1.11(0.97, 1.26)
	$<$ 30 µg/m <sup>3</sup>	247,039	517	1.07(0.88, 1.30)
	$< 20 \mu g/m^3$	88,510	172	1.12(0.67, 1.87)
PM <sub>2.5</sub>				
	All levels	325,367	712	0.96(0.80, 1.15)
	$< 25 \mu g/m^3$	325,339	711	0.94(0.78, 1.13)
	$< 20 \mu g/m^3$	316,540	704	0.96(0.80, 1.15)
	$< 15 \mu g/m3$	151,250	393	1.33(0.88, 2.00)
	$< 12 \mu g/m^3$	52,528	128	1.14(0.42, 3.10)
<b>BC</b>				
	All levels	325,367	712	1.10(0.97, 1.24)
	$<$ 3 10 <sup>-5</sup> m <sup>-1</sup>	324,757	711	1.08(0.96, 1.23)
	$< 2.5$ 10 <sup>-5</sup> m <sup>-1</sup>	320,632	709	1.10(0.97, 1.25)
	$< 2$ 10 <sup>-5</sup> m <sup>-1</sup>	296,371	666	1.11(0.96, 1.28)
	$< 1.5$ 10 <sup>-5</sup> m <sup>-1</sup>	142,032	335	1.17(0.89, 1.53)
$\mathbf{O}_3$				
	All levels	325,367	712	0.92(0.78, 1.09)
	$< 120 \mu g/m^3$	325,367	712	0.92(0.78, 1.09)
	$< 100 \text{ µg/m}^3$	320,522	709	0.93(0.79, 1.11)
	$< 80 \mu g/m^3$	98,840	268	0.91(0.68, 1.21)

**Table 3. Associations between long-term air pollution exposure and pneumonia and influenza mortality below various cut-off values in Model 3.**



**Table 4. Effect modification on the association between year 2010 exposure and pneumonia and influenza mortality by baseline** 

**characteristics.** 

Results are presented as hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval [HR (95%CI)] for the following increases: 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>, 5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for PM<sub>2.5</sub>,

0.5 10<sup>-5</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> for BC and 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for O<sub>3</sub>.

Effect modification analyses were conducted based on Model 3 and evaluated by introducing interaction terms. *P* values for whether there were statistically significant differences between strata were tested by the Wald test.

\*: A statistically significant *P* value (at 5% level) for effect modification analyses.

 $\phi$ : BMI  $\geq$  25 kg/m<sup>2</sup> indicates overweight according to WHO categories. Employed status includes employed and self-employed.



**Figure 1. Distribution of annual average concentrations of air pollution for the year 2010 by cohorts and sub-cohorts (N=325,367).**

The bold lines in the middle of the box indicate the median values (the 50<sup>th</sup> percentile). The lower and upper hinges correspond to the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles. The lower and upper whiskers extend to the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles.

Red dotted dash lines represent different limited values in the EU, U.S., and 2005 WHO guidelines. For  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ , they indicate the annual average limited/guideline values of WHO (2005) version; 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>), U.S. (12  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>), and EU (25  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>). For NO<sub>2</sub>, they indicate the annual average limited/guideline values of WHO (2005 version) and EU (40  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>), and WHO HRAPIE (health risks of air pollution in Europe) (20  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>).

O3 was in the warm season from April 1 through September 30.

Definition of abbreviation:  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ , particulate matters with aerodynamic diameters of less than

2.5  $\mu$ m; NO<sub>2</sub>, nitrogen dioxide; BC, black carbon; O<sub>3</sub>, ozone.





Natural cubic splines with two degrees of freedom were fit for air pollutants based on Model 3, where the hazard ratios equal to one were for minimum pollutant exposures.

Solid black lines indicate hazard ratio values and black dashed lines indicate their 95% confidence intervals. Green dotted lines indicate the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles of air pollutants' concentrations. Red dotted dash lines represent different limited values in EU, U.S., and 2005 WHO guidelines. The histograms show the distributions of exposures in 2010. X-axes are truncated at 60  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> and 3 10<sup>-5</sup>m<sup>-1</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub> and BC.

# **Long-term Air Pollution Exposure and Pneumonia Related Mortality in a Large Pooled European Cohort**

### **Running head: the ELAPSE project**

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# **Online Data Supplement.**



# **Table E1. An overview of studies on air pollution and pneumonia related mortality in adults.**



Definition of abbreviation:  $PM_{2.5}$ , particulate matters with aerodynamic diameters of less than 2.5  $\mu$ m; NO<sub>2</sub>, nitrogen dioxide; O<sub>3</sub>, ozone.



