

Updated Global Estimates of Respiratory Mortality in Adults ≥ 30 Years of Age Attributable to Long-Term Ozone Exposure

Christopher S. Malley,¹ Daven K. Henze,² Johan C.I. Kuylensstierna,¹ Harry W. Vallack,¹ Yanko Davila,² Susan C. Anenberg,³ Michelle C. Turner,^{4,5,6,7} and Mike R. Ashmore¹

¹Stockholm Environment Institute, Environment Department, University of York, York, UK

²Department of Mechanical Engineering, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado, USA

³Environmental Health Analytics, LLC., Washington, District of Columbia, USA

⁴Barcelona Institute for Global Health (ISGlobal), Barcelona, Spain

⁵Universitat Pompeu Fabra (UPF), Barcelona, Spain

⁶CIBER Epidemiología y Salud Pública (CIBERESP), Madrid, Spain

⁷McLaughlin Centre for Population Health Risk Assessment, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

BACKGROUND: Relative risk estimates for long-term ozone (O₃) exposure and respiratory mortality from the American Cancer Society Cancer Prevention Study II (ACS CPS-II) cohort have been used to estimate global O₃-attributable mortality in adults. Updated relative risk estimates are now available for the same cohort based on an expanded study population with longer follow-up.

OBJECTIVES: We estimated the global burden and spatial distribution of respiratory mortality attributable to long-term O₃ exposure in adults ≥ 30 y of age using updated effect estimates from the ACS CPS-II cohort.

METHODS: We used GEOS-Chem simulations ($2 \times 2.5^\circ$ grid resolution) to estimate annual O₃ exposures, and estimated total respiratory deaths in 2010 that were attributable to long-term annual O₃ exposure based on the updated relative risk estimates and minimum risk thresholds set at the minimum or fifth percentile of O₃ exposure in the most recent CPS-II analysis. These estimates were compared with attributable mortality based on the earlier CPS-II analysis, using 6-mo average exposures and risk thresholds corresponding to the minimum or fifth percentile of O₃ exposure in the earlier study population.

RESULTS: We estimated 1.04–1.23 million respiratory deaths in adults attributable to O₃ exposures using the updated relative risk estimate and exposure parameters, compared with 0.40–0.55 million respiratory deaths attributable to O₃ exposures based on the earlier CPS-II risk estimate and parameters. Increases in estimated attributable mortality were larger in northern India, southeast China, and Pakistan than in Europe, eastern United States, and northeast China.

CONCLUSIONS: These findings suggest that the potential magnitude of health benefits of air quality policies targeting O₃, health co-benefits of climate mitigation policies, and health implications of climate change-driven changes in O₃ concentrations, are larger than previously thought. <https://doi.org/10.1289/EHP1390>

Introduction

Ground-level ozone (O₃) is formed photochemically in the atmosphere from nitrogen oxides, non-methane volatile organic compounds, methane, and carbon monoxide. Ozone exposure has been associated with a range of health impacts, including mortality (REVIHAAP 2013; U.S. EPA 2013). Relative risk estimates based on prospective data from the American Cancer Society Cancer Prevention Study II (ACS CPS-II) have been applied in previous analyses of the global burden of mortality attributable to long-term air pollution exposures. Jerrett et al. (2009) reported a relative risk estimate for respiratory mortality in association with long-term O₃ exposure in the CPS-II cohort (hereafter referred to as J2009), which was subsequently used to derive global

estimates of O₃-attributable mortality ranging from 0.15 to 0.49 million deaths per year (Anenberg et al. 2010; Fang et al. 2013b; GBD 2013 Risk Factors Collaborators 2015; GBD 2015 Risk Factors Collaborators 2016; Lim et al. 2012; Silva et al. 2013, 2016a). In contrast, global estimates of mortality attributable to fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) exposure (from cardiovascular, respiratory, and lung cancer diseases) have been much higher, ranging from 1.6 to 4.2 million per year (Anenberg et al. 2010; Fang et al. 2013b; GBD 2013 Risk Factors Collaborators 2015; GBD 2015 Risk Factors Collaborators 2016; Lim et al. 2012; Silva et al. 2013, 2016a).

Turner et al. (2016) recently reported updated CPS-II cohort estimates of mortality risks associated with long-term O₃ exposure (hereafter referred to as T2016). The updated CPS-II estimates are based on a larger study population with longer follow-up (669,046 participants and 237,201 deaths during 1982–2004) (Turner et al. 2016) than the previous estimates (448,850 participants and 118,777 deaths during 1982–2000) (Jerrett et al. 2009). In addition to the differences noted above, the updated risk estimates reflect other changes from the original study, which are described in detail in Table S1. Importantly, there are differences in the O₃ exposure metric used in either study; in Jerrett et al. (2009), the summer average daily maximum 1-h O₃ concentration was used (average of April–June and July–September values), and in Turner et al. (2016), the annual average daily maximum 8-h O₃ concentration was used.

The purpose of the present analysis is to provide estimates of global respiratory mortality attributable to long-term O₃ exposure based on the updated T2016 relative risk estimate and exposure metric and compare them with estimates derived using the J2009 relative risk estimate and exposure metric. In addition, we report estimates of ozone-attributable deaths due to COPD mortality specifically.

Address correspondence to C.S. Malley, Stockholm Environment Institute, Environment Dept., Environment Building, Wentworth Way, University of York, York, YO10 5NG, UK. Telephone: 44 1904 323685. Email: chris.malley@york.ac.uk

Supplemental Material is available online (<https://doi.org/10.1289/EHP1390>).

M.C.T. has reported personal fees from ICF Incorporated, Fairfax, VA, outside this work. S.C.A. is a member of Environmental Health Analytics, LLC, an environmental policy consulting firm.

The other authors declare they have no actual or potential competing financial interests.

Received 17 November 2016; Revised 19 June 2017; Accepted 20 June 2017; Published 28 August 2017.

Note to readers with disabilities: *EHP* strives to ensure that all journal content is accessible to all readers. However, some figures and Supplemental Material published in *EHP* articles may not conform to 508 standards due to the complexity of the information being presented. If you need assistance accessing journal content, please contact ehponline@niehs.nih.gov. Our staff will work with you to assess and meet your accessibility needs within 3 working days.

The evidence from epidemiological and toxicological studies for associations, and causal linkages, between O₃ exposure (short- and long-term) and specific health outcomes has been reviewed by the WHO and U.S. EPA (REVIHAAP 2013; U.S. EPA 2013). For respiratory mortality, REVIHAAP (2013) identified three cohort studies that linked long-term O₃ exposure and relevant outcomes, including respiratory mortality specifically (Jerrett et al. 2009), COPD mortality (Zanobetti and Schwartz 2011), and cardiopulmonary mortality (Smith et al. 2009b). The U.S. EPA (2013) concluded that there was “likely to be a causal relationship between long-term exposure to O₃ and respiratory effects” based on epidemiologic studies of respiratory mortality (Jerrett et al. 2009; Zanobetti and Schwartz 2011), respiratory morbidity (Jacquemin et al. 2012; Lin et al. 2008; Meng et al. 2010; Parker et al. 2009), and toxicological evidence of biologically plausible mechanisms for respiratory effects of O₃, including “pulmonary function decrement and increases in respiratory symptoms, lung inflammation, lung permeability, and airway hyper-responsiveness” (U.S. EPA 2013). Evidence for causal associations of O₃ with specific causes of respiratory mortality is more limited, with stronger evidence from studies of short-term O₃ and hospital admissions for both COPD and asthma compared with pneumonia (Medina-Ramón et al. 2006; U.S. EPA 2013; Zanobetti and Schwartz 2006), although a recent study reported an association between short-term O₃ exposure and hospital visits for pneumonia, as well as COPD (Malig et al. 2016).

Methods

Long-Term O₃ Exposure Estimation

Global gridded (2×2.5°, approximately 221×278 km at the equator) hourly O₃ concentrations were simulated using the GEOS-Chem Chemical Transport Model (Bey et al. 2001) driven by GEOS-5 meteorological fields for 2010 from the Global Modeling and Assimilation Office, with 47 vertical levels defined from the surface up to 0.01 hPa. Simulations used 2010 anthropogenic emissions from the Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollution version-2 inventory (Janssens-Maenhout et al. 2015). The model also considers additional emissions, described in further detail by Lapina et al. (2014), which include biogenic VOCs, soil NO_x, lightning NO_x, and monthly biomass burning emissions.

