



HHS Public Access

Author manuscript

Scand J Public Health. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2020 August 01.

Published in final edited form as:

Scand J Public Health. 2020 June ; 48(4): 428–435. doi:10.1177/1403494818801615.

Heat-wave related mortality in Sweden: A case-crossover study investigating effect modification by neighbourhood deprivation.

Daniel Oudin Åström¹, Christofer Åström², Bertil Forsberg², Ana M. Vicedo-Cabrera³, Antonio Gasparrini³, Anna Oudin^{2,4}, Kristina Sundquist¹

¹Center for Primary Health Care Research, Department of Clinical Sciences, Malmö, Lund University, Lund, Sweden

²Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden

³Department of Social and Environmental Health Research, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, London, United Kingdom

⁴Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Lund University, Lund, Sweden

Abstract

Background: The present study aimed to investigate if set thresholds in the Swedish heat wave warning system are valid for all parts of Sweden and if the heat wave warning system captures a potential increase in mortality due to all-causes and CHD. An additional aim was to investigate whether neighbourhood deprivation modifies the relationship between heat waves and mortality.

Methods: From 1990 until 2014, in 14 municipalities in Sweden, we collected data on daily maximum temperatures and mortality for the five warmest months. Heat waves were defined according to the categories used in the current Swedish heat warning system. Using a case-crossover approach, we investigated the association between heat waves and mortality in Sweden, as well as a modifying effect of neighbourhood deprivation.

Results: On a national as well as a regional level, heat waves significantly increased mortality, both due to all-causes and CHD by approximately 10 and 15%, respectively. Neighbourhood deprivation did not seem to modify heat wave related mortality due to all causes, whereas for CHD mortality it seemed to modify the risk.

Conclusion: It may not be appropriate to assume that heat waves in Sweden will have the same impact in a northern setting as in a southern, or that the impact of heat waves will be the same in affluent and deprived neighbourhoods. When designing and implementing heat warning systems, neighbourhood, regional and national information should be incorporated.

Corresponding author: Daniel Oudin Åström, Center for Primary Health Care Research, Department of Clinical Sciences, Malmö, Lund University, danielastrom@hotmail.com.

Author contribution:

DOÅ conceived and designed the study, performed the statistical analyses, interpreted the results and wrote the first version of the manuscript. CÅ, AVC, AG and AO helped with the statistical analyses, interpretation of results and critically revised the manuscript. BF and KS interpreted the results and critically revised the manuscript. KS also provided the research infrastructure and helped with the design of the study.

Conflicts of interest.

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

Keywords

Heat Wave; mortality; neighbourhood deprivation; heat warning system

INTRODUCTION

There is an extensive body of evidence concerning the impact of high ambient temperatures and heat waves on mortality [1–4]. The effect of heat on mortality usually corresponds with increases in mortality the same day or one or two days after an increase in temperatures [1]. Even in a colder climate, such as in Sweden, heat-related mortality has been observed [2, 5, 6]. Risks due to high and low temperatures tend to be higher in colder and warmer regions, respectively, which suggests partial adaptation of populations to their own climate [1, 4].

Heat warning systems have been implemented in some countries in order to help relieve some of the negative burdens on public health associated with heat waves, [7]. For instance, due to a new heat warning system, it was estimated that approximately 4400 premature deaths were avoided in France during the 2006 heat wave [8]. In 2013 in Sweden, the Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute (SMHI), initiated a heat wave warning system. The system was designed based on epidemiological data from Stockholm and was set to issue warnings based on when temperatures on three consecutive days were expected to exceed certain thresholds [9]. The thresholds were set to be the same in all parts of the country.

However, a recent study has shown that the relationship between temperature and health, as well as the thresholds at which temperatures become hazardous, varies around the globe and by region [4]. In addition, it has been shown in several studies that neighbourhood characteristics, such as neighbourhood deprivation, are strongly associated with increased total mortality [10], and increased mortality due to coronary heart disease (CHD) [11].

To assume that the impact on mortality is the same in all parts of a country might therefore not be appropriate. To date, most studies investigating the impact of heat waves on mortality in Sweden have been only been conducted in the Swedish capital of Stockholm [2, 5, 12, 13] and have not investigated mortality due to CHD. The aim of the present study was to investigate if set thresholds in the Swedish heat wave warning system are valid for all parts of Sweden and if the heat wave warning system captures the increase in mortality due to CHD. Furthermore, another aim was to investigate whether neighbourhood deprivation modifies the relationship between heat waves and mortality.

MATERIAL AND METHODS.

