

Supplementary material to *Estimating the health impact of air pollution in Scotland, and the resulting benefits of reducing concentrations in city centres*

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1 **Introduction**

2 This document contains supplementary analysis and results not included
3 in the main paper. Section 1 motivates the need for a locally adaptive spatial
4 autocorrelation model, while Section 2 illustrates the localised nature of the
5 spatial autocorrelation in the respiratory hospitalisation data. Section 3
6 presents the estimated relative risks and 95% credible intervals quantifying
7 the impact of the non-pollution covariates on disease risk, while Section 4
8 contains a sensitivity analysis, by presenting the estimated relative risks and
9 95% credible intervals quantifying the pollution-disease relationships from
10 the simpler model where the spatial random effects are modelled by the
11 globally smooth CAR prior proposed by [Leroux et al. \(2000\)](#). Finally, Section
12 5 presents the IZ level estimated reductions in respiratory hospitalisations
13 from a $5\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ decrease in NO_2 concentrations for Aberdeen and Dundee.

14 **1. Residual spatial autocorrelation structure**

15 Section 2.4 of the main paper illustrates that the residuals from applying
16 an overdispersed quasi-Poisson log-linear model to each disease outcome ex-
17 hibit spatial autocorrelation. However, these residuals visually exhibit local
18 rather than global smoothness, because whilst most pairs of spatially neigh-
19 bouring IZs exhibit similar residual values suggesting spatial autocorrelation,
20 there are numerous examples of large step-changes between spatially neigh-
21 bouring IZs suggesting independence. Figure 1 illustrates this, by presenting
22 maps of the residuals from the model applied to respiratory hospitalisations in
23 Edinburgh (top) and Glasgow (bottom). These cities are picked to illustrate
24 the localised nature of the spatial autocorrelation, but the same phenomenon
25 occurs throughout the study region. The figure shows numerous examples
26 where two spatially neighbouring IZs exhibit very different residual values,
27 suggesting there is a step-change in the residual surface. This in turn sug-
28 gests that modelling this residual structure with a spatially smooth set of
29 random effects would be inappropriate, because it would lead to an inflated
30 random effects variance and poorer model fit due to trying to smooth over
31 these step changes. A discussion of this issue is provided in [Rushworth et al.](#)
32 [\(2017\)](#).

33 **2. Localised spatial autocorrelation in the random effects**

34 To illustrate the localised nature of the spatial autocorrelation in the
35 random effects from the locally adaptive model, the estimated (posterior
36 medians) random effects ϕ_k are mapped in Figure 2 for Edinburgh (top)
37 and Glasgow (bottom). These cities are chosen to illustrate the localised

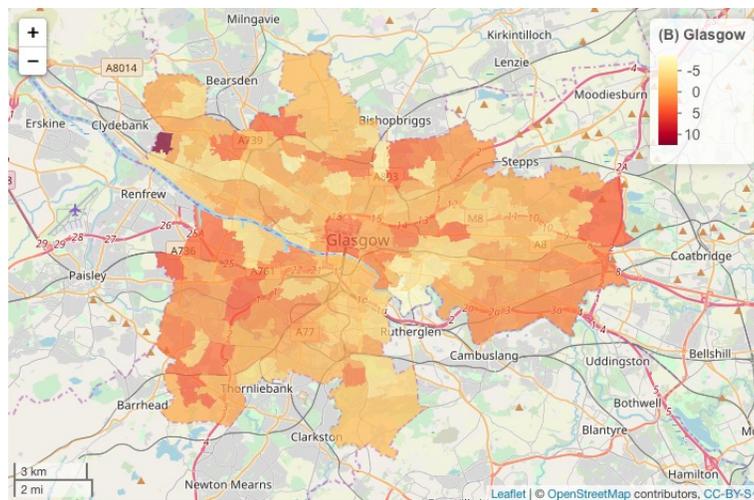
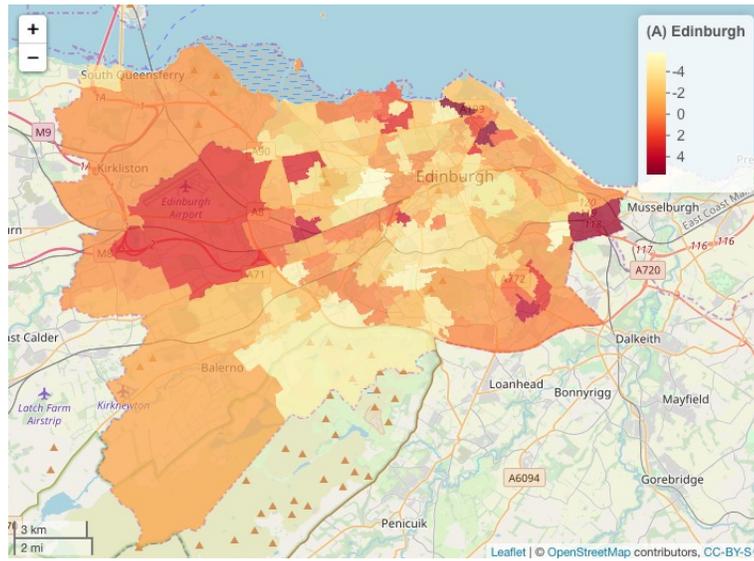