When estimating attributable deaths globally based on the J2009 relative risk estimates, we used an O₃ exposure metric that was consistent with the premise of the exposure metric for which the J2009 relative risk estimates were derived. Jerrett et al. (2009) used the average daily maximum 1-h O₃ concentration between April and September as the O₃ exposure metric in the United States alone, where O₃ concentrations are highest in spring and summer months. In other regions, the seasonal pattern of O₃ variation is different. To account for variability in the 6-mo period with highest daily maximum 1-h O₃ concentrations across regions, we estimated, for each grid, annual maximum 6-mo average daily maximum 1-h (6mDM1h) O₃ concentrations. The 6mDM1h metric calculated grid-by-grid accounts for differences in seasonal O₃ variation across the globe that affects the timing of the maximum 6-mo O₃ concentration (Anenberg et al. 2010; Silva et al. 2013, 2016a). When estimating attributable deaths using the T2016 risk estimates, we used the annual average daily maximum 8-h O₃ concentration (ADM8h) for each grid, consistent with the analysis from which the relative risk estimates were derived. For each day, 24 eight-hour rolling mean O₃ concentrations were calculated as the average O₃ concentration at the start hour and the following 7 h. The maximum of the 24 eight-hour O₃ concentrations on each day were selected and averaged across the year to derive the ADM8h concentration in each grid.

Exposure–Response Functions

Mortality attributable to long-term O₃ exposure was estimated for 181 countries in 2010 using Equations 1 and 2, consistent with methodologies used to estimate global health impacts of O₃ previously (Anenberg et al. 2010; Silva et al. 2013, 2016a):

$$\Delta\text{Mort} = y_0(1 - \exp^{-\beta\Delta X})\text{Pop.} \quad [1]$$

$$\text{HR} = \exp^{\beta\Delta Y} \quad [2]$$

ΔMort is the change in mortality attributable to long-term O₃ exposure, and was estimated separately for the population in each grid cell covering a particular country. In this study, we estimated ΔMort for each country in 2010 for respiratory mortality [*International Classification of Diseases* (ICD)-10 codes: J00–J98], consistent with the causes of death investigated in Jerrett et al. (2009) and Turner et al. (2016), and separately for chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) mortality (ICD-10 codes: J19–J46), a subset of respiratory mortality.

Pop. is the exposed population, which was the population in each country ≥ 30 y of age, estimated from UN Population Division population statistics disaggregated by age for each country (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/DataQuery/>) because participants in the ACS CPS-II cohort were required to be over 30 y of age at enrollment. The population was distributed to the grids covering each country using population count data for 2010 from the Gridded Population of the World (GPW) version 3 dataset (CIESIN-FAO-CIAT 2005). y_0 is the baseline mortality rate for each cause of death, derived as the ratio of the deaths of people ≥ 30 y of age from the cause and the number of people in each country ≥ 30 y of age estimated by the UN Population Division (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/DataQuery/>). For each country, the total number of deaths for each disease category (respiratory and COPD) for the population ≥ 30 y of age in 2010 were from the GBD 2015 estimates derived by the Institute of Health Metrics and Evaluation (GBD 2015 Mortality and Causes of Death Collaborators 2016). Uncertainty in y_0 was derived from the confidence intervals (CIs) reported by GBD 2015 Mortality and Causes of Death Collaborators (2016) for the number of deaths from each cause, as described below.

β is the effect estimate [natural log of the hazard ratio (HR)] for the association between long-term O₃ concentrations and respiratory or COPD mortality (Equation 2). In Jerrett et al. (2009), and Turner et al. (2016), the HRs are reported as the increased hazard of death for a 10-ppb increase in long-term O₃ exposure, which is ΔY in Equation 2. For J2009, in the main analysis we used the ln-HR for a 10-ppb increase in O₃ concentration (6mDM1h metric) from the two-pollutant model adjusted for PM_{2.5} (HR = 1.040; 95% CI: 1.013, 1.067), which has been applied in several previous analyses (Anenberg et al. 2010; Fann et al. 2012; Silva et al. 2013, 2016a; West et al. 2013). For T2016, in the main analysis we used the ln-HR for a 10-ppb increase in O₃ concentration (ADM8h metric) from a model adjusted for near-source PM_{2.5}, regional PM_{2.5}, and NO₂ (HR = 1.12; 95% CI: 1.08, 1.16). This HR was used to estimate updated long-term O₃-attributable respiratory mortality [using two low-concentration cutoffs (LCCs) to reflect uncertainty in the concentration–response relationship below exposure levels in Turner et al. (2016) (see below)]. T2016 relative risk estimates for COPD mortality also were adjusted for PM_{2.5} (near-source and regional) and NO₂ [HR = 1.14 (95% CI: 1.08, 1.21)].

Finally, ΔX is the long-term O₃ exposure (estimated using GEOS-Chem model output), expressed relative to a threshold exposure (low-concentration cutoff, or LCC), below which we assume there is no effect of O₃ exposure on mortality. The specific LCCs used corresponded to the minimum O₃ exposure or

the fifth percentile of O₃ exposure in the respective ACS CPS-II population on which each set of relative risk estimates (J2009 or T2016) were based because the validity of each risk estimate is uncertain for exposures below the actual levels experienced by each population. For analyses based on J2009 relative risk estimates and the 6mDM1h ozone exposure metric, LCCs for the minimum and fifth percentiles of exposure were set at 33.3 ppb and 41.9 ppb, respectively; for analyses using T2016 relative risk estimates and the ADM8h exposure metric, corresponding LCCs were set at 26.7 ppb and 31.1 ppb. For each grid cell, ΔX was calculated from the GEOS-Chem derived O₃ concentration (O₃_GC) as

$$\Delta X = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } O3_GC \leq LCC \\ O3_GC - LCC, & \text{if } O3_GC > LCC \end{cases} \quad [3]$$

To derive central estimates of long-term O₃-exposure attributable respiratory, and COPD deaths for individual countries, we applied Equation 1 for the population ≥30 y of age assigned to each grid cell covering the country, using the central estimates of β and the national baseline mortality rate (y₀). To account for uncertainty in the relative risk estimate (β) and baseline mortality rates (y₀), we sampled 1,000 estimates of β and y₀ from normal distributions based on the 95% CIs for each variable, applied each resulting value to Equation 1 to derive 1,000 estimates of long-term O₃ attributable deaths, and used the resulting distribution to derive 95% CIs for attributable mortality in each grid cell. Estimates for individual grids were summed to derive national, regional, and global estimates, assuming dependence among the gridded estimates.

Sensitivity analyses were performed to estimate long-term O₃-attributable mortality using T2016 relative risk estimates derived using a single-pollutant model that did not adjust for near-source PM_{2.5}, regional PM_{2.5}, or NO₂ exposures [HR = 1.14 (95% CI: 1.10, 1.18)]. In addition, we also performed analyses using methods comparable with those used in previous studies to estimate O₃-attributable mortality. This allowed assessment of the consistency of results obtained in those studies, with comparable estimates using the O₃ exposure, baseline mortality, and population data used in this study. To make a direct comparison with the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) analyses, we also further estimated long-term O₃-attributable deaths using comparable

methods. Specifically, GBD estimated long-term O₃-attributable deaths associated with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) only, using the maximum 3-mo average daily maximum 1-h O₃ concentration, and the single-pollutant J2009 relative risk estimate [1.029 (95% CI 1.010, 1.048)] that was derived for total respiratory mortality (GBD 2013 Risk Factors Collaborators 2015; GBD 2015 Risk Factors Collaborators 2016; Lim et al. 2012).

Results

Globally, O₃ exposure ranged between 13.6 ppb and 84.6 ppb when quantified using the 6-mo daily maximum 1-h concentration (6mDMA1) relevant for the J2009 relative risk estimates, and between 11.3 ppb and 72.6 ppb when quantified as the annual daily maximum 8-h concentration (ADMA8) relevant for the T2016 relative risk estimates (Table 1; see also Figure S1). Both O₃ exposure metrics were elevated across Asia (particularly India and China) compared with other regions (Table 1).