**Figure E1. Map of study locations and proportion of study population for eight cohorts included in our study (source: map is from Strak et al. 2021; doi: 10.1136/bmj.n1904).**



Cohort/sub-	Population		<b>Enrolmen</b>	End of	Mean age	Mean age		Deaths, $N$ (rate) $\phi$			
cohort	size*	N#	ted year	follow-up	at baseline	at end of	Pneumonia	<b>ALRI</b>	Pneumonia	<b>Study area</b>	
						follow-up	and Influenza				
<b>Pooled Cohort</b>	381,036	325,367			48.7	68.2	712(11.2)	695 $(11.0)$	682(10.8)	Eight cohorts in six countries	
<b>CEANS</b>	21,987	20,702			56.3	69.3	43(16.0)	42(15.6)	42(15.6)		
<b>SDPP</b>	7,835	7,727	1992-1998	2011	47.1	63.0	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)		
<b>SIXTY</b>	4,180	3,969	1997-1999	2014	60.0	75.5	6(9.8)	5(8.2)	5(8.2)	Stockholm county,	
<b>SALT</b>	6,724	6,176	1998-2002	2011	57.8	68.2	15(23.4)	15(23.4)	15(23.4)	Sweden	
<b>SNACK</b>	3,248	2,830	2001-2004	2011	72.9	80.3	22(104.9)	22(104.9)	22 (104.9)		
<b>DCH</b>	56,308	53,647	1993-1997	2015	56.7	74.8	157(16.1)	153(15.7)	153(15.7)	Copenhagen and Aarhus, Denmark	
<b>DNC</b>	28,433	25,171			53.5	70.8	113(25.9)	111(25.5)	109(25.0)		
1993	19,664	17,043	1993	2013	56.2	74.9	108(33.9)	105(33.0)	104(32.7)	Denmark-wide	
1999	8,769	8,128	1999	2013	47.9	62.4	5(4.3)	6(5.1)	5(4.3)		
E3N	53,521	39,006	1989-1991	2011	53.0	69.7	18(2.8)	22(3.4)	16(2.5)	France-wide	
<b>EPIC-NL</b>	36,905	32,872			49.5	66.1	55 $(10.0)$	56(10.2)	54 (9.9)		
Morgen	20,711	18,302	1993-1997	2013	42.9	59.8	19(6.2)	20(6.5)	19(6.2)	Four cities, the	
Prospect	16,194	14,570	1993-1997	2013	57.7	74.1	36(15.0)	36(15.0)	35(14.6)	Netherlands	
<b>HNR</b>	4,809	4,733	2000-2003	2015	59.7	71.7	11(19.3)	11(19.3)	11(19.3)	Ruhr area, Germany	
<b>KORA</b>	8,823	4,853			49.4	63.7	26(37.4)	26(37.4)	26(37.4)	Augsburg area,	

**Table E2. Study characteristic of each sub-cohort with corresponding specific respiratory infection mortality rates.**



\*: Population size is the number of participants for which information was transferred to Utrecht University for construction of the pooled cohort.

#: N indicates the number participants included in our model analysis.

: Rate is crude mortality rate for the pooled cohort during the follow-up period, expressed in units of deaths per 100,000 participants per year.

Definition of abbreviation: ALRI, acute lower respiratory infection.

# **Figure E2. Description of air pollutants by cohorts and sub-cohorts for the year 2010 and the baseline years (N=325,342).**



The bold lines in the middle of the box indicate the median values (the 50<sup>th</sup> percentiles). The lower and upper hinges correspond to the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles. The lower and upper whiskers extend to the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles. Red dotted dash lines represent different limited/guideline values in the EU, U.S., and 2005 WHO guidelines.

The number of participants for available baseline exposures, which were back-extrapolated using ratio and difference methods, was 325,342. For comparison, we restricted the same participants for 2010 exposure in this graph.

Definition of abbreviation:  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ , particulate matters with aerodynamic diameters of less than 2.5  $\mu$ m; NO<sub>2</sub>, nitrogen dioxide; BC, black carbon; O<sub>3</sub>, ozone.