Data

Temperature data—We collected data from SMHI, for the five warmest months (May, June, July, August and September) from 1990 until 2014. Data on daily maximum temperature for 14 municipalities in Sweden were collected from Malmö, located in the most southern part of Sweden, to Luleå, located in the most northern part of Sweden (Figure 1) [9]. Meteorological data were complete for the municipalities of Lund, Jönköping,

Linköping, Norrköping, Stockholm, Sundsvall and Luleå. For Örebro, Norrköping and Helsingborg, the monitoring stations used at the beginning of the study were discontinued during the study; we then used the replacement station. As an example, for the municipality of Helsingborg, the measuring station moved from one central location to another location approximately four kilometers away from the original one in 1995.

Heat waves—We defined three different heat wave categories based on the three levels of the Swedish heat warning system. A message of high temperatures is issued when daily maximum temperatures are expected to be at least 26°C for three consecutive days. However, this threshold is one degree lower than that used in the epidemiological model, on which the warning system is built, due to a “cold bias” present in the temperature forecasts. In this study, we used 27°C as the threshold for the first warning level. A class 1-warning for very high temperatures is issued when daily maximum temperatures are expected to be at least 30°C for three consecutive days, and a class 2-warning is issued when daily maximum temperatures are expected to be at least 30°C for five consecutive days and/or daily maximum temperatures are expected to be at least 33°C for three consecutive days [9].

We refer to these three heat wave categories as HW_1 , HW_2 and HW_3 .

Mortality data—Mortality data were extracted for the 14 municipalities from the Cause of Death Register provided by The National Board of Health and Welfare. Daily counts of mortality due to all causes, as well as CHD mortality (ICD-9: 410-414, IDC-10: I20-I25) were collected for the municipalities.

Neighbourhood level of deprivation—Based on previously described methods [11], we calculated the neighbourhood deprivation index (NDI) for each neighbourhood of residence (all residential addresses in Sweden have been geocoded into units with an average population of 1,000 to 2,000 inhabitants) within the selected municipalities. NDI is a summary measure based on four variables that indicate deprivation: proportion of inhabitants with low educational status, low income, unemployment and social welfare recipients [11]. These four variables were selected after a principal component analysis of several deprivation indicators used by previous studies to characterize neighborhood deprivation. The index was categorized into three groups: < 1 standard deviation (SD) from the mean (low deprivation), > 1 SD from the mean (high deprivation), and within 1 SD of the mean (moderate deprivation). Lower scores indicate more affluent neighbourhoods, whereas higher scores indicate more deprived neighbourhoods. We then, within each neighbourhood in each municipality, collected the daily counts of mortality due to all causes as well as due to CHD occurring in each of the three categories of neighbourhood deprivation. The number of neighbourhoods included in the study was 2720.

Statistical methods

To investigate the hypothesized association between heat waves and mortality, we used a case-crossover design, where each individual serves as its own control. The case-crossover design thus adjusts for individual time-invariant confounders [14]. Control days were selected within the month and year of the date of death and matched on day of the week.

This selection of control days controls for both seasonality and trends over time as well as potential effects of the day of the week on the mortality patterns in the municipalities [15]. We ran a conditional Poisson regression model with a stratum variable, which yields identical results to those generated from a conditional logistic regression when there is a common exposure across individuals, as is the case in our study where all individuals within the same municipality are assumed to have identical temperature exposure [16]. We used an indicator variable for heat wave and additionally controlled for Swedish public holidays (Yes/No).

We then pooled the municipality specific relative risks (RR) using inverse variance meta-analysis to obtain national level estimates. In addition, we pooled the RRs for the southern, middle and northern parts of Sweden to explore heat wave related mortality in these three regions. Sweden is often divided in three regions (it has been done for centuries), and SMHI uses these regions when issuing warnings.

For each municipality we further stratified the analyses on NDI, where we again pooled the estimates to a regional and a national level. To investigate if neighbourhood deprivation modifies the relationship between heat waves and mortality, we calculated the relative effect modification (REM) and corresponding 95% Confidence Intervals (CI) using the most deprived neighbourhoods as reference [17].

All results are presented as RRs for HW₁ and HW₂, along with their corresponding 95% Confidence Intervals (CI). We did not investigate mortality associated with HW₃ due to the low number of such events.

R version 3.2.3 was used for statistical modelling and for the meta analyses we used the package Meta [18].

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the daily maximum temperatures during the warmest months in Sweden. The percentiles of the local temperature distribution, for a HW₁, ranged from the 92th percentile in Stockholm and Uppsala to the 98th percentile in Luleå. The number of such heat waves days occurring during our study period ranged from four in Luleå to 128 in Stockholm. HW₂ occurred consistently at the 98th and 99th percentiles of the local temperature distribution and all but two municipalities experienced such heat waves during the study period. HW₃ only occurred in Lund (10-12 July 2010) and in Stockholm (28-30 July, 1994), when these cities experienced three consecutive days with temperatures higher than 33°C and in Västerås (4-10 July, 2001) and Uppsala (4-9 July, 2001) when these cities experienced five consecutive days with temperatures in excess of 30°C. Descriptive statistics on the number of daily deaths occurring in each of the municipalities is presented in Supplementary Table 1.

