RESEARCH ARTICLE

Circulatory health risks from additive multi‑pollutant models: short‑term exposure to three common air pollutants in Canada

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Abstract

Numerous studies have reported adverse health efects of ambient air pollution on circulatory health outcomes mainly based on single-pollutant models. However, limited studies have focused on adjusted efect of multi-pollutant exposures on public health. This study aimed to examine short-term efects of three common air pollutants—ground-level ozone (ozone), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), and fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5})—through multi-pollutant models for mixed effect of adjustment. Daily data (circulatory hospitalization and mortality) and hourly data (air pollutants and temperature) were collected for 24 Canadian cities for 2001–2012. We applied generalized additive over-dispersion Poisson regression models with 1, 2, or 3 pollutants for city-specifc risks, and Bayesian hierarchical models for national risks. This study found little mixed efect of adjustment through multi-pollutant models (ozone and/or NO₂ and/or PM_{2.5}) for circulatory hospitalization or mortality in Canada for 2001–2012, indicating that the 1-pollutant model did not result in considerable under- or over-estimates. It seemed weak-to-moderate correlations among air pollutants did not change the signifcant efect of one air pollutant after accounting for others. Inconsistent fndings between other previous studies and this study indicate the need of comparable study design for multi-pollutant efect analysis.

Keywords Fine particulate matter $(PM_{2.5})$ · Ground-level ozone · Hospitalization · Mortality · Multi-pollutant · Nitrogen dioxide $(NO₂)$

Abbreviations

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CVD Cardiovascular disease

Introduction

Numerous epidemiologic studies have reported adverse health effects of ambient air pollution on morbidity and mortality. Among various air pollutants and health outcomes, it was commonly observed across countries that air pollutants such as ground-level ozone, nitrogen dioxide $(NO₂)$, and fine particulate matter of diameter less than 2.5 μ m (PM_{2.5}) were associated with circulatory-related health outcomes such as hospitalization and mortality (Shin et al. [2021](#page-15-0), [2020,](#page-15-1) [2012](#page-15-2); Rodríguez-Villamizar et al. [2018](#page-15-3); Zhang et al. [2017a](#page-15-4); Dong et al. [2013](#page-14-0); Linares et al. [2010](#page-15-5); Zhang et al. [2006](#page-15-6); Poloniecki et al [1997\)](#page-15-7). These three air pollutants are included in the WHO Global Air Quality Guidelines, which ofers global guidance on thresholds and limits for key air pollutants associated with various public health risks (WHO [2021\)](#page-15-8). Many countries also set up national guidance and standards for

the three air pollutants, for example: the Canadian Ambient Air Quality Standards, the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) in the USA and Mexico, the European Commission's Technical Air Quality Standards, and the NAAQS in China, India, and Japan in Asia. For the mutual adjustment among the three air pollutants, multi-pollutant models have been employed to estimate their associations with circulatory health risk for short- or long-term exposure. However, previous studies have reported inconsistent mixed efect of adjustment (i.e., efect was not in the same line) for circulatory health risks through 2- or 3-pollutant models.

For circulatory hospitalization, a recent study in China during 2016–2018 (Jiang et al. [2020\)](#page-14-1) reported that the effect of ozone on circulatory outpatient visits was increased after adjusting for $PM_{2.5}$, when the concentration of ozone was higher than 100 μg/L. In a study of Colombian cities, the effect of $PM_{2.5}$ on circulatory hospitalization was increased after adjusting for $NO₂$ in a two-pollutant model during 2011–2014 (Rodríguez-Villamizar et al. [2019](#page-15-9)). Some studies have reported examples of the three pollutants having stable risks after adjustment for a second pollutant for hospitalizations due to circulatory system disease (Gu et al. [2020\)](#page-14-2) and stroke (Cruz et al. [2015](#page-14-3)), while others report unstable or insignifcant associations, after adjustment for other pollutants, for cardiac disease (Barnett et al. [2006](#page-14-4)), cardiovascular disease (CVD) (Franck et al. [2014\)](#page-14-5), and circulatory disease (Guo et al. [2018](#page-14-6)). A mix of stable and decreased associations, depending on the pollutant, has been observed for CVD (Moolgavkar [2000\)](#page-15-10), stroke (Tsai et al. [2003](#page-15-11); Tian et al. [2018](#page-15-12)), and cardio-cerebrovascular disease (Wang et al. [2019\)](#page-15-13).

In contrast, more comparable results have been reported from multi-pollutant models for circulatory mortality. In 2-pollutant models, adjustment for another pollutant did not mitigate the short-term risks of the three pollutants' associations with circulatory mortality (Cheng et al. [2016](#page-14-7); Costa et al. [2017](#page-14-8)) and CVD mortality (Mazidi and Speakman [2018](#page-15-14); Zhang et al. [2019](#page-15-15)). In another study, the risk of CVD mortality associated with ozone was reported stable with PM_{10} and SO_2 , but not NO_2 (Zhang et al. [2017a\)](#page-15-4)

In 3-pollutant models, risk of circulatory mortality associated with ozone has been reported robust to mutual adjustment for $PM_{2.5}$ and NO₂ in the USA (Turner et al. [2016\)](#page-15-16), and ozone and PM_{10} in Canada (Lippmann et al. [2000\)](#page-15-17). In China, associations with $PM_{2.5}$ remained after adjustment for NO_2 and ozone (Qu et al. 2018), and ozone and SO_2 (including adjustment for collinearity; Mokoena et al. [2019](#page-15-19)). Similarly, in Madrid, relative risks of acute myocardial infarction mortality attributable to $PM_{2.5}$ remained significant after adjusting for ozone and $NO₂$ (Maté et al. [2010\)](#page-15-20). Two studies reported decreased associations between $NO₂$ and CVD mortality after adjustment for SO_2 and PM_{10} (Zhang et al. [2017b](#page-15-21)), and CO and PM_{10} (Yang et al. [2017](#page-15-22)).