Using the T2016 relative risk estimate (HR = 1.12) and ADM8h concentrations in each grid, we estimated that 1.23 million (95% CI: 0.85, 1.62 million) respiratory deaths among the global population ≥30 y of age were attributable to long-term O₃ exposure in 2010 using the minimum exposure in the T2016 cohort (26.7 ppb) as the low-concentration cutoff (LCC), and 1.04 million deaths (95% CI: 0.72, 1.37 million) using the fifth percentile LCC (31.1 ppb) (Table 2). Attributable deaths estimated using the T2016 relative risk estimate and the fifth percentile LCC represent 20.3% (95% CI: 14.5, 26.9%) of all respiratory deaths among those ≥30 y of age in 2010. In contrast, using the J2009 relative risk (HR = 1.04) and 6mDM1h concentrations, we estimated 0.55 million (95% CI: 0.20, 0.90) deaths attributable to long-term O₃ in 2010 using the minimum exposure in the J2009 cohort as the LCC (33.3 ppb) and 0.40 million (95% CI: 0.14, 0.65) million attributable respiratory deaths using the fifth percentile LCC (41.9 ppb).

The majority (79–81%) of our estimated long-term O₃-attributable respiratory deaths using the T2016 relative risk estimates were in Asia (Table 2, Figure 1), predominantly in India and China [37–39% of the global total for India depending on the LCC, and 26% for both LCCs for China (Table 2)]. Applying the T2016 relative risk estimates increased estimated long-term

Table 1. Range of O₃ concentrations (ppb) in grids covering world regions and selected countries estimated from GEOS-chem model simulations.

Region	Metric	Minimum	5th percentile	25th percentile	Median	75th percentile	95th percentile	Maximum
Asia	6mDMA1	13.6	26.5	50.4	59.2	66.1	75.9	84.0
	ADMA8	11.7	23.5	42.4	50.4	57.2	66.1	72.6
China	6mDMA1	46.2	51.7	59.9	64.4	70.2	78.5	84.0
	ADMA8	40.9	43.7	50.6	54.5	59.6	67.7	72.6
India	6mDMA1	36.1	45.0	62.4	67.2	73.2	78.3	80.1
	ADMA8	30.7	36.5	50.8	57.9	64.7	70.7	72.6
Europe	6mDMA1	36.9	38.7	40.2	42.6	48.9	57.8	66.0
	ADMA8	30.3	33.5	35.0	37.8	41.1	48.9	54.3
Africa	6mDMA1	25.8	34.7	44.6	50.2	56.3	67.4	84.6
	ADMA8	20.2	29.3	37.5	43.2	47.8	53.4	59.6
Latin America and the Caribbean	6mDMA1	15.8	22.3	29.9	38.7	49.5	59.0	78.5
	ADMA8	11.3	15.6	24.5	32.3	39.7	50.1	62.6
North America	6mDMA1	39.3	39.8	41.4	43.8	51.7	64.8	77.3
	ADMA8	34.1	35.6	37.0	39.4	44.0	54.4	58.8
United States	6mDMA1	39.6	40.3	43.3	51.8	60.1	68.8	77.3
	ADMA8	34.1	36.3	38.6	44.5	50.9	55.6	58.8
Oceania	6mDMA1	13.6	18.5	25.8	33.0	35.9	38.0	40.3
	ADMA8	11.7	15.0	20.1	29.2	32.7	34.5	37.6
Global	6mDMA1	13.6	26.8	39.8	44.8	54.8	68.9	84.6
	ADMA8	11.3	22.5	34.4	39.0	46.3	58.2	72.6

Note: The range of the maximum 6-mo daily maximum 1-h O₃ concentration (6mDMA1, relevant for J2009 relative risk estimates), and the annual average daily maximum 8-h concentrations (ADMA8, relevant for T2016 relative risk estimates) are shown. Ranges for China and India are shown because of the large health impacts estimated in these countries. Ranges from the United States are also shown because this is where the Jerrett et al. (2009) and Turner et al. (2016) studies were conducted.

Table 2. Global and regional estimates of respiratory deaths attributable to long-term O₃ exposure for adults ≥30 y of age.

Region	Estimates based on J2009 ^a		Estimates based on T2016 ^b		Proportion of total respiratory deaths (T2016 estimates, %)
	Low-concentration cutoff ^c	Attributable respiratory deaths J2009 (thousands)	Low-concentration cutoff ^c	Attributable respiratory deaths T2016 (thousands)	
Asia	33.3 ppb	430 (161, 699)	26.7 ppb	970 (686, 1,253)	28.0 (19.2, 35.8)
	41.9 ppb	328 (120, 536)	31.1 ppb	844 (593, 1,095)	24.3 (17.1, 31.9)
China	33.3 ppb	154 (59.9, 248)	26.7 ppb	316 (230, 403)	28.0 (20.5, 35.9)
	41.9 ppb	120 (45.6, 195)	31.1 ppb	274 (198, 351)	24.2 (17.2, 31.3)
India	33.3 ppb	193 (74.8, 311)	26.7 ppb	450 (329, 572)	32.2 (23.5, 41.3)
	41.9 ppb	151 (57.2, 246)	31.1 ppb	402 (291, 513)	28.7 (20.0, 37.3)
Europe	33.3 ppb	39.2 (13.9, 64.5)	26.7 ppb	78.9 (54.2, 104)	15.0 (10.4, 19.7)
	41.9 ppb	22.5 (7.7, 37.2)	31.1 ppb	55.9 (38.1, 73.8)	10.6 (6.9, 14.1)
Africa	33.3 ppb	33.6 (6.6, 60.6)	26.7 ppb	80.6 (37.1, 124)	15.9 (7.5, 24.6)
	41.9 ppb	18.8 (3.6, 34.1)	31.1 ppb	59.6 (27.5, 91.6)	11.7 (5.8, 19.1)
Latin America and the Caribbean	33.3 ppb	14.5 (5.1, 23.9)	26.7 ppb	39.9 (27.4, 52.4)	12.0 (8.2, 15.4)
	41.9 ppb	6.5 (2.3, 10.8)	31.1 ppb	27.2 (18.6, 35.7)	8.2 (5.4, 10.8)
North America	33.3 ppb	30.1 (11.5, 48.7)	26.7 ppb	63.8 (46.3, 81.3)	23.9 (17.3, 30.6)
	41.9 ppb	22.0 (8.2, 35.8)	31.1 ppb	53.5 (38.4, 68.5)	20.0 (14.5, 25.8)
Oceania	33.3 ppb	0.2 (0.06, 0.28)	26.7 ppb	1.0 (0.7, 1.3)	3.7 (2.4, 5.3)
	41.9 ppb	0 ^d	31.1 ppb	0.4 (0.3, 0.6)	1.5 (1.0, 2.1)
Global	33.3 ppb	547 (198, 897)	26.7 ppb	1,234 (851, 1,616)	24.0 (16.9, 31.7)
	41.9 ppb	398 (142, 654)	31.1 ppb	1,040 (716, 1,365)	20.3 (14.5, 26.9)

Note: Estimates were calculated using relative risk estimates for long-term O₃ exposure and respiratory mortality derived in Jerrett et al. (2009) and Turner et al. (2016) and are also reported as a proportion of all respiratory deaths for the population aged ≥30 y in each region. Values in parentheses are 95% confidence intervals.

^aJ2009 estimates use HR = 1.040 (95% CI: 1.013, 1.067) as the relative risk estimate and the maximum 6-mo daily 1-h maximum O₃ concentration as the exposure metric (Jerrett et al. 2009).

^bT2016 estimates use HR = 1.12 (95% CI: 1.08, 1.16) as the relative risk estimate and the annual daily 8-h maximum ozone concentration as the exposure metric (Turner et al. 2016).

^cLower value is the minimum ozone concentration, and the upper value is the 5th percentile of the ozone concentration for the population and ozone metric used to derive the J2009 and T2016 relative risk estimates.

^dEstimated maximum 6-mo O₃ concentrations did not exceed the 5th percentile low-concentration cutoff in Oceania, and therefore no long-term O₃-attributable respiratory deaths were estimated.