Figure 2 shows the pooled RRs (with 95% CIs) of mortality associated with HW₁ and HW₂ for the three regions as well as on a national level. The national pooled RRs for HW₁ was, for all-cause mortality, 1.08 (95% CI:1.05-1.11) and, for CHD, 1.11 (1.04-1.17) (Figure 2, Supplementary Table 2). To further investigate the impact of heat waves on mortality in the

three regions of Sweden we pooled the heat wave data accordingly. For the two southernmost regions, the pooled RRs were, as expected, similar to the RR on a national level. In the three northernmost cities, i.e. Sundsvall, Umeå and Luleå, the pooled estimate was 1.32 (95% CI: 0.98-1.77), which is higher than in the south, however, not to a statistically significant extent.

On the municipality level, Malmö, Norrköping and Stockholm experienced significantly increased all-cause mortality during such heat waves, whereas an increased CHD-related mortality was only statistically significant in Malmö and Stockholm (Supplementary Table 2).

During HW₂, only Stockholm had a statistically significantly increased mortality due to all-causes. However, in the majority of the cities, the estimated coefficient was positive and the pooled estimate for all-cause mortality was statistically significant on a national level, as well as for the middle region of Sweden. The RRs associated with these heat waves were 1.13 (95% CI: 1.00-1.28) for Stockholm and the pooled RR was 1.15 (95% CI: 1.05-1.26). The northern region only experienced three category 2 heat waves, thus no pooled results are presented (Figure 2, Supplementary Table 2).

In addition, we explored if neighbourhood deprivation modified the effect of heat waves. Due to the low number of deaths occurring in each category of neighbourhood deprivation during the heat waves, we only calculated the pooled estimates on a regional and national level rather than on a municipality level.

Table 2 shows the RRs for each level of neighbourhood deprivation associated with the two first categories of heat waves. We found no evidence of a modifying effect on a regional or national level for all-cause mortality; this was the case for both categories of heat waves. However, for CHD and on a national level, we found significantly higher RRs for the most deprived neighbourhoods as compared to the more affluent ones during HW₁; The REM index was 1.19 (95% CI: 1.03-1.41) and 1.29 (95% CI: 1.09-1.52) when comparing the most deprived neighbourhoods to the medium deprived and most affluent neighbourhoods, respectively.

DISCUSSION

The present study investigated heat wave-related mortality in 14 different municipalities located from north to south in Sweden, where most previous studies on heat wave related mortality have only been performed in the Swedish capital of Stockholm. Three consecutive days of temperatures above 27°C, which occurred in all municipalities, increased mortality on a national level by approximately 8% as compared to normal day temperatures during the warmest months. The magnitude of this estimate is similar to what has previously been reported for the county of Stockholm only. Using the same metric as in our present study, Rocklöv et al (2012) reported increased mortality during heat waves in the magnitude of approximately 8-11% [19]. Åström et al (2015) investigated the health impact of temperatures between 27 and 30°C and found an estimated increase in mortality rates of between 4.3 and 10% [20]. More recently, Oudin Åström et al, reported an increase in

mortality rates of approximately 3-5% on days during a heat wave [2, 5], and among the population above 50 years in Stockholm county the increase in mortality rates was found to be approximately 8% on days during a heat wave [6].

All but two municipalities, Luleå and Helsingborg, experienced HW₂ during the study period. In this study, we identified 82 such days over a 25-year period. Statistically significantly increased all-cause mortality was found in Stockholm only. We found a non-significant increase in all-cause and CHD mortality in 9 out of the 14 municipalities. On a national level, however, the 15% increase in all-cause mortality was significant, whereas the point estimate for CHD mortality was the same but not significant. On a municipal level, this uncertainty may be due to the relatively low number of heat waves occurring in each municipality. Our results should thus, on a municipality level, be interpreted with caution.

Our data shows that neighbourhood deprivation may modify the risk of mortality due to CHD during HW₁ in Sweden, as the pooled RR on a national level was significantly higher for the most deprived neighbourhoods as compared to relatively more affluent neighbourhoods. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study reporting an effect modification by neighbourhood deprivation on CHD mortality during heat waves on a national level. Interestingly, for the Czech Republic, Urban et al (2016) reported no modifying effect of socioeconomic status on a national level; however, when comparing districts with high and low socioeconomic status, socioeconomic conditions seemed to have an influence on excess mortality [21]. Our finding of no modifying neighbourhood effect for all-cause mortality is in line with a number of European studies as well as one previous study from Stockholm. Studies from the UK and Italy have reported limited evidence of a modifying effect of neighbourhoods on mortality [22, 23]. In addition, Rocklöv et al (2014), categorized municipal wealth in Sweden based on average wealth per person and found no difference between wealthy and deprived municipalities [24]. However, this was performed for Stockholm only, whereas our study is based on national data and a more complex index of neighbourhood deprivation. Rey et al (2009) reported that the residents in the most deprived cantons of Paris had twice as high mortality rates than those residing in the least deprived cantons during the heat wave of 2003 and suggested that the results of their study indicated that the most deprived populations were more vulnerable to heat waves than the least deprived populations [25]. Our results are partially in agreement with Rey et al. (2009) as we found that neighbourhood deprivation modifies the effect of HW₁ on mortality due to CHD but not on mortality due to all-causes. One possible explanation behind our finding of a modifying effect on CHD mortality but not on all-cause mortality is that individuals with increased susceptibility to heat may, to a greater extent, reside in deprived neighbourhoods than other individuals do. Heat exposure may also differ between affluent and deprived neighbourhoods, which may partially explain the observed differences in effects. Furthermore, the modifying effect of neighbourhood deprivation on mortality was only found during HW₁ and not during the more extreme heat waves. This may be due to smaller sizes of the susceptible population, as many individuals with heightened susceptibility may have already succumbed to the effects of heat.