Taken together, existing evidence from multi-pollutant models on the association between air pollution and circulatory hospitalization and mortality is limited and inconclusive. The inconsistency among the previous studies could be related to various factors: for example, statistical models (e.g., diferent assumptions and confounders), health care systems (e.g., availability and medical insurance system), study population (e.g., age group and residence location), study period, localized degree of correlation between pollutants, and environmental backgrounds (e.g., weather and green space). In this study, we aimed to identify underor over-estimates from single-pollutant models compared to multi-pollutant models with 2 or 3 pollutants for circulatory disease in Canada. We estimated the adverse health effects of short-term exposures to the three major air pollutants (ozone, NO_2 , and PM_2 , on circulatory health outcomes (mortality and hospitalizations) in additive modeling. We further investigated if the overall associations were infuenced by season, considering warm (April to September) and cold (October to March) season associations in addition to year-round. We also examined the correlations among the three air pollutants and investigated if this was a key factor to meaningful changes (significant to insignificant association, or vice versa) from single-versus multi-pollutant models.

Materials and methods

Study design

The study is designed to estimate adverse health effects of short-term exposure to three air pollutants (ozone, $NO₂$, and $PM_{2.5}$) on two circulatory health outcomes (hospitalization and mortality) through 1-, 2-, and 3-pollutant models. Ozone and $NO₂$ data are available for 29 years (1984–2012), and $PM_{2.5}$ data for 12 years (2001–2012). Mortality data is also available for 29 years (1984–2012), whereas hospitalization data is available for 17 years (1996–2012). Taken all together, the study period is set for 2001 to 2012.

For spatial coverage of the study, 24 urban census divisions (CDs) are selected mainly for three reasons: large population size, availability of multiple ground-monitoring stations for reliable measurements of air pollution concentrations, and their associated CDs that are considered stable during the study period (Figure S1 in Online Resource). The 24 CDs (study population) represented about 52% of the total Canadian population (target population) located in 8 out of 10 provinces in Canada: Newfoundland and Labrador (St. John's), Nova Scotia (Halifax), Quebec (Montreal), Ontario (Ottawa, Durham, York, Toronto, Peel, Halton, Hamilton, Niagara, Waterloo, Windsor, Sarnia, London, Sudbury, and Sault Ste. Marie), Manitoba (Winnipeg), Saskatchewan (Regina and Saskatoon), Alberta (Calgary and Edmonton), and British Columbia (Vancouver).

For short-term exposure, this study defines it as a 2-week time window prior to death or hospitalization. This defnition is arbitrary but necessary to separate short-term exposure efects from long-term exposure efects such as seasonal efect, even though there has been no consensus on the short-term period. This process can be done by a smoother on calendar time (see the "[Statistical models](#page-2-0)" section for more details).

For the multi-pollutant models, this study examines three 2-pollutant models (ozone/NO₂, ozone/PM_{2.5}, and NO₂/ $PM_{2.5}$) and a 3-pollutant model (ozone/NO₂/PM_{2.5}), compared to three single-pollutant models (base model). Considering seasonal changes in correlations among the pollutants and their relationships with circulatory health outcomes, this study examines all models by season: warm (April to September), cold (October to March), and year-round (base).

Data sources and analysis procedures

This study is based on four databases on daily air pollution, temperature, hospitalization, and mortality. First, all hourly air pollution data were obtained from the National Air Pollution Surveillance System (NAPS), maintained by Environment and Climate Change Canada (ECCC) (ECCC [2013\)](#page-14-9). A total of 120 NAPS stations were used to cover the 24 CDs. The hourly data were converted to 8-h maximum for ozone, and to 24-h average for $NO₂$ and $PM_{2.5}$ for each monitoring station, following the metrics used for the Canadian Ambient Air Quality Standards, which were developed by the Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment. Multiple stations within the same CD were averaged to represent daily concentrations for the CD. Second, daily temperature data was obtained from the National Climate Data and Information Archive of ECCC, as it was an important confounder in the association between air pollutants and circulatory health outcomes. A total of 250 weather stations were used, and multiple weather stations in the same CD were averaged to represent daily temperature for the CD. Third, circulatory hospitalization data was obtained from the Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI [2018\)](#page-14-10). Fourth, daily counts of circulatory mortality were obtained from the Canadian Vital Statistics Death Database managed by Statistics Canada (Statistics Canada [2019](#page-15-23)). Circulatory health outcomes include diseases defned in section I00-I99 of the International Classification of Diseases 10th Revision (ICD-10, WHO [2019\)](#page-15-24). For hospitalizations in some CDs, both versions ICD-9 and ICD-10 were used based on a conversion table provided by the CIHI. Daily counts of circulatory hospitalization and mortality were aggregated at the CD level.