Figure 1: Maps of the residuals from a simple quasi-Poisson log-linear model for (A) Edinburgh and (B) Glasgow.

38 nature of the correlation, and a map of the whole country would be hard to
39 visualise as a large number of units are squashed into the geographically small
40 central belt containing Glasgow in the west and Edinburgh in the east. The
41 blue dots on the figures denote boundaries where step changes occur (where
42 $w_{ki} = w_{ik} = 0$), and visually correspond to pairs of IZs that exhibit different
43 random effect values, suggesting a lack of spatial smoothness between these
44 IZs.

45 **3. Estimated relative risks for the non-pollution covariates**

46 The estimated relative risks and 95% credible intervals for the non-pollution
47 covariates are displayed in Table 1, and relate to an interquartile range (IQR)
48 increase in each covariates value. The results relate to the locally adaptive
49 model with PM_{2.5} included as the pollutant, and the estimated effects from
50 the other models are similar and are not shown for brevity. The table shows
51 that the largest effects are for the income domain of SIMD across all five
52 disease outcomes, with increased risks of between 18.2% and 40.5% as the
53 level of income deprivation (percentage of working age people receiving ben-
54 efits such as Job Seekers Allowance or tax credits) increases. An increase
55 in housing deprivation (percentage of people who live in overcrowded or un-
56 heated homes) also leads to increased risks for all five diseases, with increases
57 between 3.3% and 6.9%. The numbers of crimes has relatively little impact
58 on disease risk, as the 95% credible intervals contain the null risk of 1 for
59 all disease outcomes except respiratory hospitalisations. The remaining two
60 variables suggest that urban areas generally have lower disease risks than ru-
61 ral areas (dwellings per hectare), and that within each of those environments

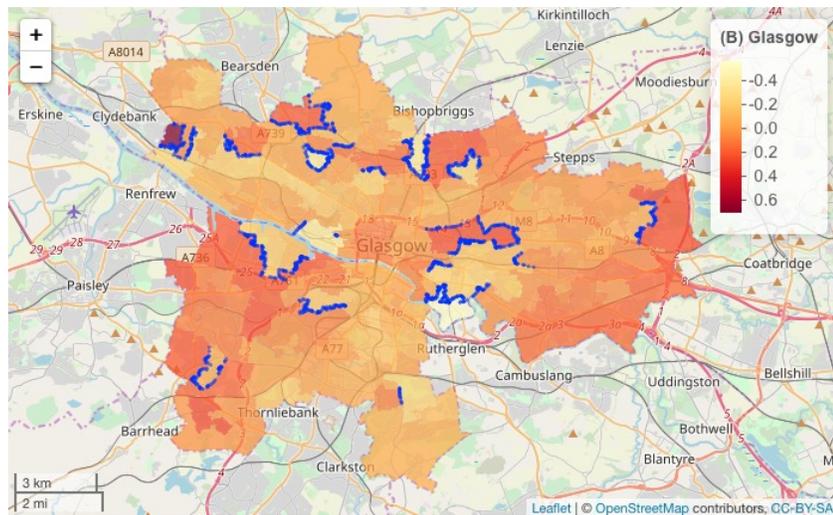
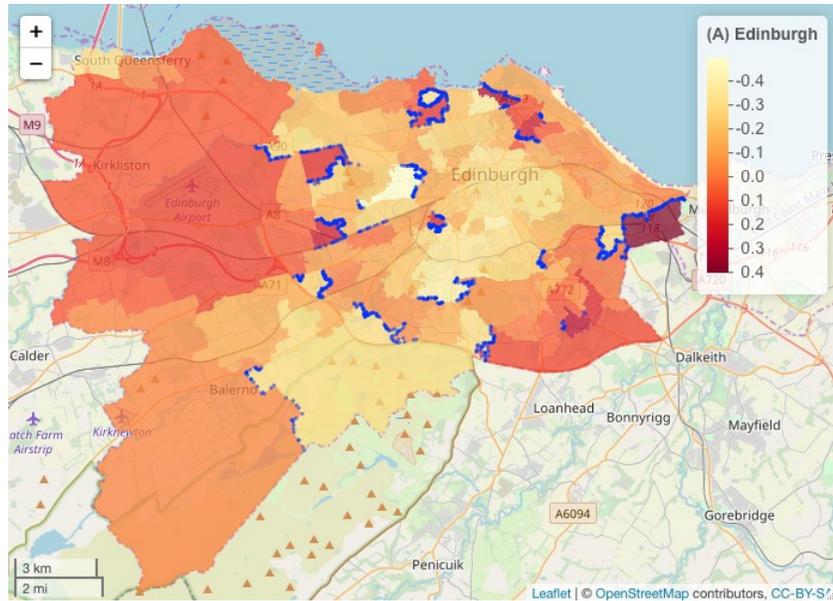