The present study makes several novel contributions to the field as some of the municipalities investigated are the northernmost regions, which may have worldwide

implications. In Luleå, (latitude 65.3°N), Umeå (latitude 63.5°N) and Sundsvall (latitude 62.2°N), the mortality on warm days increased by approximately 30% as compared to other days during the warmest months, however, only borderline significantly so (pooled RR 1.32 (95% CI: 0.98-1.77)). These cities are relatively small and had the least number of days above the thresholds in the Swedish heat wave warning system. The relatively low power in the estimates makes it difficult to draw any clear conclusions from our findings, although our findings seem to be in line with those of Revish and Shaposhnikov (2001), who investigated the impact of heat waves on mortality in four cities in northern Russia (Archangelsk, latitude 64.3°N, Murmansk, latitude 68.6°N, Yakutsk, latitude 62.0°N and Magadan, latitude 59.3°N), and reported a pooled RR of 1.44 (95% CI: 1.27-1.57) [26]. Heat waves may thus have an additional detrimental effect on health among populations less accustomed to such events, as is the case on these northern latitudes. This suggests that ongoing acclimatization and adaptation processes may differ within countries and that it would be suitable to develop regional guidelines as a complement to the national heat warning system.

To date, only a few regions in Sweden have developed preventive work plans in anticipation of and during heat waves. Currently, the Swedish heat warning system is set on alert when temperatures are expected to exceed 26 °C for more than three consecutive days. During the study period, this happened in all municipalities. However, this warning level is aimed mainly towards care facilities and hospitals and does not trigger a warning to the public. The Swedish heat wave warning system was developed using data from the Stockholm region only. As this study indicates, the statistical power needed to detect any increases in mortality is only present in Stockholm. However, three cities (Stockholm, Malmö and Norrköping) were found to have positive effect estimates and significant increases in mortality. In addition, the pooled estimates on a regional level suggest an increased mortality from the southern to the northern regions.

With the ongoing climate change and an increasingly elderly and more frail population, the need for relevant preventive actions is clear. The events found to be rare or non-existent in parts of Sweden are likely to increase in the relatively near future. The changing climate is expected to double the exposure to hazardous temperatures by the middle of the 21st-century [27]. The changing climate is one component of the future health burden from high temperatures. Along with the increase in temperatures and a more elderly population, studies from Sweden have indicated that the resilience to heat in Sweden might have decreased over the last two decades [5, 6]. As the Swedish heat warning system was only implemented in 2013, we are not currently able to evaluate any possible effects on mortality following its introduction. The effectiveness of heat wave warning systems has been evaluated in other settings, however, and a majority of studies do report lower mortality due to heat after the implementation of such warning systems [8, 28]. However, methodological challenges often restrict the value of published evaluations, and what conclusions that can be drawn are disputed [28].

Strengths and limitations.

One of the main strengths of the current study is the long and well defined time series of daily temperature and mortality data for 14 municipalities from north to south in Sweden

covering 25 years from 1990 to 2014. The number of missing observations were, for most stations, few. Another strength is that we investigated both all-cause mortality and mortality due to CHD. The validity of the Swedish death registers can be considered high and thus misclassification of deaths due to CHD should be limited [29].

A limitation of the study may be that a single monitoring station in each municipality was used to describe temperature exposure for the residents. This is, however, a standard procedure in previous studies on temperature and health, but the exposure measure is clearly prone to misclassification. Not only can the temperature vary within a municipality, housing conditions and time spent indoors naturally affect people's actual exposure. If exposure misclassification is related to the outcome the bias could cause false positive results [30], for example, if people with worse health, who have a higher probability of dying, would be less likely to leave their homes than people with better health. Furthermore, if their disease was exacerbated by high temperatures, the worsening in health could either cause them to not go out, thus avoiding exposure, or seek emergency care. It is thus very difficult to speculate on the size or direction of bias caused by such exposure misclassification, but we cannot rule out that exposure misclassification has biased our effect estimates. Furthermore, bias caused by exposure misclassification could potentially differ between municipalities, as many of the measuring stations were located in more urban settings whereas a number of other stations were located in other settings, such as at the local airport, thereby making direct comparisons between municipalities more difficult.