<b>Pollutants</b>	<b>Cohort</b>		$NO2$ $PM2.5$	<b>BC</b>	$\mathbf{O}_3$	Cohort		$NO2$ $PM2.5$	BC	$\mathbf{O}_3$
NO <sub>2</sub>	Pooled	$\mathbf{1}$				<b>CEANS-</b>	$\mathbf{1}$			
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	cohort	0.52	$\mathbf{1}$			<b>SALT</b>	0.67	$\overline{1}$		
BC		0.67	$0.80\,$	$\mathbf{1}$			0.84	0.55	$\mathbf{1}$	
$O_3$		$-0.61$	0.04	0.03	$\mathbf{1}$		$-0.74$	$-0.47$	$-0.76$	$\mathbf{1}$
NO <sub>2</sub>										
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	<b>CEANS-</b>	$\mathbf{1}$				<b>CEANS-</b>	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$		
<b>BC</b>	<b>SDPP</b>	0.60	$\mathbf{1}$			<b>SIXTY</b>	0.69			
$O_3$		0.67	0.49	$\mathbf{1}$			0.84	0.59	$\overline{1}$	
		$-0.70$		$-0.18 - 0.33$	$\mathbf{1}$		$-0.71$	$-0.44 -0.71$		$\mathbf{1}$
NO <sub>2</sub>		$\mathbf{1}$					$\mathbf{1}$			
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	<b>CEANS-</b>	0.75	$\mathbf{1}$			<b>DCH</b>	0.72	$\mathbf{1}$		
BC	<b>SNACK</b>	0.43	0.29	$\overline{1}$			0.91	0.66	$\overline{1}$	
$O_3$		$-0.66$		$-0.5 -0.74$	$\mathbf{1}$		$-0.61$		$-0.56 - 0.57$	$\mathbf{1}$
NO <sub>2</sub>		$\mathbf{1}$				DNC-	$\mathbf{1}$			
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	<b>DNC-1993</b>	0.64	$\mathbf{1}$			1999	0.61	$\overline{1}$		
<b>BC</b>		0.92	0.70	$\mathbf{1}$			0.93	0.64	$\mathbf{1}$	
$O_3$		$-0.42$	$-0.32$	$-0.42$	$\mathbf{1}$		$-0.21$	$-0.16$	$-0.20$	$\mathbf{1}$
NO <sub>2</sub>		$\mathbf{1}$				EPIC-	$\mathbf{1}$			
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	E3N	0.81	$\overline{1}$			$NL-$	0.22	$\overline{1}$		
BC		0.92	0.74	$\mathbf{1}$		<b>Morgen</b>	0.84	0.41	$\mathbf{1}$	
$O_3$		$-0.50$		$-0.49 - 0.38$	$\mathbf{1}$		$-0.78$	0.15	$-0.55$	$\mathbf{1}$
NO <sub>2</sub>	EPIC-NL-	$\overline{1}$					$\mathbf{1}$			
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Prospect	0.48	$\mathbf{1}$			<b>HRN</b>	0.65	$\mathbf{1}$		
$\rm BC$		0.91	0.41	$\mathbf{1}$			0.88	0.64	$\overline{1}$	
$O_3$		$-0.86$		$-0.43 -0.84$	$\mathbf{1}$		$-0.83$		$-0.66$ $-0.81$	$\mathbf{1}$

**Table E3. Pearson correlations between air pollutants for year 2010 exposure in the pooled cohort and sub-cohorts.** 



	<b>Model 3</b>	Model $3 + NO2$	Model $3 + PM_{2.5}$	Model $3 + BC$	Model $3 + O_3$
	Pneumonia and Influenza (712 deaths)				
NO <sub>2</sub>	1.12(0.99, 1.26)		1.21(1.05, 1.40)	1.17(0.89, 1.53)	1.14(0.97, 1.34)
$PM_{2.5}$	0.96(0.80, 1.15)	0.80(0.64, 1.01)		0.81(0.64, 1.02)	0.89(0.72, 1.10)
BC	1.10(0.97, 1.24)	0.95(0.72, 1.25)	1.19(1.02, 1.39)		1.10(0.94, 1.28)
$O_3$	0.92(0.78, 1.09)	1.04(0.84, 1.30)	0.87(0.72, 1.06)	1.00(0.81, 1.24)	
	Acute lower respiratory infection (695 deaths)				
NO <sub>2</sub>	1.10(0.98, 1.24)		1.20(1.04, 1.39)	1.15(0.88, 1.51)	1.13(0.97, 1.33)
$PM_{2.5}$	0.93(0.78, 1.12)	0.79(0.63, 0.99)		0.79(0.63, 1.00)	0.87(0.70, 1.08)
BC	1.08(0.96, 1.22)	0.95(0.72, 1.26)	1.19(1.02, 1.39)		1.09(0.93, 1.28)
$O_3$	0.95(0.80, 1.12)	1.06(0.85, 1.33)	0.89(0.73, 1.08)	1.02(0.83, 1.27)	
Pneumonia (682 deaths)					
NO <sub>2</sub>	1.11(0.99, 1.26)		1.23(1.06, 1.42)	1.17(0.89, 1.54)	1.14(0.97, 1.34)
$PM_{2.5}$	0.93(0.77, 1.12)	0.77(0.61, 0.97)		0.78(0.61, 0.99)	0.85(0.69, 1.06)
BC	1.09(0.97, 1.24)	0.95(0.71, 1.26)	1.21(1.04, 1.42)		1.09(0.93, 1.28)
$O_3$	0.92(0.78, 1.09)	1.04(0.83, 1.31)	0.86(0.71, 1.05)	1.00(0.80, 1.24)	