Figure 2: Maps of the estimated random effects surfaces from the locally adaptive smoothing model in (A) Edinburgh (top) and (B) Glasgow (bottom). The locations of the step changes for which $w_{ki} = w_{ik} = 0$ are displayed by blue dots.

62 the closer one is to local services then the higher the risk (access to services).

63 **4. Estimated pollutant-disease relative risks from the model with** 64 **the Leroux CAR prior**

65 The estimated pollutant-disease relative risks from the model with the
66 Leroux CAR prior are displayed in Table 2 for completeness, and show little
67 change from those estimated with the locally adaptive model presented in the
68 main paper, suggesting a robustness in our results to the choice of spatial
69 autocorrelation structure.

70 **5. Estimated reductions in respiratory hospital admissions in Ab-** 71 **erdeen and Dundee**

72 The estimated reductions in the numbers of respiratory hospitalisations
73 resulting from a $5\mu g m^{-3}$ decrease in NO_2 concentrations and the estimated
74 average NO_2 concentrations for Aberdeen (top) and Dundee (bottom) are
75 displayed in Figure 3, which has the same format as Figure 3 (presenting
76 Edinburgh and Glasgow) in the main paper. The figure presents the same
77 message as for Edinburgh and Glasgow, namely that reducing pollution con-
78 centrations in the city centres where they are highest will likely have a low
79 impact on public health in terms of reducing the numbers of respiratory
80 related hospital admissions.

Table 1: Estimated relative risks and 95% credible intervals for the non-pollution covariates. The relative risks relate to an interquartile range (IQR) increase in each covariate as a meaningful increase.

Covariate	Disease outcome	Risk	95% CI
Dwellings per hectare (IQR = 16.9)	Cardiovascular hospitalisations	0.970	(0.955, 0.985)
	Cardiovascular mortality	0.970	(0.945, 0.996)
	Respiratory hospitalisations	0.960	(0.944, 0.975)
	Respiratory mortality	0.928	(0.892, 0.965)
	Total non-accidental mortality	0.956	(0.938, 0.974)
Access to services (IQR = 18.2)	Cardiovascular hospitalisations	0.980	(0.968, 0.992)
	Cardiovascular mortality	0.985	(0.964, 1.007)
	Respiratory hospitalisations	0.968	(0.955, 0.981)
	Respiratory mortality	0.954	(0.924, 0.986)
	Total non-accidental mortality	0.974	(0.959, 0.989)
Crime (IQR = 236.5)	Cardiovascular hospitalisations	0.993	(0.985, 1.000)
	Cardiovascular mortality	0.998	(0.983, 1.013)
	Respiratory hospitalisations	0.989	(0.981, 0.996)
	Respiratory mortality	0.986	(0.964, 1.008)
	Total non-accidental mortality	0.999	(0.990, 1.009)
Housing (IQR = 0.08)	Cardiovascular hospitalisations	1.038	(1.020, 1.056)
	Cardiovascular mortality	1.049	(1.022, 1.076)
	Respiratory hospitalisations	1.033	(1.014, 1.052)
	Respiratory mortality	1.069	(1.024, 1.115)
	Total non-accidental mortality	1.056	(1.035, 1.077)
Income (IQR = 10.7)	Cardiovascular hospitalisations	1.182	(1.162, 1.202)
	Cardiovascular mortality	1.222	(1.191, 1.254)
	Respiratory hospitalisations	1.405	(1.379, 1.432)
	Respiratory mortality	1.353	(1.298, 1.411)
	Total non-accidental mortality	1.246	(1.221, 1.270)

Table 2: Estimated relative risks and 95% credible intervals for the pollution-disease effects from the model with the Leroux CAR prior. The results for NO_2 and NO_x relate to a $5\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ increase whilst those for $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} relate to a $1\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ increase. The significant results are shown in bold.