O₃-attributable respiratory deaths everywhere in the world (Figure 2a), compared with the J2009 relative risk estimates (see Figure S2), reflecting the common increase in the HR. However, the increase in HR was offset to a different degree in different regions by the size of the decreases in the magnitude of the long-term O₃ exposure metric when quantified over the whole year (T2016) rather than 6 mo (J2009), and expressed as a daily 8-h maximum (T2016) rather than as a 1-h maximum (J2009). In those regions with relatively large reductions in the magnitude of the O₃ metric (Figure 2c), the increase in estimated attributable

respiratory deaths was smaller than in those regions with a smaller reduction in the O₃ metric (Figure 2b). For example, there were larger reductions in the O₃ exposure metric, and smaller increases in estimated attributable respiratory deaths, at northern midlatitudes (eastern United States, northeast China, and central and northern Europe), compared with other regions (e.g., northern India). The spatial differences in the magnitude of the all-year compared with 6-mo metrics reflects different seasonal variability in O₃ concentrations at northern midlatitudes, compared with other regions (Monks et al. 2015).

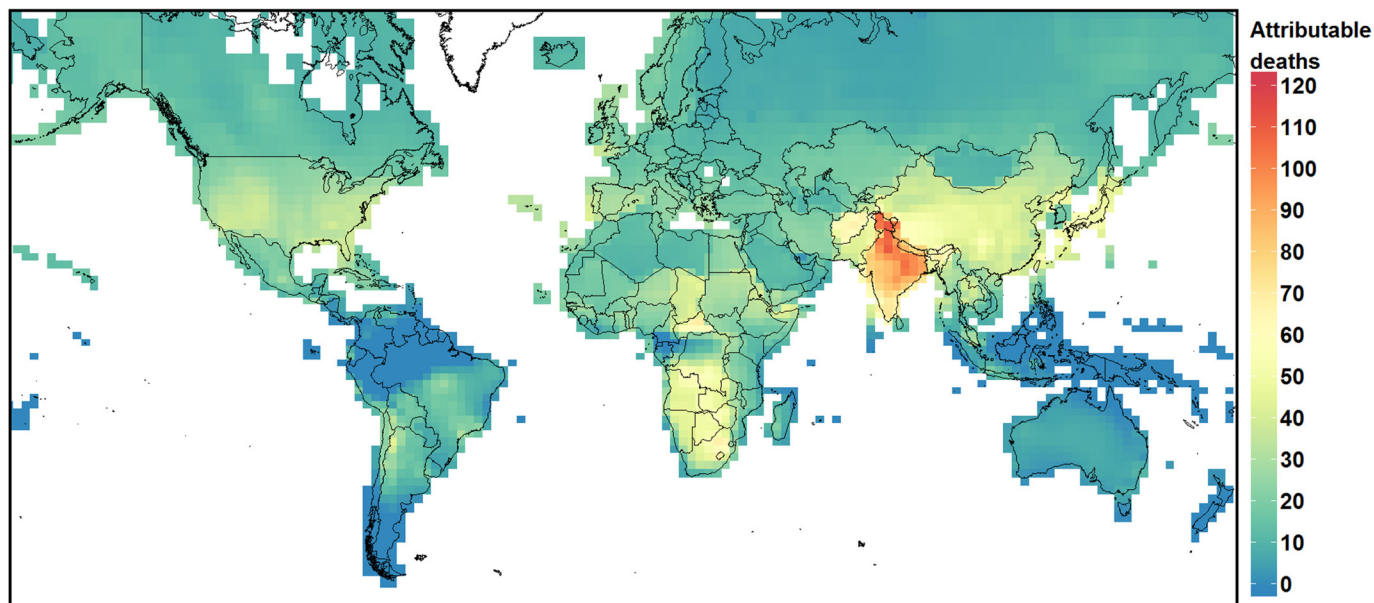


Figure 1. Estimated long-term O₃-exposure attributable respiratory deaths in 2010 for adults ≥30 y of age. Units are attributable deaths per 100,000 people, and estimates were derived using the T2016 relative risk estimate [HR = 1.12 (95% CI: 1.08, 1.16), adjusted for near-source and regional PM_{2.5}, and NO₂ exposure] and annual average daily maximum 8-h O₃ concentration as the O₃ exposure metric, with a low-concentration cutoff set at the minimum exposure in the Turner et al. (2016) cohort (26.7 ppb) (Map Data: © EuroGeographics for the administrative boundaries).