Statistical models

A two-stage model was employed to frst estimate the CDspecifc associations between air pollutants and health outcomes, and then pool the CD-specifc associations to represent the nationwide association. In the frst stage, the daily

hospitalization or mortality counts were modeled against daily ozone, $NO₂$, and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. A generalized additive Poisson regression model with multi-pollutants was applied to individual CDs for location *i*, season *j*, pollutant *k*, day *t* during the study period, and lag day *l* as follows (Eq. [1]):

$$
\log(E[Y_{ij}(t)]) = \beta_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \beta_{1ijk}(t) * x_{ijk}(t-l) +f_{ij}(t) + g_{ij}(temp(t)) + DOW_{ij}(t),
$$
\n(1)

where $Y_{ii}(t)$, $x_{ii}(t)$ and $DOW_{ii}(t)$ are daily hospitalization or mortality count (the response variables), daily air pollutant concentrations (the predictor), and the day of week (a confounder), respectively, in linear relationship. Two more confounders, $f_{ii}(t)$ and $g_{ii}(t)$, are non-linear smoothing functions for calendar time $(t=1,2,3,..., T)$ and temperature $(temp(t))$, respectively. We used a smoother (natural cubic splines) on the temperature with degree of freedom 3 to capture a U-shape relationship between temperature and health outcomes, which indicates stronger effect on mortality from cold and hot temperatures. In particular, the parameter β_{1ijk} for *k*-pollutant models $(k=1,2,3)$ for 0- to 6-day lagged exposures with the same lag structure for each pollutant are of interest to be estimated, indicating the effects of ozone, NO_2 , and/or $PM_{2.5}$ on the circulatory hospitalization or mortality in log scale.

In the second stage, a hierarchical Bayesian approach was used to obtain national risk estimates from the CD-specifc risk associations for all years together, 2001–2012. More detail on this approach is available in previous papers (Shin et al. [2009](#page-15-25); Shin et al. [2012\)](#page-15-2). The national estimates were reported for 0- to 6-day lagged effects as $1000 * \beta_{1ijk}(t-l)$ with 95% posterior intervals, which indicates the relative risk as percent change in health outcomes per 10 unit change in each air pollutant following the Taylor series approximation for small β_{1ijk} . The statistical computing language and environment R 4.0.3 was used for all computations (R Core Team [2020\)](#page-15-26).

Results

Circulatory hospitalization and mortality

Table [1](#page-3-0) presents annual average rates of circulatory hospitalization and mortality as ratios of both the study population and all non-accidental hospitalizations and mortalities. Circulatory hospitalizations occurred at a rate of approximately 1.0% (range, 0.4–1.6%) of the study population and accounted for 15.1% (range, 11.6–19.2%) of non-accidental hospitalizations, with the highest ratios occurring in relatively small CDs— Sault Ste. Marie and Sarnia, respectively. Circulatory mortality occurred at rates of approximately 0.2% (range, 0.1–0.4%) of the study population and roughly 32.9% (range, 28.1–39.3%) of non-accidental

Table 1 Annual average of circulatory hospitalization and mortality rates from 2001 to 2012

City ^a	Hospitalization in % (SD)		Mortality in % (SD)	
	% ratio ^b	% to all cause ^c	$%$ ratio d	% to all cause ^e
Halifax	0.8(0.06)	14.4 (0.90)	0.2(0.07)	31.2(0.97)
Saint John	1.4(0.14)	16.7(1.15)	0.4(0.16)	33.6 (1.14)
Quebec City	1.5(0.06)	13.5(0.69)	0.2(0.16)	28.1 (1.73)
Montreal	1.2(0.05)	12.3(0.51)	0.2(0.10)	29.7 (1.17)
Ottawa	0.7(0.02)	14.6(0.28)	0.2(0.06)	32.2(0.63)
Durham	0.6(0.05)	15.0(0.55)	0.2(0.10)	31.1(0.75)
York	0.4(0.02)	14.8(0.24)	0.1(0.03)	30.2(1.01)
Toronto	0.9(0.03)	16.0(0.21)	0.2(0.07)	31.3 (0.37)
Peel	0.5(0.04)	14.3 (0.37)	0.1(0.05)	30.3(0.60)
Halton	0.7(0.03)	15.0(0.52)	0.2(0.12)	30.1(1.12)
Hamilton	1.2(0.03)	18.5(0.55)	0.2(0.14)	32.2 (1.54)
Niagara	1.0(0.08)	16.9(0.36)	0.3(0.16)	36.0(0.72)
Waterloo	0.7(0.07)	13.7 (0.44)	0.2(0.08)	33.4 (0.51)
Windsor	1.1(0.04)	15.7(0.64)	0.3(0.13)	37.0(0.53)
Sarnia	1.4(0.08)	19.2 (0.82)	0.4(0.23)	39.3 (1.87)
London	0.8(0.06)	13.5 (0.98)	0.2(0.06)	30.3(0.63)
Sudbury	1.3(0.08)	18.1 (0.50)	0.3(0.14)	33.8 (0.87)
Sault Ste. Marie	1.6(0.08)	17.9 (0.73)	0.3(0.11)	32.7 (0.92)
Winnipeg	0.9(0.05)	15.2(0.45)	0.3(0.10)	34.0(0.85)
Regina	1.2(0.07)	13.7 (0.70)	0.2(0.10)	32.9 (0.94)
Saskatoon	1.0(0.08)	14.7 (0.68)	0.2(0.11)	34.1 (0.77)
Calgary	0.7(0.04)	11.9(0.45)	0.2(0.08)	37.1 (1.01)
Edmonton	0.7(0.04)	11.6(0.42)	0.2(0.06)	34.5 (0.92)
Vancouver	0.8(0.02)	14.0(0.20)	0.2(0.06)	33.8 (1.13)
Combined ^f	1.0(0.00)	15.1(0.02)	0.2(0.00)	32.9 (0.03)