Another limitation that must be mentioned is the small sample size of daily mortality in a number of municipalities, resulting in imprecise estimates on a municipal level. This was further an issue due to the fact that in some, especially northern, municipalities heat waves were less frequent.

CONCLUSION

This study investigated the impact of heat waves on mortality in 14 municipalities located from south to north in Sweden. Our data suggests strong evidence of an effect of heat waves on mortality due to all-causes as well as due to CHD, regionally and nationally, even in a country located as far north as Sweden. Our results suggest that it may not be appropriate to assume that heat waves in Sweden will have the same impact on mortality throughout the country, as the effect of heat may occur at lower temperatures in northern regions as compared to southern regions. Furthermore, it may not be appropriate to assume that the impact of heat waves will be the same in affluent and deprived neighbourhoods. When designing and implementing heat warning systems, neighbourhood, regional and national information should be incorporated.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

Funding

Grants: To Kristina Sundquist from The Swedish Research Council and the National Heart, Lung, And Blood Institute of the National Institutes of Health under Award Number R01HL116381

Christofer Åström and Bertil Forsberg were supported by the Swedish Public Health Agency Contract 01127-2017-3.4.1.

Antonio Gasparrini was supported by the Medical Research Council UK (Grant ID: MR/M022625/1) and by the Natural Environment Research Council (Grant ID: NE/R009384/1)

The authors declare that the funding sources had no involvement in the study.

REFERENCES

1. Anderson BG and Bell ML, Weather-related mortality: how heat, cold, and heat waves affect mortality in the United States. *Epidemiology (Cambridge, Mass.)*, 2009 20(2): p. 205.
2. Åström DO, et al., Acute fatal effects of short-lasting extreme temperatures in Stockholm, Sweden: evidence across a century of change. *Epidemiology*, 2013 24(6): p. 820–829. [PubMed: 24051892]
3. Zhang Y, et al. Impact of temperature on mortality in Hubei, China: a multi-county time series analysis. *Scientific reports 2017 7*: 45093. [PubMed: 28327609]
4. Guo Y, et al., Global variation in the effects of ambient temperature on mortality: a systematic evaluation. *Epidemiology*, 2014 25(6): p. 781–789. [PubMed: 25166878]
5. Åström DO, et al., Attributing mortality from extreme temperatures to climate change in Stockholm, Sweden. *Nature Climate Change*, 2013 3(12): p. 1050–1054.
6. Åström DO, et al., The effect of heat waves on mortality in susceptible groups: a cohort study of a mediterranean and a northern European City. *Environmental Health*, 2015 14(1): p. 30. [PubMed: 25889290]
7. Lowe D, Ebi KL, and Forsberg B, Heatwave early warning systems and adaptation advice to reduce human health consequences of heatwaves. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 2011 8(12): p. 4623–4648. [PubMed: 22408593]
8. Fouillet A, et al., Has the impact of heat waves on mortality changed in France since the European heat wave of summer 2003? A study of the 2006 heat wave. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 2008 37(2): p. 309–317. [PubMed: 18194962]
9. SMHI. www.smhi.se Accessed 2018-05-21
10. Meijer M, et al., Do neighborhoods affect individual mortality? A systematic review and meta-analysis of multilevel studies. *Social science & medicine*, 2012 74(8): p. 1204–1212. [PubMed: 22365939]
11. Winkleby M, Sundquist K, and Cubbin C, Inequities in CHD incidence and case fatality by neighborhood deprivation. *American journal of preventive medicine*, 2007 32(2): p. 97–106. [PubMed: 17234484]
12. Rocklöv J and Forsberg B, The effect of temperature on mortality in Stockholm 1998–2003: A study of lag structures and heatwave effects. *Scandinavian Journal of Social Medicine*, 2008 36(5): p. 516–523.
13. Rocklöv J, Ebi K, and Forsberg B, Mortality related to temperature and persistent extreme temperatures: a study of cause-specific and age-stratified mortality. *Occup Environ Med*, 2011 68(7): p. 531–6. [PubMed: 20962034]
14. Maclure M, The case-crossover design: a method for studying transient effects on the risk of acute events. *American journal of epidemiology*, 1991 133(2): p. 144–153. [PubMed: 1985444]
15. Janes H, Sheppard L, and Lumley T, Overlap bias in the case-crossover design, with application to air pollution exposures. *Statistics in medicine*, 2005 24(2): p. 285–300. [PubMed: 15546133]
16. Armstrong BG, Gasparrini A, and Tobias A, Conditional Poisson models: a flexible alternative to conditional logistic case cross-over analysis. *BMC medical research methodology*, 2014 14(1): p. 122. [PubMed: 25417555]
17. Altman DG and Bland JM, *Statistics Notes: Interaction revisited: the difference between two estimates*. *BMJ: British Medical Journal*, 2003 326(7382): p. 219. [PubMed: 12543843]
18. Schwarzer G, meta: An R package for meta-analysis. *R News*, 2007 7(3): p. 40–45.