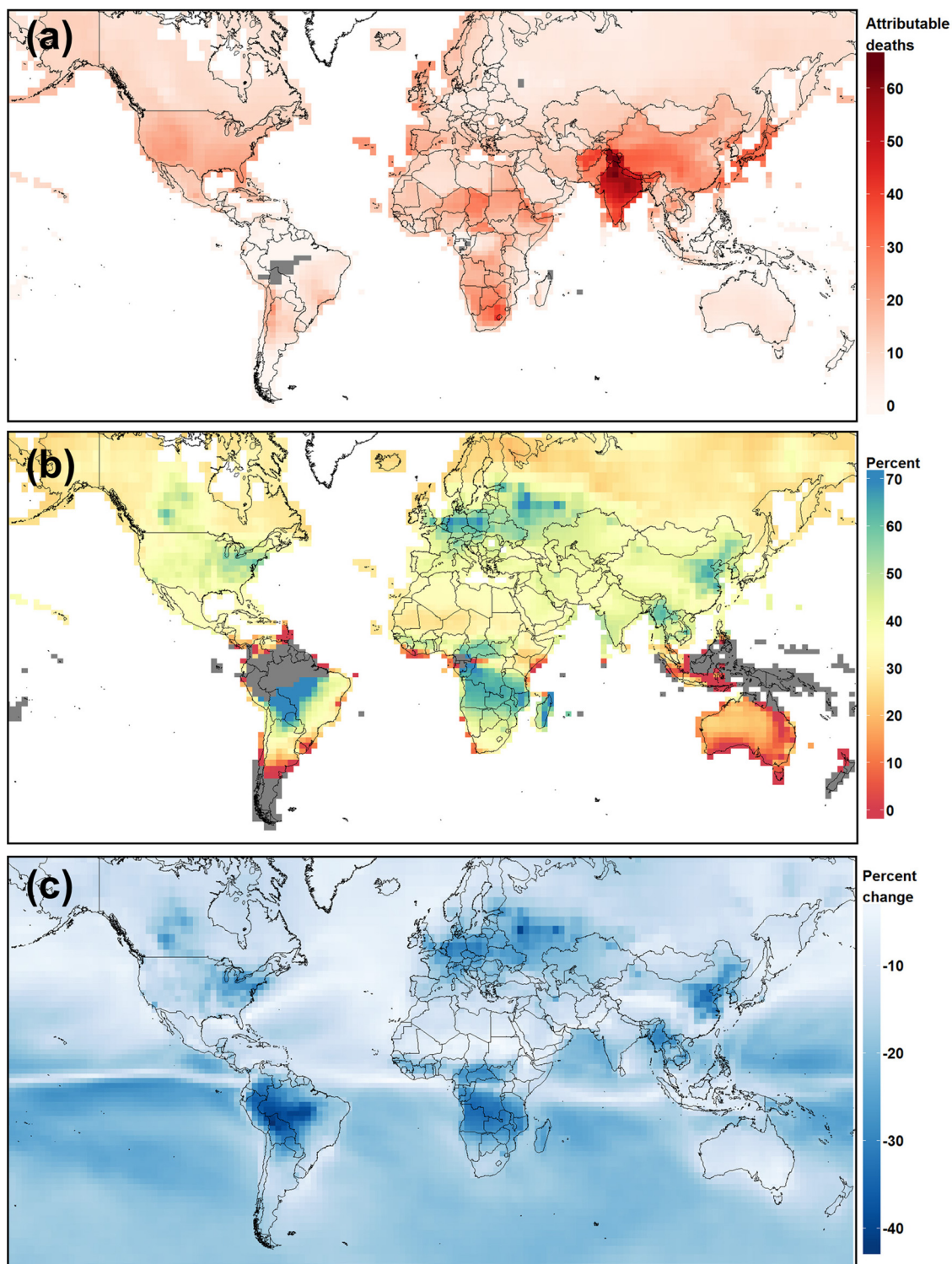


Figure 2. Spatial distribution of changes in estimated long-term O₃-attributable respiratory deaths when using the J2009 relative risk estimates [HR = 1.04 (95% CI: 1.013, 1.067), adjusted for total PM_{2.5} exposure] and 6-mo daily maximum 1-h concentration as the O₃ exposure metric (33.3-ppb low-concentration cutoff), and T2016 relative risk estimates [HR = 1.12 (95% CI: 1.08, 1.16), adjusted for near-source and regional PM_{2.5}, and NO₂ exposure] and annual average daily maximum 8-h concentration as the O₃ exposure metric (26.7-ppb low-concentration cutoff). (a) shows the absolute difference in attributable respiratory deaths per 100,000 people estimated using the J2009 and T2016 relative risk estimates. (b) shows the percent of T2016-based attributable respiratory death estimates accounted for by J2009-based attributable respiratory deaths estimates (colder colors indicate a smaller increase in estimated O₃-attributable respiratory deaths when calculated using the T2016 relative risk estimate, warmer colors indicate a larger increase). (c) shows the percent decrease in the magnitude of the long-term O₃ exposure metric when using the annual average daily maximum 8-h metric (relevant for T2016 relative risk estimates), compared with the maximum 6-mo average daily maximum 1-h metric (relevant for J2009 relative risk estimates). Gray areas in each panel indicate those grids where the 6-mo or annual O₃ exposure metric was below the LCC, and therefore no O₃-attributable respiratory deaths were estimated (Map Data: © EuroGeographics for the administrative boundaries).

In addition, the T2016 relative risk estimates were also applied with different LCCs compared with the J2009 relative risk estimates. The use of an annual metric to characterize population O₃ exposure compared with a 6-mo metric shifts the distribution of the O₃ exposure metric in different regions, including in relation to the relevant LCCs. For example, the median ADM8h concentration across all grids globally was 46% greater than the minimum exposure LCC (26.7 ppb), compared with 35% greater for the median 6mDM1h concentration (33.3 ppb LCC), that is, a 33% larger exceedance of the minimum exposure LCC for the median ADM8h metric (Table 1). However, in Asia the exceedance of the LCC for the median ADM8h concentration was only 14% greater than for the median 6mDM1h concentrations, compared with 49% and 51% in Europe and North America, respectively (Table 1). Hence in different regions the change in the extent to which the O₃ exposure metrics exceed the LCC differs and contributes to regional differences in the increase in estimated O₃-attributable respiratory mortality when applying the T2016 relative risk estimates.

We performed a sensitivity analysis of estimated O₃-attributable respiratory deaths using a T2016 relative risk estimate derived from a single-pollutant model, instead of the multi-pollutant adjusted estimate used for the primary analyses. Estimated numbers of ozone-attributed respiratory deaths based on the single-pollutant model relative risk estimates were approximately 13% higher than the estimates derived using the multi-pollutant model relative risk estimates (see Table S2).

The O₃-attributable respiratory mortality estimates using the J2009 relative risk estimate, as described above (HR = 1.040; 95% CI: 1.013, 1.067; 33.3 ppb and 41.9 ppb LCCs), were comparable with previous estimates in Anenberg et al. (2010), Fang et al. (2013b), Silva et al. (2013), and Silva et al. (2016a) (see Table S4). In comparison with previous estimates of long-term O₃ attributable mortality by the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) project, our estimates using GBD-comparable inputs to Equation 1 (i.e., estimating O₃-attributable COPD mortality using the J2009 single-pollutant relative risk estimate for respiratory mortality and maximum 3-mo daily maximum 1-h O₃ exposure metric) had overlapping confidence intervals with GBD 2010, GBD 2013, and GBD 2015 long-term O₃-attributable deaths (GBD 2013 Risk Factors Collaborators 2015; GBD 2015 Risk Factors Collaborators 2016; Lim et al. 2012), but our central estimates were higher (see Table S3). Differences in the magnitude of O₃ exposure estimates, derived from the Tracer Model v5-FAst Scenario Screening Tool model in GBD (Brauer et al. 2016) and GEOS-Chem here, may contribute to this discrepancy. For example, in India and China, population-weighted 3-mo maximum daily 1-h concentrations were 5% (1.1-ppb), and 22% (14-ppb) higher for GEOS-Chem, respectively. Further work is required to evaluate the performance of both models in these regions, which have the largest estimated health burden, although currently there is relatively low number and spatial density of monitoring sites in these regions to achieve this (Cooper et al. 2014).

Application of the T2016 relationships for COPD mortality specifically resulted in an estimated 0.86 million (95% CI: 0.53, 1.18 million) O₃-attributable COPD deaths across the global population ≥30 y of age in 2010 using the minimum exposure in the T2016 cohort (26.7 ppb) as the LCC, and 0.74 million deaths (95% CI: 0.45, 1.02 million) using the fifth percentile LCC (31.1 ppb) (see Table S4, Figure S3). This indicates that estimated O₃-attributable COPD deaths were approximately 70–71% of total estimated O₃-attributable respiratory deaths. Hence, even when only focusing on COPD, long-term O₃ health impacts may be more significant than previously estimated [e.g., global long-term O₃ COPD deaths estimated by GBD 2015 were 6% of

PM_{2.5}-associated attributable deaths, whereas our estimates using T2016 relationships are 17–20% of this PM_{2.5}-attributable death estimate (GBD 2015 Risk Factors Collaborators 2016)].

Discussion

Results of this study estimating the global burden and spatial distribution of long-term O₃ exposure on mortality applying the revised T2016 relative risk estimates estimated 1.04–1.23 million respiratory deaths among the global population ≥30 y of age were attributable to O₃ exposure in 2010. The more than doubling of estimated long-term O₃-attributable respiratory deaths obtained using the T2016 compared with J2009 relative risk estimates (0.40–0.55 million attributable respiratory deaths) increases the estimated contribution of O₃ to the global outdoor air pollution health burden. The respiratory mortality results for O₃ are 25–29% of the 4.2 million deaths estimated to be attributable to PM_{2.5} exposure by the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) (GBD 2015 Risk Factors Collaborators 2016).

Previous long-term O₃ attributable mortality estimates have used O₃ exposure over a 6-mo period for consistency with the O₃ exposure estimates in Jerrett et al. (2009) (Anenberg et al. 2010; Fang et al. 2013b; Silva et al. 2013, 2016a) (the GBD studies have applied the J2009 relative risk estimates using a 3-mo metric (Brauer et al. 2016; Cohen et al. 2017)). The 3- and 6-mo metrics previously applied to estimate long-term O₃ health burdens do not account for O₃ exposure that occurs during the rest of the year, which varies differently between regions. For example, at northern midlatitudes, including North America, Europe, and northeast China, there is substantial annual O₃ variation, with a peak during spring months. In contrast, closer to the equator, there is less annual variation in O₃ concentrations (Monks et al. 2015). Hence annual averaged O₃ concentrations are substantially lower than 3- or 6-mo concentrations at northern midlatitudes compared with closer to the equator (Figure 2, Table 1). This work shows that when O₃ exposure across the whole year is taken into account the spatial distribution of estimated O₃-attributable respiratory mortality shifts in from the northern midlatitudes towards the equator, compared with previous analyses that quantified O₃ exposure only during part of the year. Consequently, the relative increase in estimated long-term O₃ attributable respiratory mortality using the T2016 compared with J2009 method was 134–165% for India, compared with 105–128% for China, 112–143% for North America and 101–148% for Europe.

The T2016 relative risk estimates used in the present analysis were derived using improved O₃ exposure estimates that combined monitored data with photochemical model output (Turner et al. 2016). In addition, we used T2016 relative risk estimates from multi-pollutant models adjusted for NO₂ and for “near-source” and “regional” PM_{2.5} that have different correlation structures with O₃. In contrast, previous global estimates of long-term O₃-attributable deaths used J2009 relative risk estimates from a single-pollutant model [e.g., GBD 2015 Risk Factors Collaborators 2016], or a multi-pollutant model adjusted for total PM_{2.5} concentrations only (e.g., Anenberg et al. (2010)], but within which there was a moderate correlation between O₃ and PM_{2.5} exposure estimates. Hence the long-term O₃-attributable death estimates presented in this work should be more independent of health burdens associated with exposure to PM_{2.5} and NO₂.