a Cities are ordered geographically from east to west

^bStudy hospitalization counts/Study population) $\times 100$

c Circulatory hospitalization counts/ non-accidental hospitalization $counts) \times 100$

d Study mortality counts/Study population)×100

e Circulatory mortality counts/non-accidental mortality counts)×100 f Non-weighted average over 24 cities

mortalities, with the highest ratios being in Sarnia. The overall rate of circulatory hospitalizations was larger than the mortality rate by a factor of fve when compared to the study population (1.0 vs. 0.2%). In contrast, the overall mortality rate was roughly double the hospitalization rate when compared to non-accidental health outcomes (33% vs. 15%). This indicates circulatory mortality took a relatively large portion of the all-cause mortality.

Concentrations of three air pollutants

Online Resource Table S1 presents seasonal (warm, cold) average temperature and air pollutant (ozone, NO_2 , $PM_{2.5}$) concentrations for 2001–2012. Average temperatures were 15 °C (range, 12–18 °C) during the warm season and -1 °C (range,−8–6 °C) during the cold season. Overall, the ozone concentrations were higher in the warm season than the cold season (38 ppb (range, 26–47 ppb) vs. 27 ppb (range, 21–32 ppb)), with somewhat higher city-to-city variation during the warm season. On average, Windsor had the highest warm season ozone concentrations (47 ppb), while the highest cold season ozone concentration (32 ppb) was shared among four cities (St. John's, York, Sudbury, Sault Saint Marie). Similarly, $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were also higher in the warm season than the cold season (8 vs. 6 μ g/m³). Sarnia recorded the highest concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ in both warm and cold seasons (13 and 10 μ g/m³, respectively). In contrast, $NO₂$ was lower in the warm season than the cold season (10 vs. 15 ppb). The highest $NO₂$ concentrations were observed in Toronto during the warm season (18 ppb) and Calgary during the cold season (25 ppb). Taken together, the highest average air pollutant concentrations depend on season and location.

Correlations among the three air pollutants

During the study period, the correlations among the three air pollutants varied across locations and seasons but the annual correlations were relatively stable over time as summarized in Table S2 and Figure S2. Higher correlations $(0.7 \sim 0.8)$ were found between ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ during the warm season mainly in the province of Ontario, and between $PM_{2.5}$ and $NO₂$ during the cold season mainly in the province of Quebec. In contrast, the correlation between ozone and $NO₂$ was low overall: 0.2 (CD-to-CD range, -0.1 to 0.5) in the warm season and -0.2 (-0.5 to 0) in the cold season. The correlations between ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ showed more prominent changes by season: as high as 0.7 for 9 CDs in the warm season with an overall correlation of 0.5 (0.2 to 0.7); but as low as−0.1 (−0.6 to 0.1) in the cold season. However, the correlations between $NO₂$ and $PM_{2.5}$ were always positive, and higher in the cold season, 0.5 (0.1 to 0.8), than the warm season, 0.3 (0.0 to 0.7). As expected, the year-round correlations appeared smaller than seasonal correlations.

Multi‑pollutant associations between ozone and circulatory hospitalization and mortality

Associations between ozone and circulatory hospitalization generally increased with the air pollutants' lag. While there were no signifcant associations between ozone and circulatory hospitalization during the warm season, we found signifcant associations for both 5- and 6-day lagged ozone during the cold season in both single- and multi-pollutant models adjusted for NO_2 NO_2 and $PM_{2.5}$ (Fig. [1](#page-4-0) and Table 2).

The magnitudes of the associations are comparable for all models, with 5-day lagged ozone having risk estimates of 0.8% with 95% posterior interval (0.3–1.3) for the 1-pollutant model compared to the 2-pollutant model, 0.7% (0.1, 1.3) with NO_2 and 0.8% (0.2, 1.3) with $PM_{2.5}$, and to the 3-pollutant model with ozone, NO_2 , and $PM_{2.5}$, 0.7% (0.1, 1.4). In contrast, the association between 3-day lagged ozone and circulatory hospitalization was signifcant in the single-pollutant model, 0.6% (0.1, 1.0); however, it became insignificant with the addition of $NO₂$ or $PM_{2.5}$ in the multipollutant models.

Year-round, circulatory hospitalization risk was also signifcantly associated with 6-day lagged ozone, 0.2% (0.0, 0.5), with similar associations present in the 2-pollutant model with $PM_{2.5}$ and the 3-pollutant model, 0.3% (0.0, 0.5). The 2-pollutant ozone model adjusted for $NO₂$ also estimated a similar, however insignifcant, risk with circulatory hospitalization, 0.2% (−0.0, 0.4). Slightly higher risks of circulatory hospitalization were indicated in single- and multi-pollutant models during the cold season than the warm season when ozone is lagged by 3 and 5 days.