19. Rocklöv J, Barnett AG, and Woodward A, On the estimation of heat-intensity and heat-duration effects in time series models of temperature-related mortality in Stockholm, Sweden. *Environmental Health*, 2012 11(1): p. 23. [PubMed: 22490779]
20. Åström C, et al., Developing a heatwave early warning system for Sweden: evaluating sensitivity of different epidemiological modelling approaches to forecast temperatures. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 2014 12(1): p. 254–267. [PubMed: 25546283]
21. Urban A, et al., Spatial patterns of heat-related cardiovascular mortality in the Czech Republic. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 2016 13(3): p. 284.
22. Hajat S, Kovats RS, and Lachowycz K, Heat-related and cold-related deaths in England and Wales: who is at risk? *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 2007 64(2): p. 93–100. [PubMed: 16990293]
23. Stafoggia M, et al., Vulnerability to heat-related mortality: a multicity, population-based, case-crossover analysis. *Epidemiology*, 2006 17(3): p. 315–323. [PubMed: 16570026]
24. Rocklöv J, et al., Susceptibility to mortality related to temperature and heat and cold wave duration in the population of Stockholm County, Sweden. *Global health action*, 2014 7.
25. Rey G, et al., Heat exposure and socio-economic vulnerability as synergistic factors in heat-wave-related mortality. *European journal of epidemiology*, 2009 24(9): p. 495–502. [PubMed: 19642001]
26. Revich B and Shaposhnikov D, Climate change, heat waves, and cold spells as risk factors for increased mortality in some regions of Russia. *Studies on Russian Economic Development*, 2012 23(2): p. 195.
27. Åström C, et al., Vulnerability Reduction Needed to Maintain Current Burdens of Heat-Related Mortality in a Changing Climate—Magnitude and Determinants. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 2017 14(7): p. 741.
28. Boeckmann M and Rohn I, Is planned adaptation to heat reducing heat-related mortality and illness? A systematic review. *BMC public health*, 2014 14(1): p. 1112. [PubMed: 25349109]
29. Socialstyrelsen. www.socialstyrelsen.se Accessed 2018-05-21.
30. Zeger S, et al., Exposure Measurement Error in Time-Series Studies of air pollution: Concepts and Consequences. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 2000 108: p. 419–426. [PubMed: 10811568]