Disease outcome	Pollutant			
	NO_2	NO_x	$\text{PM}_{2.5}$	PM_{10}
Cardiovascular hospitalisations	1.013 (0.993, 1.033)	1.006 (0.994, 1.018)	1.014 (0.990, 1.038)	1.003 (0.991, 1.015)
Cardiovascular mortality	0.988 (0.970, 1.006)	0.993 (0.982, 1.005)	0.994 (0.974, 1.015)	0.997 (0.987, 1.008)
Respiratory hospitalisations	1.025 (1.001, 1.049)	1.012 (0.998, 1.026)	1.060 (1.031, 1.089)	1.027 (1.013, 1.041)
Respiratory mortality	1.031 (0.996, 1.067)	1.016 (0.995, 1.038)	1.045 (1.002, 1.091)	1.014 (0.992, 1.037)
Total non-accidental mortality	1.005 (0.992, 1.019)	1.002 (0.994, 1.011)	1.013 (0.998, 1.029)	1.005 (0.997, 1.013)

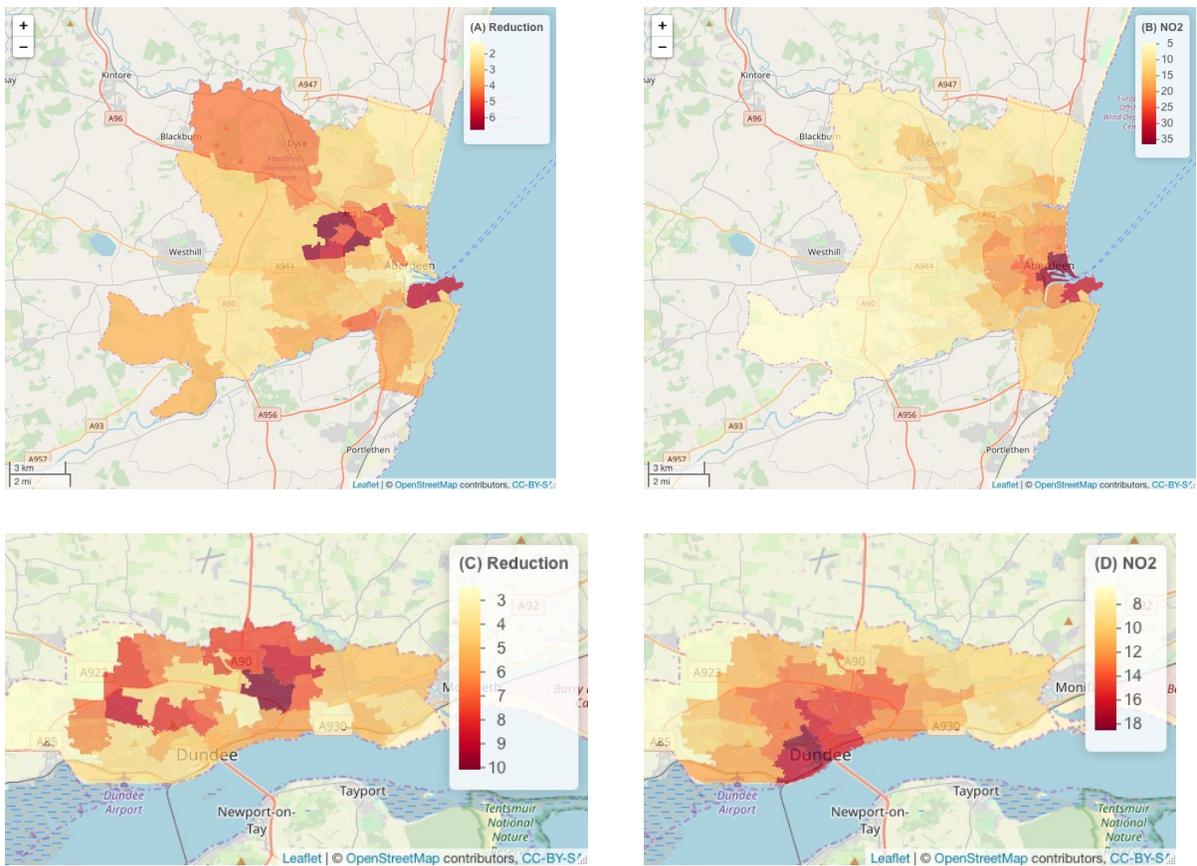


Figure 3: Maps of the estimated reductions in respiratory hospitalisations in each IZ due to a $5\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ reduction in NO₂ concentrations (left), and the average NO₂ concentrations (right). The top row refers to Aberdeen and the bottom row refers to Dundee.

81 **Bibliography**

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