Unlike circulatory hospitalization, there were no signifcant associations between ozone and circulatory mortality in the warm or cold season for single-pollutant models, which remained insignificant after adjustment with $NO₂$ and/or $PM_{2.5}$ in multi-pollutant models (Fig. [2\)](#page-8-0). However, yearround 1-day lagged ozone was signifcantly associated with circulatory mortality in the single-pollutant model, 0.5% $(0.0, 1.0)$, and similarly when adjusted for NO₂ in the 2-pollutant model, 0.6% $(0.1, 1.0)$ (Table [3\)](#page-9-0). In contrast, the risk estimates changed to insignificant, 0.3% (-0.3 , 0.8), with the addition of $PM_{2.5}$ in the 2- and 3-pollutant models.

Multi‑pollutant associations between NO2 and circulatory hospitalization and mortality

Overall, the associations between $NO₂$ and circulatory hospitalization were highest for same-day exposure, or in the cold season up to 1-day lagged $NO₂$, after which the associations declined and remained close to null. As with ozone, some seasonal diferences were present in the risk of circulatory hospitalization associated with $NO₂$; however, the signifcant associations were more consistent in the warm and year-round seasons compared to cold season (Fig. [3](#page-10-0)). In the warm season, 0-day lagged $NO₂$ returned significant associations in the single-pollutant model, 1.8% (0.7, 3.0), and slightly stronger in the 2-pollutant models, 2.1% (0.9, 3.3) and 2.5% (1.2, 3.9) when adjusted for ozone

Fig. 1 Comparison of estimated associations with 95% credible intervals between ozone and circulatory hospitalization from multi-pollutant models by season and lag: (*) 1-pollutant model, (●) 2-pollutant

model, (▲) another 2-pollutant model, and (■) 3-pollutant model; 3 seasons of warm (Apr to Sept), cold (Oct to Mar) and year-round (Jan to Dec); and (c) 7 lags of 0- to 6-day lagged air pollutant

Table 2 (continued)

Table 2 (continued)

 Θ

and $PM_{2.5}$, respectively, and the 3-pollutant model, 2.5% $(1.2, 3.7)$. In the cold season, 0-day lagged NO₂ returned a significant association of 0.8% (0.1, 1.4), and remained so when adjusted for $PM_{2.5}$, 0.9% (0.1, 1.7), but became insignifcant when adjusted for ozone in both the 2- and 3-pollutant models. In contrast, 1-day lagged $NO₂$ and circulatory hospitalization were significantly associated in the singlepollutant model only. Year-round the risk estimates were lower than the warm season, but still signifcant independent of the model composition.

There were no signifcant positive associations between $NO₂$ and circulatory mortality. For seasonal differences, 3-day lagged $NO₂$ showed somewhat higher associations during the cold season than the warm season, particularly for the 1- and 2-pollutant models (Fig. [4](#page-11-0)).

Multi-pollutant associations between PM_{2.5} and circulatory hospitalization and mortality

Unlike ozone and $NO₂$, no significant positive associations were present between $PM_{2.5}$ and circulatory hospitalization in single-pollutant models (Fig. [5](#page-12-0)). When adjusted for ozone, year-round 0-day lagged $PM_{2.5}$ did have a significant association, 0.5% (0.0, 0.9); however, this became insignifcant with the addition of NO₂ in the 3-pollutant model, -0.5% (-1.2 , 0.2), or when adjusted for just NO_2 , −0.9% (−1.5, −0.3). The associations between $PM_{2.5}$ and circulatory hospitalization also exhibited more pronounced diferences depending on other pollutants, lag days and season.

In single- and multi-pollutant models with 1-day lagged air pollutants, $PM_{2.5}$ was significantly and consistently associated with circulatory mortality year round (Fig. [6\)](#page-13-0): 1–pollutant model, 1.4% (0.4, 2.2); 2-pollutant models adjusted for NO_2 , 1.3% (0.3, 2.3), and ozone, 1.3% (0.3, 2.2); and the 3-pollutant model, 1.2% (0.1, 2.2). In contrast, PM_{2.5} adjusted for $NO₂$ only in the 2-pollutant model was significantly associated with circulatory mortality: 0-day lagged PM_{2.5} year-round, 1.2% (0.1, 2.2), and 5-day lagged PM_{2.5} in the warm season, 1.4% (0.1, 2.8). In both cases, all other models (with or without ozone) yielded insignifcant results.

Discussion

We investigated circulatory hospitalizations and mortality attributable to short-term exposure to ambient air pollutants such as ozone, NO_2 , and $PM_{2.5}$ through multi-pollutant models with the same lag structure within a week time window, using lags of 0 to 6 days, and further examined seasonal adjustment of other pollutants through 2- and 3-pollutant models. We found a few seasonal diferences in the adjusted efects of other air pollutants. For example, signifcant effect of $NO₂$ on circulatory hospitalizations remained

with adjustment of ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ during warm season but became insignifcant with adjustment of ozone during cold season. Contrary to expectation, we found overall little additive or antagonistic risk of circulatory health outcomes from the three air pollutants. This is similar to the result of respiratory health outcomes from the same air pollutants (Parajuli et al. [2021\)](#page-15-27). This could be explained in part by relatively low-to-moderate correlations between the specifed air pollutants.