**Table E4. Associations between air pollution and specific respiratory infection mortality in two-pollutant models (N=325,367).**

Results are presented as hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval [HR (95%CI)] for the following increases: 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>, 5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for PM<sub>2.5</sub>,

0.5  $10^{-5}$ m<sup>-1</sup> for BC and 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for O<sub>3</sub>.

\*Two-pollutant results are difficult to interpret because of high correlations between  $NO_2$ , BC and  $O_3$  in some sub-cohorts and non-linear relationship for  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure.











Results are presented as Mean  $\pm$  SD for continuous variables and proportion (%) for categorical variables.

\*: The number of deaths of pneumonia and influenza.

: Smoking duration and smoking intensity are only for current smokers. We set these variable to zero for never and former smokers.

 $\#$ : BMI  $\geq$  25 kg/m<sup>2</sup> indicates overweight according to the World Health Organization (WHO) categories.

**†**: Area-level mean year income in euros × 1,000 in the year 2001. It is at municipality-level in 2001 for DCH and DNC and at neighbourhood/city district level in 1994 for CEANS.



**Figure E3. Associations between long-term exposure to PM2.5 and pneumonia and influenza combined mortality in different cohort groups based on Model 3.**

Natural cubic splines with two degrees of freedom were fit for concentration-response curves for the associations in different groups of cohorts, where the hazard ratios equal to one were for minimum exposures of  $PM_{2.5}$ . Left graph was for the cohorts of CEANS, DCH, and DNC, in which  $PM_{2.5}$  levels were almost all below 15  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>.

Solid black lines indicate hazard ratio values and black dashed lines indicate their 95% confidence intervals. The histograms show the distributions of exposures in 2010.

Results are presented as hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval [HR (95%CI)] for a 5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> increase for  $PM_{2.5}$ ,

**Figure E4. Comparing the results of different approaches for adjusting the heterogeneity between sub-cohorts based on the association with pneumonia and influenza mortality in Model 3.**



The green error bars are our main result in Models adjusted for sub-cohort with strata.

Results are presented as hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval [HR (95%CI)] for the following increases: 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>, 5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, 0.5 10<sup>-5</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> for BC and 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for  $O_3$ .

The Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) values for different approaches in models with  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ exposure were 13456.08 for no adjustment, 13372.25 for dummy variables, 11349.30 for strata, 13374.46 for a frailty term, and 13373.31 for a random intercept.



**Table E6. Associations between year 2010 exposure and back-extrapolated baseline year exposure and specific respiratory infection mortality in Model 3 (N=325,342).**

Results are presented as hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval [HR (95%CI)] for the following increments: 5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>, 0.5 10<sup>-5</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> for BC and 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for  $O_3$ .

**Table E7. Associations between time-varying annual exposure and specific respiratory infection mortality in four cohorts (CEANS, DCH, EPIC-NL, and VHM&PP; N=185,585) with available information based on Model 3.**



\*: Time-varying analyses were additionally adjusted for calendar year of follow-up (strata one year) based on Model 3 to account for secular time trend in respiratory infection mortality and air pollution.

Results are presented as hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval [HR (95%CI)] for the following increments: 5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>, 0.5 10<sup>-5</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> for BC and 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for  $O_3$ .



**Table E8. Results for sensitivity analysis of associations between year 2010 exposure and pneumonia and influenza mortality in Model 3.**

Results are presented as hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval [HR (95%CI)] for the following increments: 5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for

NO<sub>2</sub>, 0.5 10<sup>-5</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> for BC and 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> for O<sub>3</sub>.