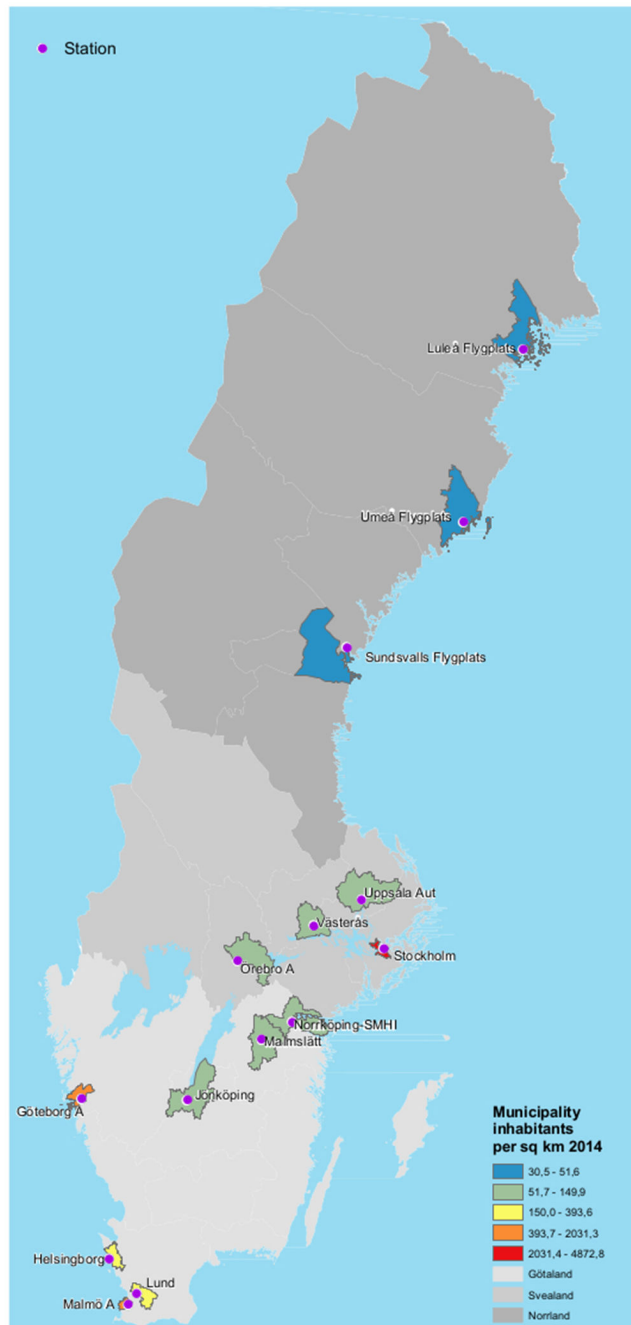


Figure 1.
The study setting

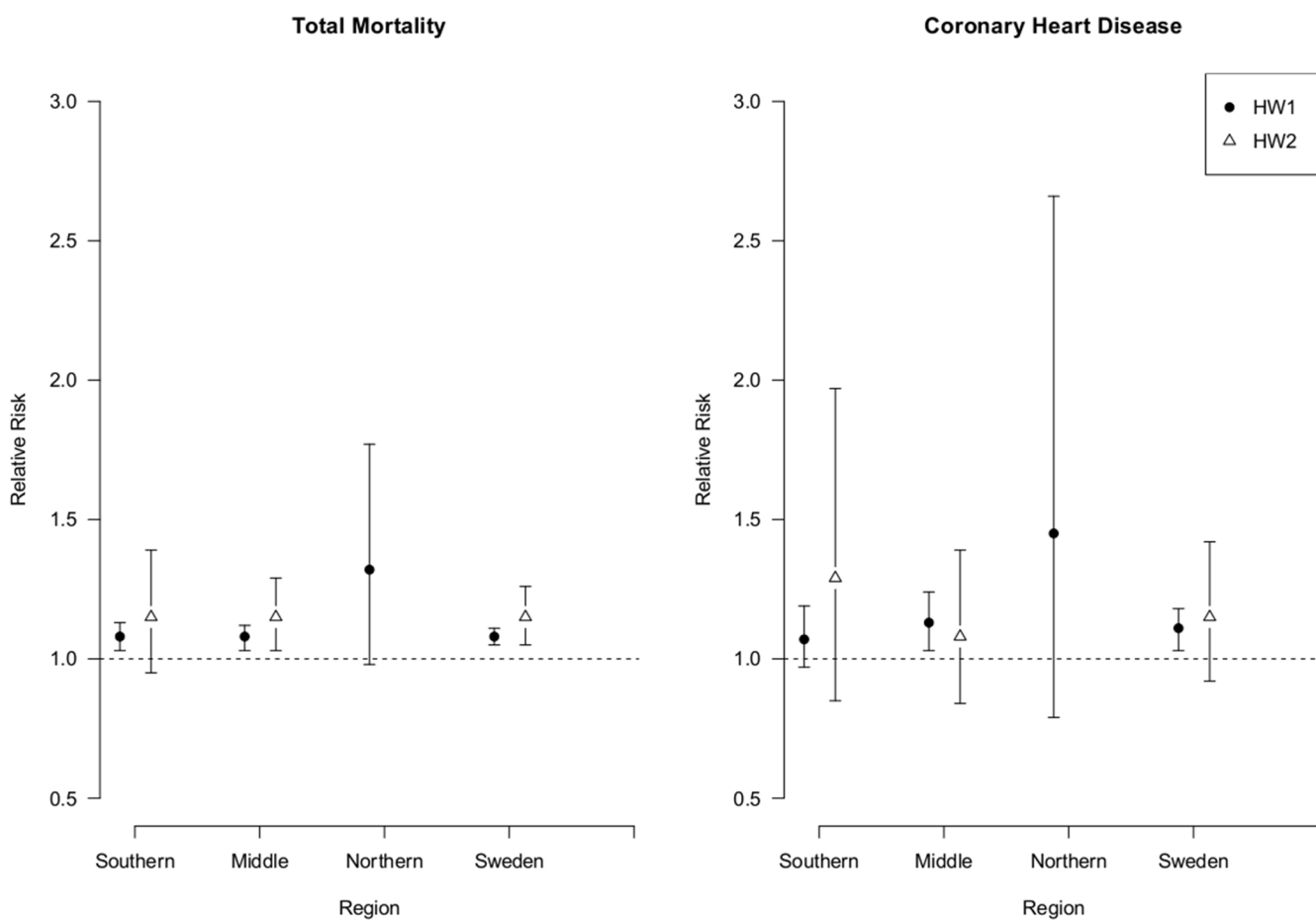


Figure 2. Relative Risks and 95% Confidence Intervals associated with heat waves for the three regions and on a national level during the study period 1990-2014

Table 1.