Hourly daytime ozone and $NO₂$ are generally expected to be negatively correlated since nitrogen oxides (NO_x) utilize ozone during the morning, but fuel the photochemical buildup of ozone later in the day. Averaging pollutant concentrations over longer periods of time obscures this relationship; 24 h $NO₂$ concentrations will depend heavily on local emissions and the degree of atmospheric mixing, whereas 8-h max ozone is infuenced by the presence of sunlight to facilitate the photochemical reaction. Averaging concentrations from multiple stations further masks the relationship as the ozone-NO₂ dynamic varies depending on the surrounding level of development and traffic.

Warm-season $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone are both influenced by meteorological conditions such as temperature inversions which reduce atmospheric mixing, and long-range transport from more polluted areas. Warm, stable meteorological conditions accumulate $PM_{2.5}$ and have less cloud cover, allowing for ozone formation. Ozone concentrations decline significantly during the cold-season, in contrast to $PM_{2.5}$ and NO_x which are still emitted and can accumulate together under appropriate meteorological conditions.

While ozone and $NO₂$ had low correlations regardless of season, $PM_{2.5}$ had seasonal high correlations with ozone for warm season in Ontario only (Table S2), and with $NO₂$ for cold season in Quebec (Table S2). These localized high correlations resulted in overall low to moderate correlations (between \pm 0.5) nationally (Figure S2). The national low-tomoderate correlation might have resulted in little change in risk estimates from single- to multi-pollutant models, which needs further discussion.

We may expect seasons with higher air pollutant concentrations would result in higher risk of circulatory diseases, however this study counterintuitively reported the opposite. For example, ozone's efect was stronger during the cold season, whereas its concentrations were higher in the warm season. Similarly, NO₂'s effect was stronger in the warm season but its concentrations were higher in the cold season. Both examples can be explained in two ways: frst, the reported efect (or association) represents the increase (% change) in the circulatory health outcomes per 10 unit increase in concentrations, which should be multiplied by

Fig. 2 Comparison of estimated associations with 95% credible intervals between ozone and circulatory mortality from multi-pollutant models by season and lag: (*) 1-pollutant model, (●) 2-pollutant

model, (▲) another 2-pollutant model, and (■) 3-pollutant model; 3 seasons of warm (Apr to Sept), cold (Oct to Mar) and year-round (Jan to Dec); and (c) 7 lags of 0- to 6-day lagged air pollutant

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bValues in bold indicates signifcant risk estimates

^bValues in bold indicates significant risk estimates

aWarm (April to September); cold (October to March); year-round (January to December)

cValues in italics indicates signifcant risk estimates for all 1-, 2-, and 3-pollutant models

^cValues in italics indicates significant risk estimates for all 1-, 2-, and 3-pollutant models

the concentrations for the total effect. Therefore, higher concentrations of ozone during the warm season could result in a higher total efect of ozone even though its per-unit-efect was weaker than in the cold season. Second, we estimated the effect of air pollution through short-term exposures (e.g., within a week) in model [1]. The effects are the associations between daily variations in both air pollution concentrations and counts of health outcomes. Therefore, the efect would be highest when the daily count of health outcomes is synchronized (up/down changes) with daily pollutant concentrations. Such synchronization in daily variations can occur independent of air pollution concentration levels.

Changes in efect of ozone with adjustment of NO2 and $PM₂₅$

Here, we use the term "change" to refer to a diference in statistical signifcance of the two associations estimated by single- vs. multi-pollutant models: for example, a signifcant association from a single-pollutant model was changed to an insignifcant association from a multi-pollutant model, or vice versa. We do not intend for the term "change" to imply a statistically signifcant diference between the two estimated associations.

For the adverse health effect of ozone, based on low correlation with $NO₂ (\pm 0.2$ on average) and moderate correlation with $PM_{2.5}$ (0.5 on average for the warm season), we anticipated no change in association with circulatory health outcomes with adjustment of $NO₂$ but some change with adjustment of $PM_{2.5}$ for warm season. However, there was no evidence of a warm-season adjusted effect of $PM_{2.5}$ on the association between ozone and circulatory hospitalization (Table [2\)](#page-5-0) and mortality (Table [3\)](#page-9-0).

While there was no change in the effect of ozone after accounting for NO_2 and/or PM_2 , during the warm season, a few changes were observed during the cold season and yearround. For circulatory hospitalization, a cold-season signifcant association of 0.6% (0.1, 1.0) for 3-day lagged ozone changed to insignificant in the 2-pollutant (with $NO₂$ and $PM_{2.5}$, respectively) and 3-pollutant (with NO_2 and $PM_{2.5}$) together) models. A year-round signifcant association of 0.2% (0.0, 0.5) for 3-day lagged ozone became insignifcant after adjusting for $NO₂$ but remained significant after adjusting for $PM_{2.5}$ [0.3% (0.0, 0.5)] and for both $PM_{2.5}$ and NO_2 [0.3% (0.0, 0.5)]. For circulatory mortality, a year-round signifcant association of 0.5% (0.0, 1.0) for 1-day lagged ozone remained stable after adjusting for $NO₂$ [0.6% (0.1, 1.0)] but became insignificant after adjusting for $PM_{2.5}$ with/without

Fig. 3 Comparison of estimated associations with 95% credible intervals between NO2 and circulatory hospitalization from multi-pollutant models by season and lag: $(*)$ 1-pollutant model, (\bullet) 2-pollutant

model, (▲) another 2-pollutant model, and (■) 3-pollutant model; 3 seasons of warm (Apr to Sept), cold (Oct to Mar) and year-round (Jan to Dec); and (c) 7 lags of 0- to 6-day lagged air pollutant

 $NO₂$. This was expected for the warm season but observed for year-round estimates instead.