Additionally, the consistency of the association between exposure to fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) and mortality in multiple ACS CPS-II cohort analyses to different estimates of O₃ exposure suggests that the stronger relationship between long-term O₃ exposure and attributable mortality in Turner et al. (2016) may

represent an additional contribution to the outdoor air pollution health burden, as opposed to a reattribution of PM_{2.5}-associated premature deaths to long-term O₃ exposure. For example, the relative risk estimates derived in Turner et al. (2016) between long-term PM_{2.5} exposure and all-cause mortality [HR for a 10-μg m⁻³ increase in PM_{2.5} concentration, single-pollutant model: 1.07 (95% CI: 1.06, 1.09) multipollutant model using alternative estimate of PM_{2.5} exposure: 1.06 (95% CI: 1.04, 1.08)] was similar to that derived in the Krewski et al. (2009) [HR: 1.06 (95% CI: 1.04, 1.08)], and Pope et al. (2002) [HR: 1.06 (95% CI: 1.02, 1.11)] analyses of the ACS CPS-II cohort.

Turner et al. (2016) also calculated a significant association with cardiovascular mortality in addition to the significant association calculated between long-term O₃ exposure and respiratory mortality. This is in contrast to Jerrett et al. (2009) where a significant inverse relationship between long-term O₃ exposure and cardiovascular mortality was calculated. The evidence for associations, and causal linkages, between long-term O₃ exposure and cardiovascular mortality has been reviewed by the WHO and the U.S. EPA (REVIHAAP 2013; U.S. EPA 2013). REVIHAAP (2013) identified three cohort studies that estimated a significant relationship between long-term O₃ exposure and mortality, which includes, or is a subset of, cardiovascular mortality. One study calculated an association with ischemic heart disease (IHD) (Lipsett et al. 2011), one study with cardiopulmonary disease (Smith et al. 2009a), and one with congestive heart failure (Zanobetti and Schwartz 2011). Based on the evidence from a limited number of epidemiological and toxicological studies, the U.S. EPA concluded that the available evidence is only “suggestive of a causal relationship between long-term exposure to O₃ and cardiovascular effects” (U.S. EPA 2013), whereas Prueitt et al. (2014) concluded that the evidence from epidemiological, and human and animal toxicological studies is “below equipoise,” that is, not sufficient to conclude that a causal relationship is as least as likely as not. Hence because the evidence for a causal association between long-term O₃ exposure and cardiovascular mortality is limited compared with respiratory mortality, we did not estimate the global impact of long-term O₃ exposure on cardiovascular mortality. However, if additional evidence shows that the T2016 relative risk estimate between long-term O₃ exposure and cardiovascular mortality is valid (Schwartz 2016), then the inclusion of cardiovascular mortality would increase the estimated O₃ health burden further.

Uncertainties

Limitations of this study include estimation of long-term O₃ exposure using a single global chemistry transport model at global grid resolution (2 × 2.5°, 221 × 278 km at the equator), that does not account for local-scale variability in O₃ concentrations (Monks et al. 2015). However, previous studies indicate only a modest effect of grid spatial resolution on O₃ attributable mortality estimates because the spatial gradients in O₃ concentrations are typically smoother than those of population distribution. Pungert and West (2013) calculated a less than 6% increase in O₃ attributable mortality estimates in the United States, when derived using modeled O₃ concentrations at a 100–400 km grid scale compared with the finest (12 km) resolution. Furthermore, using GEOS-Chem, we obtained similar long-term O₃-attributable death estimates to previous studies using consistent methods (including the GBD, see Table S3), based on J2009 relationships, including those using chemical transport models with finer grid resolution (see Table S3).

Compared with 1,420 monitoring sites globally (85% of which were in the United States), a mean bias of +10.8 ppb was calculated for GEOS-Chem, which was consistent with biases

estimated in other global models as part of multi-model comparison projects (Yan et al. 2016). This bias was identified by Yan et al. (2016) to be partly due to small scale nonlinear chemical processes that are not captured at the grid resolution of the GEOS-Chem model used here. Similarly, in China, where some of the highest health burdens were estimated, a positive bias was calculated in comparison with available measurements, for example, Zhu and Liao (2016): mean bias of +11.6% based on monitoring data from 10 Chinese sites (i.e., GEOS-Chem modeled O₃ concentrations were on average 11.6% higher than the measured concentration), and Lou et al. (2014): mean bias of +9% compared with data from 12 Chinese sites. Hence, accounting for these smaller-scale nonlinear processes in the GEOS-Chem global model, and in global models in general, may therefore yield somewhat lower estimates of O₃ exposure than estimated in this study. Ongoing efforts to harmonize and synthesize available measurement data worldwide will be particularly useful to extend model-measurement comparison with other regions (including those with the highest estimated O₃ health burdens) (Cooper et al. 2014; <http://www.igacproject.org/TOAR>), as is further work to increase global monitoring data coverage. Further evaluation of modeled O₃ exposure estimates through inter-model and measurement comparisons is also warranted.

Consistent with previous analyses of the GBD, we used relative risk estimates derived from a U.S. cohort to estimate mortality attributable to long-term O₃ exposure throughout the world. This assumes that the relative risk estimates for the ACS CPS-II population are transferable to all populations globally, for which the prevalence of other risk factors for respiratory mortality, such as socioeconomic status, access to health care, nutrition, race/ethnicity, education, and other competing risks may be different from the predominantly white, high-school educated CPS-II cohort population. Although Turner et al. (2016) adjusted for many of these confounders in analyzing the ACS CPS-II cohort, a limitation of this study is the application of the T2016 relative risk estimates to populations where the distribution of these risk factors is likely to be substantially different from the distribution across the ACS CPS-II population. The two European cohort studies that have assessed long-term O₃ exposure and mortality estimated null or negative associations between O₃ exposure and respiratory mortality (Bentayeb et al. 2015; Carey et al. 2013), and no such cohort studies have been conducted outside North America and Europe (Atkinson et al. 2016). In some regions, our modeled annual daily maximum 8-h O₃ concentrations (Table 1; see also Figure S1) were higher than for the Turner et al. (2016) cohort (maximum estimated exposure of Turner et al. (2016) cohort: 59.3 ppb). The T2016 HRs for ozone and mortality reported by Turner et al. (2016) were based on estimated O₃ exposures in the United States during 2002–2004, at the end of a 24-y period during which O₃ precursor emissions decreased substantially in the United States (Simon et al. 2015). Their application to regions with increasing O₃ precursor emissions since the 1980s is therefore uncertain (Monks et al. 2015). Further investigation is required to determine the relationship between changing long-term O₃ exposure and mortality in regions with increasing emissions.

Finally, potential interactions between exposure to O₃ and other pollutants (e.g., PM_{2.5}) and impacts on mortality were not considered by Turner et al. (2016). Hence long-term O₃-attributed mortality estimates reported here assume independence of effects of each pollutant. As additional epidemiological data becomes available on potential interactions between exposure to O₃ and PM_{2.5} (and other pollutants), or on the transferability of effect estimates between regions, long-term O₃-attributable mortality estimates should be updated to account for the improved understanding of these aspects of O₃ impacts on mortality.

Conclusions

To evaluate the overall outdoor air pollution health burden, mortality attributable to O₃ and PM_{2.5} exposure has been estimated at global (Anenberg et al. 2010; Fang et al. 2013b; GBD 2013 Risk Factors Collaborators 2015; Lelieveld et al. 2015; Likhvar et al. 2015; Silva et al. 2013), regional (Crippa et al. 2016), and national scales (Caiazzo et al. 2013; Fann et al. 2012; Kim et al. 2015), and many studies have used relative risk estimates derived from the ACS CPS-II cohort (Jerrett et al. 2009) to estimate mortality attributable to ozone air pollution in adults ≥30 y of age. Our findings suggest that the potential impact of long-term O₃ exposure on respiratory mortality is substantially higher when respiratory deaths attributable to long-term O₃ exposure are estimated using updated relative risks, exposure metrics, and low-concentration thresholds from the ACS CPS-II cohort (Turner et al. 2016). We estimated 1.04–1.23 million long-term O₃ attributable respiratory deaths using the updated assumptions, a 126–161% increase from estimates derived using assumptions based on an earlier analysis of the ACS CPS-II cohort (Jerrett et al. 2009). This study indicates that reducing O₃ exposure, for example, through reduction of precursor emissions (i.e., methane, NO_x, VOCs, and CO), could have substantially greater benefits than previously quantified in reducing the overall global burden of disease attributable to outdoor air pollution. Furthermore, human health co-benefits from climate mitigation policies (Anenberg et al. 2012; Shindell et al. 2012, 2016; West et al. 2013), and health burdens from climate-driven changes in O₃ concentrations (Fang et al. 2013a; Silva et al. 2016b; Zhu and Liao 2016) may also be greater than previously estimated.

Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to N. Fann for helpful discussions regarding this work.

This work was supported by the Stockholm Environment Institute (SEI) Low Emissions Development Pathways (LED-P) Initiative and NASA Health and Air Quality Applied Sciences Team grant NNX16AQ26G. M.C.T. was funded by a Canadian Institutes of Health Research Fellowship.

References

- Anenberg SC, Horowitz LW, Tong DQ, West JJ. 2010. An estimate of the global burden of anthropogenic ozone and fine particulate matter on premature human mortality using atmospheric modeling. *Environ Health Perspect* 118(9):1189–1195, PMID: 20382579, <https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.0901220>.
- Anenberg SC, Schwartz J, Shindell D, Amann M, Faluvegi G, Klimont Z, et al. 2012. Global air quality and health co-benefits of mitigating near-term climate change through methane and black carbon emission controls. *Environ Health Perspect* 120(6):831–839, PMID: 22418651, <https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.1104301>.
- Atkinson RW, Butland BK, Dimitroulopoulou C, Heal MR, Stedman JR, Carslaw N, et al. 2016. Long-term exposure to ambient ozone and mortality: a quantitative systematic review and meta-analysis of evidence from cohort studies. *BMJ Open* 6(2):e009493, PMID: 26908518, <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2015-009493>.
- Bentayeb M, Wagner V, Stempfelet M, Zins M, Goldberg M, Pascal M, et al. 2015. Association between long-term exposure to air pollution and mortality in France: a 25-year follow-up study. *Environ Int* 85:5–14, PMID: 26298834, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2015.08.006>.
- Bey I, Jacob DJ, Yantosca RM, Logan JA, Field BD, Fiore AM, et al. 2001. Global modeling of tropospheric chemistry with assimilated meteorology: model description and evaluation. *J Geophys Res* 106(D19):23073–23095, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2001JD000807>.
- Brauer M, Freedman G, Frostad J, van Donkelaar A, Martin RV, Dentener F, et al. 2016. Ambient air pollution exposure estimation for the Global Burden of Disease 2013. *Environ Sci Technol* 50(1):79–88, PMID: 26595236, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.5b03709>.
- Caiazzo F, Ashok A, Waitz IA, Yim SHL, Barrett SRH. 2013. Air pollution and early deaths in the United States. Part I: quantifying the impact of major sectors in 2005. *Atmos. Environ* 79:198–208, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2013.05.081>.
- Carey IM, Atkinson RW, Kent AJ, van Staa T, Cook DG, Anderson HR. 2013. Mortality associations with long-term exposure to outdoor air pollution in a national English cohort. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 187(11):1226–1233, PMID: 23590261, <https://doi.org/10.1164/rccm.2012.10-1758OC>.
- CIESIN-FAO-CIAT [(Center for International Earth Science Information Network (CIAT); Columbia University, United Nations Food and Agriculture Programme (FAO); Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical (CIAT)]. 2005. Gridded Population of the World, Version 3 (GPWv3): Population Count Grid. Palisades, NY:NASA Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7927/H4639MPP> [accessed 7 July 2017].
- Cohen AJ, Brauer M, Burnett RT, Anderson HR, Frostad J, Estep K, et al. 2017. Estimates and 25-year trends of the global burden of disease attributable to ambient air pollution: an analysis of data from the Global Burden of Diseases Study 2015. *Lancet* 389(10082):1907–1918, PMID: 28408086, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(17\)30505-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(17)30505-6).
- Cooper OR, Parrish DD, Ziemke J, Balashov NV, Cupeiro M, Galbally IE, et al. 2014. Global distribution and trends of tropospheric ozone: an observation-based review. *Elem Sci Anth* 2:29, <https://doi.org/10.12952/journal.elementa.000029>.
- Crippa M, Janssens-Maenhout G, Dentener F, Guizzardi D, Sindelarova K, Muntean M, et al. 2016. Forty years of improvements in European air quality: regional policy-industry interactions with global impacts. *Atmos Chem Phys* 16:3825–3841, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-16-3825-2016>.
- Fang Y, Mauzerall DL, Liu JF, Fiore AM, Horowitz LW. 2013a. Impacts of 21st century climate change on global air pollution-related premature mortality. *Clim Change* 121(2):239–253, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-013-0847-8>.
- Fang Y, Naik V, Horowitz LW, Mauzerall DL. 2013b. Air pollution and associated human mortality: the role of air pollutant emissions, climate change and methane concentration increases from the preindustrial period to present. *Atmos Chem Phys* 13:1377–1394, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-13-1377-2013>.
- Fann N, Lamson AD, Anenberg SC, Wesson K, Risley D, Hubbell BJ. 2012. Estimating the national public health burden associated with exposure to ambient PM_{2.5} and ozone. *Risk Anal* 32(1):81–95, PMID: 21627672, <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1539-6924.2011.01630.x>.
- GBD 2013 Risk Factors Collaborators. 2015. Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 79 behavioural, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks in 188 countries, 1990–2013: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *Lancet* 386(10010):2287–2323, PMID: 26364544, [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736\(15\)00128-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736(15)00128-2).
- GBD 2015 Mortality and Causes of Death Collaborators. 2016. Global, regional, and national life expectancy, all-cause mortality, and cause-specific mortality for 249 causes of death, 1980–2015: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2015. *Lancet* 388(10053):1459–1544, PMID: 27733281, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(16\)31012-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(16)31012-1).
- GBD 2015 Risk Factors Collaborators. 2016. Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 79 behavioural, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks, 1990–2015: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2015. *Lancet* 388(10053):1659–1724, PMID: 27733284, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(16\)31679-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(16)31679-8).
- Jacquemin B, Kauffmann F, Pin I, Le Moual N, Bousquet J, Gormand F, et al. 2012. Air pollution and asthma control in the Epidemiological study on the Genetics and Environment of Asthma. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 66(9):796–802, PMID: 21690606, <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.2010.130229>.
- Janssens-Maenhout G, Crippa M, Guizzardi D, Dentener F, Muntean M, Pouliot G, et al. 2015. HTAP_v2.2: a mosaic of regional and global emission grid maps for 2008 and 2010 to study hemispheric transport of air pollution. *Atmos Chem Phys* 15:11411–11432, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-15-11411-2015>.
- Jerrett M, Burnett RT, Pope CA III, Ito K, Thurston G, Krewski D, et al. 2009. Long-term ozone exposure and mortality. *N Engl J Med* 360(11):1085–1095, PMID: 19279340, <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa0803894>.
- Kim YM, Zhou Y, Gao Y, Fu JS, Johnson BA, Huang C, et al. 2015. Spatially resolved estimation of ozone-related mortality in the United States under two Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) and their uncertainty. *Clim Change* 128(1–2):71–84, PMID: 25530644, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-014-1290-1>.
- Krewski D, Jerrett M, Burnett RT, Ma R, Hughes E, Shi Y, et al. 2009. *Extended Follow-up and Spatial Analysis of the American Cancer Society Study Linking Particulate Air Pollution and Mortality*. Boston, MA:Health Effects Institute.
- Lapina K, Henze DK, Milford JB, Huang M, Lin M, Fiore AM, et al. 2014. Assessment of source contributions to seasonal vegetative exposure to ozone in the U.S. *J Geophys Res Atmos* 119:324–340, <https://doi.org/10.1002/2013JD020905>.
- Lelieveld J, Evans JS, Fnais M, Giannadaki D, Pozzer A. 2015. The contribution of outdoor air pollution sources to premature mortality on a global scale. *Nature* 525(7569):367–371, PMID: 26381985, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature15371>.
- Likhvar VN, Pascal M, Markakis K, Colette A, Hauglustaine D, Valari M, et al. 2015. A multi-scale health impact assessment of air pollution over the 21st century. *Sci Total Environ* 514:439–449, PMID: 25687670, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.02.002>.