Descriptive statistics of meteorological data for the investigated municipalities during the study period 1990-2014

Municipality (Region)	Latitude °N	Daily Maximum Temperature					Percentile*		N Heat Wave Days [#]		
		Mean	SD	Min	Max	Missing (N / %)	27°C	30°C	HW ₁	HW ₂	HW ₃
Malmö (S)	55.4	19.9	4.1	6.8	33.5	58 / 0.6	94	99	65	1	0
Lund (S)	55.4	20.2	4.3	7.0	34.3	0 / 0	93	98	101	7	1
Helsingborg (S)	56.2	19.3	4.1	6.8	31.0	78 / 0.85	95	99	54	0	0
Göteborg (S)	57.4	19.6	4.3	5.2	33.8	434 / 4.7	93	98	94	6	0
Jönköping (S)	57.5	18.4	4.6	3.3	33.4	0 / 0	96	99	29	3	0
Linköping (S)	58.2	19.3	4.5	3.9	34.6	0 / 0	94	99	71	7	0
Norrköping (S)	58.4	19.7	4.5	4.4	33.9	0 / 0	94	99	76	5	0
Örebro (M)	59.2	19.7	4.5	3.9	33.7	249 / 2.7	94	99	93	9	0
Stockholm (M)	59.2	19.7	4.9	4.8	34.2	0 / 0	92	99	128	18	1
Västerås (M)	59.4	19.4	4.6	1.0	33.0	993 / 10.8	95	99	76	10	2
Uppsala (M)	59.5	19.8	4.8	4.6	33.3	54 / 0.6	92	99	111	13	1
Sundsvall (N)	62.2	17.6	4.6	2.7	33.0	0 / 0	98	98	11	1	0
Umeå (N)	63.5	17.0	4.7	1.6	32.2	29 / 0.3	98	98	8	2	0
Luleå (N)	65.3	16.2	4.9	2.1	32.1	0 / 0	99	99	4	0	0

* The percentile of the municipality level temperature distribution during the warmest months corresponding to each of the first two levels of heat warnings

[#] Number of heat waves according to the three levels of heat waves in the heat warning system

HW₁ defined as three consecutive days with daily maximum temperatures above 27°C

HW₂ defined as three consecutive days with daily maximum temperatures above 30°C

HW₃ defined as three consecutive days with daily maximum temperatures above 33°C or five consecutive days with daily maximum temperatures above 30°C

Regions: S: Southern, M: Middle and N: Northern

Table 2.

Pooled Relative Risks with 95% Confidence Intervals associated with heat waves for the three regions and on a national level during the study period 1990-2014

REGION	Mortality	HW ₁			HW ₂		
		NDI 1	NDI 2	NDI 3	NDI 1	NDI 2	NDI 3
Southern	All-cause	1.04 (0.94-1.16)	1.07 (1.00-1.14)	1.13 (1.06-1.22)	1.35 (0.89-2.05)	1.12 (0.87-1.43)	1.21 (0.81-1.82)
	CHD	0.81 (0.66-0.99)	1.09 (0.96-1.24)	1.21 (1.04-1.42)	1.77 (0.86-3.65)	1.15 (0.67-1.97)	1.48 (0.54-4.04)
Middle	All-cause	1.08 (1.00-1.15)	1.07 (1.01-1.13)	1.10 (0.99-1.22)	1.03 (0.87-1.23)	1.22 (1.05-1.44)	1.27 (0.95-1.69)
	CHD	1.15 (1.00-1.33)	1.10 (0.97-1.24)	1.49 (1.22-1.80)	0.87 (0.57-1.33)	1.29 (0.93-1.80)	1.07 (0.57-2.02)
Northern	All-cause	1.75 (1.12-2.75)	1.12 (0.73-1.72)	1.61 (0.73-3.56)	NA		
	CHD	0.20 (0.13-0.31)	1.63 (0.79-3.38)	1.15 (0.28-4.65)	NA		
SWEDEN	All-cause	1.07 (1.01-1.14)	1.07 (1.03-1.12)	1.12 (1.05-1.20)	1.07 (0.91-1.26)	1.19 (1.04-1.36)	1.25 (1.00-1.59)
	CHD	1.02 (0.91-1.15)*	1.10 (1.01-1.20)*	1.31 (1.17-1.48)	1.04 (0.72-1.50)	1.27 (0.97-1.68)	1.17 (0.69-2.01)

HW₁ defined as three consecutive days with daily maximum temperatures above 27°C

HW₂ defined as three consecutive days with daily maximum temperatures above 30°C

NDI Neighbourhood Deprivation Index, 1 is the most affluent neighbourhoods and 3 is the most deprived neighbourhoods

CHD Coronary Heart Disease

* Significant Relative Effect Modification (REM)

REM index when comparing the most deprived neighbourhoods to the most affluent: 1.29 (95% CI:1.09-1.52)

REM index when comparing the most deprived neighbourhoods to the medium deprived: 1.19 (95% CI:1.03-1.41)