In contrast with the study fnding, a study in the US reported that significant positive associations remained between ozone and circulatory mortality adjusted for $PM_{2.5}$ [hazard risk of 1.03 ($1.01-1.05$)] that were unchanged with further adjustment for $NO₂$ (Turner et al. [2016\)](#page-15-16). Yet consistent effect of further adjustment for other pollutants in our study is not matched with other studies. For example, the positive effect of ozone on circulatory outpatient visits, 2.83% (0.65, 5.06), increased after adjusting for NO₂ in Fuzhou, China (Jiang et al. [2020\)](#page-14-1), when the concentration of ozone was higher than 100 μg/L. However, this study did not report the correlation between ozone and $NO₂$, and it is unclear if the increased effect of ozone with $NO₂$ was linked to their correlation.

Taken together, changes in the effect of ozone after accounting for $NO₂$ and/or $PM_{2.5}$ were not explained by their seasonal correlations solely. Overall, the magnitude of the associations (the 95% credible interval) from 1-, 2-, to 3-pollutant models were quite comparable (Figs. [1](#page-4-0) and [2\)](#page-8-0), and this implies that single-pollutant models for ozone without adjustment of $NO₂$ and/or $PM_{2.5}$ did not result in under- or over-estimate.

Changes in effect of NO₂ with adjustment of ozone and $PM_{2.5}$

For the adverse health effect of $NO₂$, based on low correlation with ozone $(\pm 0.2$ on average) and moderate correlation with $PM_{2.5}$ (0.5 on average for cold season), we anticipated no change in association with circulatory health outcomes with adjustment of ozone but some change after adjusting for $PM_{2.5}$ for cold season. As expected, there was no evidence of a warm-season adjusted effect of ozone and/or $PM_{2.5}$ on the association between $NO₂$ and circulatory hospitalization (Table [2\)](#page-5-0) and mortality (Table [3\)](#page-9-0).

Unlike the warm season, a few changes were observed during the cold season. For circulatory hospitalization (not mortality), a cold-season significant association of 0.8% $(0.1, 1.4)$ for no lagged $NO₂$ changed to insignificant after adjusting for ozone but remained significant with $PM_{2.5}$. This is contrary to what is expected, and thus cannot be explained by their seasonal correlations solely. However, the 95% credible intervals from 1-, 2-, to 3-pollutant models were quite comparable (Figs. [3](#page-10-0) and [4](#page-11-0)), which implies that overall the single-pollutant model for $NO₂$ without adjustment of ozone and/or $PM_{2.5}$ did not result in under- or over-estimates.

Fig. 4 Comparison of estimated associations with 95% credible intervals between NO2 and circulatory mortality from multi-pollutant models by season and lag: (*) 1-pollutant model, (●) 2-pollutant

model, (▲) another 2-pollutant model, and (■) 3-pollutant model; 3 seasons of warm (Apr to Sept), cold (Oct to Mar) and year-round (Jan to Dec); and (c) 7 lags of 0- to 6-day lagged air pollutant

Similar to the consistent effect of $NO₂$ for other pollutants during the warm season in our study, a Brazilian study reported that $NO₂$ effect remained significant in multi-pollutant (ozone and others) models for circulatory mortality among the elderly living in São Paulo between 2000 and 2011 (Costa et al. [2017](#page-14-8)). However, this study did not report correlations and seasonal diferences.

Changes in efect of PM2.5 with adjustment of ozone and NO₂

For the adverse health effect of $PM_{2.5}$, based on moderate correlation with ozone (0.5; ranged between 0.2 and 0.7 for warm season) and with $NO₂$ (0.5; ranged between 0.1 and 0.8 for cold season), we anticipated seasonal changes in association with circulatory health outcomes with adjustment of ozone and/or $NO₂$. While there was no evidence of a cold-season adjusted effect of $NO₂$ on the association between $PM_{2.5}$ and circulatory hospitalization (Table [2\)](#page-5-0) and mortality (Table [3](#page-9-0)), a warm-season adjusted effect of $NO₂$ (not ozone) was observed in an unexpected way: an insignificant effect of 5-day lagged $PM_{2.5}$ became significant after adjusting for $NO₂$ but remained unchanged after adjusting for ozone. This is opposite to what is expected based on their seasonal correlations.

As seen for ozone and $NO₂$, the changes in significance may be related to small efect sizes very close to zero. Overall, the 95% credible intervals from 1-, 2-, to 3-pollutant models were quite comparable (Figs. 5 and 6), and thus the single-pollutant model for PM_2 , without adjustment of ozone and/or NO₂ did not result in under- or over-estimates in this study.