- Lim SS, Vos T, Flaxman AD, Danaei G, Shibuya K, Adair-Rohani H, et al. 2012. A comparative risk assessment of burden of disease and injury attributable to 67 risk factors and risk factor clusters in 21 regions, 1990–2010: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2010. *Lancet* 380(9859):2224–2260, PMID: 23245609, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(12\)61766-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(12)61766-8).
- Lin S, Liu X, Le LH, Hwang SA. 2008. Chronic exposure to ambient ozone and asthma hospital admissions among children. *Environ Health Perspect* 116(12):1725–1730, PMID: 19079727, <https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.11184>.
- Lipsett MJ, Ostro BD, Reynolds P, Goldberg D, Hertz A, Jerrett M, et al. 2011. Long-term exposure to air pollution and cardiorespiratory disease in the California Teachers Study cohort. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 184(7):828–835, PMID: 21700913, <https://doi.org/10.1164/rccm.201012-2082OC>.
- Lou S, Liao H, Zhu B. 2014. Impacts of aerosols on surface-layer ozone concentrations in China through heterogeneous reactions and changes in photolysis rates. *Atmos Environ* 85:123–138, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2013.12.004>.
- Malig BJ, Pearson DL, Chang YB, Broadwin R, Basu R, Green RS, et al. 2016. A time-stratified case-crossover study of ambient ozone exposure and emergency department visits for specific respiratory diagnoses in California (2005–2008). *Environ Health Perspect* 124(6):745–753, PMID: 26647366, <https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.1409495>.
- Medina-Ramón M, Zanobetti A, Cavanagh DP, Schwartz J. 2006. Extreme temperatures and mortality: assessing effect modification by personal characteristics and specific cause of death in a multi-city case-only analysis. *Environ Health Perspect* 114(9):1331–1336, PMID: 16966084, <https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.9074>.
- Meng Y, Rull RP, Wilhelm M, Lombardi C, Balmes J, Ritz B. 2010. Outdoor air pollution and uncontrolled asthma in the San Joaquin Valley, California. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 64(2):142–147, PMID: 20056967, <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.2009.083576>.
- Monks PS, Archibald AT, Colette A, Cooper O, Coyle M, Derwent R, et al. 2015. Tropospheric ozone and its precursors from the urban to the global scale from air quality to short-lived climate forcer. *Atmos Chem Phys* 15:8889–8973, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-15-8889-2015>.
- Parker JD, Akinbami LJ, Woodruff TJ. 2009. Air pollution and childhood respiratory allergies in the United States. *Environ Health Perspect* 117(1):140–147, PMID: 19165401, <https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.11497>.
- Pope CA III, Burnett RT, Thun MJ, Calle EE, Krewski D, Ito K, et al. 2002. Lung cancer, cardiopulmonary mortality, and long-term exposure to fine particulate air pollution. *JAMA* 287:1132–1141, PMID: 11879110, <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.287.9.1132>.
- Prueitt RL, Lynch HN, Zu K, Sax SN, Venditti FJ, Goodman JE. 2014. Weight-of-evidence evaluation of long-term ozone exposure and cardiovascular effects. *Crit Rev Toxicol* 44(9):791–822, PMID: 25257962, <https://doi.org/10.3109/10408444.2014.937855>.
- Punger EM, West JJ. 2013. The effect of grid resolution on estimates of the burden of ozone and fine particulate matter on premature mortality in the USA. *Air Qual Atmos Health* 6(3):563–573, PMID: 24348882, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11869-013-0197-8>.
- REVIHAAP (Review of Evidence on Health Aspects of Air Pollution). 2013. Review of Evidence on Health Aspects of Air Pollution – REVIHAAP Project Technical Report. Bonn, Germany:World Health Organization (WHO) Regional Office for Europe. http://www.euro.who.int/_data/assets/pdf_file/0004/193108/REVIHAAP-Final-technical-report-final-version.pdf?ua=1.
- Schwartz J. 2016. The year of ozone. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 193(10):1077–1079, PMID: 27174475, <https://doi.org/10.1164/rccm.201512-2533ED>.
- Shindell D, Kuylenstierna JC, Vignati E, van Dingenen R, Amann M, Klimont Z, et al. 2012. Simultaneously mitigating near-term climate change and improving human health and food security. *Science* 335(6065):183–189, PMID: 22246768, <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1210026>.
- Shindell DT, Lee Y, Faluvegi G. 2016. Climate and health impacts of US emissions reductions consistent with 2°C. *Nature Clim Change* 6:503–507, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate2935>.
- Silva RA, Adelman Z, Fry MM, West JJ. 2016a. The impact of individual anthropogenic emissions sectors on the global burden of human mortality due to ambient air pollution. *Environ Health Perspect* 124(11):1776–1784, PMID: 27177206, <https://doi.org/10.1289/EHP177>.
- Silva RA, West JJ, Lamarque JF, Shindell DT, Collins WJ, Dalsoren S, et al. 2016b. The effect of future ambient air pollution on human premature mortality to 2100 using output from the ACCMIP model ensemble. *Atmos Chem Phys* 16:9847–9862.
- Silva RA, West JJ, Zhang Y, Anenberg SC, Lamarque JF, Shindell DT, et al. 2013. Global premature mortality due to anthropogenic outdoor air pollution and the contribution of past climate change. *Environ Res Lett* 8(3):034005, <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/8/3/034005>.
- Simon H, Reff A, Wells B, Xing J, Frank N. 2015. Ozone trends across the United States over a period of decreasing NOx and VOC emissions. *Environ Sci Technol* 49(1):186–195, PMID: 25517137, <https://doi.org/10.1021/es504514z>.
- Smith KR, Jerrett M, Anderson HR, Burnett RT, Stone V, Derwent R, et al. 2009a. Public health benefits of strategies to reduce greenhouse-gas emissions: health implications of short-lived greenhouse pollutants. *Lancet* 374(9707):2091–2103, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(09\)61716-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(09)61716-5).
- Smith RL, Xu B, Switzer P. 2009b. Reassessing the relationship between ozone and short-term mortality in U.S. urban communities. *Inhal Toxicol* 21(suppl 2):37–61, PMID: 19731973, <https://doi.org/10.1080/08958370903161612>.
- Turner MC, Jerrett M, Pope CA III, Krewski D, Gapstur SM, Diver WR, et al. 2016. Long-term ozone exposure and mortality in a large prospective study. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 193(10):1134–1142, PMID: 26680605, <https://doi.org/10.1164/rccm.201508-1633OC>.
- U.S. EPA (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency). 2013. 2013 Final Report: Integrated Science Assessment of Ozone and Related Photochemical Oxidants. Washington, DC:U.S. EPA. EPA/600/R-10/076F.
- West JJ, Smith SJ, Silva RA, Naik V, Zhang Y, Adelman Z, et al. 2013. Co-benefits of mitigating global greenhouse gas emissions for future air quality and human health. *Nat Clim Chang* 3(10):885–889, PMID: 24926321, <https://doi.org/10.1038/NCLIMATE2009>.
- Yan Y, Lin J, Chen J, Hu L. 2016. Improved simulation of tropospheric ozone by a global-multi-regional two-way coupling model system. *Atmos Chem Phys* 16:2381–2400, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-16-2381-2016>.
- Zanobetti A, Schwartz J. 2006. Air pollution and emergency admissions in Boston, MA. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 60(10):890–895, PMID: 16973538, <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.2005.039834>.
- Zanobetti A, Schwartz J. 2011. Ozone and survival in four cohorts with potentially predisposing diseases. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 184(7):836–841, PMID: 21700916, <https://doi.org/10.1164/rccm.201102-0227OC>.
- Zhu J, Liao H. 2016. Future ozone air quality and radiative forcing over China owing to future changes in emissions under the Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs). *J Geophys Res Atmos* 121(4):1978–2001, <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015JD023926>.