Yet, a Taiwan study reported diferent results on season in two-pollutant models. The effect of $PM_{2.5}$ on circulatory mortality remained signifcant when ozone was added in the regression model both on warm and cool days in Taipei during 2006–2008 (Cheng et al. [2016\)](#page-14-7). Another study in the USA examined hospital admissions for CVD during 1987–1995 (Moolgavkar [2000\)](#page-15-10) and reported that the effect of the gases (ozone and $NO₂$) remained stable, while the effect of $PM_{2.5}$ became unstable and insignificant in 2-pollutant models. This study ofered a perspective on the diferent adjusted efects of other air pollutants in terms of gas vs. non-gas, which warrants further investigation.

Limitations and strength

Our study has some limitations that warrant discussion. First, this is an ecological study using city level data, not individual level data, and thus misclassifcation of exposure was unavoidable. This could bring in unmeasurable bias in estimated associations.

Fig. 5 Comparison of estimated associations with 95% credible intervals between PM2.5 and circulatory hospitalization from multi-pollutant models by season and lag: (*) 1-pollutant model, (●) 2-pol-

lutant model, (▲) another 2-pollutant model, and (■) 3-pollutant model; 3 seasons of warm (Apr to Sept), cold (Oct to Mar) and yearround (Jan to Dec); and (c) 7 lags of 0- to 6-day lagged air pollutant

Fig. 6 Comparison of estimated associations with 95% credible intervals between PM2.5 and circulatory mortality from multi-pollutant models by season and lag: (*) 1-pollutant model, (●) 2-pollutant

model, (▲) another 2-pollutant model, and (■) 3-pollutant model; 3 seasons of warm (Apr to Sept), cold (Oct to Mar) and year-round (Jan to Dec); and (c) 7 lags of 0- to 6-day lagged air pollutant

Second, our statistical model assumed no change in the associations over the study period (2001–2012). The reported associations should be interpreted as 12-year overall estimates, not capturing year-by-year variations. Third, we did not consider interactions among the specifed three air pollutants. This is because the range of $PM_{2.5}$ and $NO₂$ were quite narrow, which would result in unstable estimates. Fourth, we used the same lag structure for multi-pollutant models, since we focused on adjusted efects of multi-pollutants on the same day. This limited our ability to detect adjusted efects of air pollutants with diferent lags. Fifth, we did not consider age groups such as seniors vs. non-senior due to low rate of non-senior $(<\!65$ years) hospitalization (37%) and mortality (14%). This may have limited our ability to detect age-related diferences in the associations of interest. Finally, we did not account for the possible effects of environmental noise (e.g., nighttime road traffic), which has been shown to be related to symptoms of insomnia (Evandt et al. [2017](#page-14-11); Halperin [2014](#page-14-12)). By way of compromised sleep, an indirect pathway has been recently proposed between environmental noise and adverse cardiovascular outcomes (Gilani and Mir [2021,](#page-14-13) [2022\)](#page-14-14), which may confound air pollution exposure related health risks.

Our study also has several strengths. We reported associations between three important air pollutants and circulatory health outcomes in the Canadian context for a long period,

12 years between 2001 and 2012, and explored changes in the associations by adjusting for other pollutants. To our knowledge, this is the frst recent Canadian study to report health effects of ozone, NO_2 , and PM_2 , through multi-pollutant models by season, comparing circulatory hospitalization and mortality in a large number of cities. In addition, our use of ground monitoring data over model-driven estimates is a strength. This likely reduced exposure misclassifcation in our analyses, since the ground monitoring data (i.e., NAPS data) do not depend on specifc models on temporal or spatial variations. Finally, we confrmed that the degree of under- or over-estimates from single-pollutant models were negligible, compared to the multipollutant models, which can, in part, be explained by the relatively low correlations among the multi-pollutants.

Conclusion

The study findings indicate the adjusted effects of short-term exposures to multi-pollutants were inconsistent between circulatory hospitalization and mortality, which cannot be explained solely by correlations among the three common air pollutants (ozone, NO_2 , and $PM_{2.5}$). Overall, we found statistically

insignifcant diferences in risk of circulatory health outcomes between single- and multi-pollutant models, indicating little additive efect from the three specifed air pollutants. Although further investigations are required, our study results suggest little under- or over-estimates from 1-pollutant models, compared to 2- and 3-pollutant models in Canada. The inconsistent fndings from previous studies and this study indicate the need of comparable study design for multi-pollutant effect analysis.

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Author contribution HS: conceptualization, methodology, investigation, reviewing, writing, editing, supervision and funding acquisition; JO: Software, reviewing, writing, editing; AM: software, data curation, formal analysis, and visualization; RPP: literature review, writing, editing; and MSD: data extraction using Geographic Information Systems and validation.

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Data availability Air pollution and temperature data are open to the public; hospitalization and mortality data for province Quebec are accessible with restrictions through Commission d'accès à l'information du Québec [\(https://www.cai.gouv.qc.ca/](https://www.cai.gouv.qc.ca/)); and hospitalization and mortality data for other provinces are accessible with restrictions through the CIHI ([https://www.cihi.ca/en/access-data-and-repor](https://www.cihi.ca/en/access-data-and-reports) [ts\)](https://www.cihi.ca/en/access-data-and-reports) and Statistics Canada (Canadian Research Data Centre Network, [https://crdcn.org/map_transition\)](https://crdcn.org/map_transition), respectively.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication Not applicable.

Competing interests The authors declare that they have no actual or potential competing fnancial interests, and that this study did not have any relationships or support that might be perceived as constituting a confict of interest.

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