

Health impacts related to urban and transport planning: A burden of disease assessment

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ABBREVIATIONS

CVD	Cardiovascular disease
DALYs	Disability-adjusted life-years
dB(A)	A-weighted decibel
EBD	Environmental Burden of Disease
ERF	Exposure response function
ESCAPE LUR	European Study of Cohorts for Air Pollution Effects Land Use Regression model
GBD	Global Burden of Disease
HIA	Health impact assessment
ICD-10	International classification of disease, version 2010
$L_{Aeq,16hr}$	Day time (7:00-23:00 hr) equivalent sound pressure level
L_{den}	Day-evening-night EU indicator with 5 and 10 dB weights for the evening and the night time
L_{dn}	Day-night indicator with a 10 dB weight for the night time only
L_{night}	Night time (7:00-23:00 hr) equivalent sound pressure level
METs	Metabolic equivalents of task
NDVI	Normalized Differenced Vegetation Index
NO ₂	Nitrogen dioxides
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OLI	Operational Land Imager
O ₃	Ozone
PA	Physical activity
PAF	Population attributable fraction
PM _{2.5}	Particulate matter with a diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$
RR	Relative risk
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
TIRS	Thermal Infrared Sensor
TRAP	Traffic-related air pollution
UHI	Urban heat island

UTOPHIA	Urban and TranspOrt Planning Health Impact Assessment tool
WHO	World Health Organization
YLDs	Years lived with disability
YLLs	Years of life lost
%HA	Percentage of population highly annoyed
%HSD	Percentage of population highly sleep disturbed

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Introduction:** Until now, estimates of the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) have
3 mainly been produced on national or regional levels. These general estimates, however,
4 are less useful for city governments who have to take decisions on local scales. To
5 address this gap, we focused on the city-level burden of disease (BD) due to exposures
6 affected by urban and transport planning. We conducted a BD assessment using the
7 Urban and Transport Planning Health Impact Assessment (UTOPHIA) tool to estimate
8 annual preventable morbidity and disability-adjusted life-years (DALYs) under
9 compliance with international exposure recommendations for physical activity (PA),
10 exposure to air pollution, noise, heat, and access to green spaces in Barcelona, Spain.

11 **Methods:** Exposure estimates and morbidity data were available for 1357361 Barcelona
12 residents ≥ 20 years (2012). We compared recommended with current exposure levels to
13 estimate the associated BD. We quantified associations between exposures and
14 morbidities and calculated population attributable fractions to estimate the number of
15 attributable cases. We calculated DALYs using GBD Study 2015 background DALY
16 estimates for Spain, which were scaled to Barcelona considering differences in
17 population size, age and sex structures. We also estimated annual health costs that could
18 be avoided under compliance with exposure recommendations.

19 **Results:** Not complying with recommended levels for PA, air pollution, noise, heat and
20 access to green spaces was estimated to generate a large morbidity burden and resulted
21 in 52001 DALYs (95% CI: 42866-61136) in Barcelona each year (13% of all annual
22 DALYs). From this BD 36% (i.e. 18951 DALYs) was due to traffic noise with sleep
23 disturbance and annoyance contributing largely (i.e. 10548 DALYs). Non-compliance
24 was estimated to result in direct health costs of 20.10 million €(95% CI: 15.36-24.83)
25 annually.

26 **Conclusions:** Non-compliance of international exposure recommendations was
27 estimated to result in a considerable BD and in substantial economic expenditure each
28 year in Barcelona. Our findings suggest that (1) the reduction of motor traffic together
29 with the promotion of active transport and (2) the provision of green infrastructure
30 would result in a considerable BD avoided and substantial savings to the public health
31 care system, as these measures can provide mitigation of noise, air pollution and heat as
32 well as opportunities for PA promotion.

33

34 **KEYWORDS**

35 Burden of disease, disability-adjusted life-years, health impact assessment, morbidity,
36 transport planning, urban planning

37

38 **1. INTRODUCTION**

39 With continuing urbanization it is predicted that by 2050 70% of the world's population
40 will be living in cities (United Nations, 2014). Urban life conveys great potential to
41 improve our well-being, as it provides us with employment, access to essential goods
42 and services and the opportunity for social interaction (United Nations, 2014).

43

44 At the same time, urban life and urban design also have detrimental effects on our well-
45 being. Over the decades of urbanization processes, levels of physically-intensive labor
46 and mobility activities have decreased, while convenience has increased and resulted in
47 sedentary lifestyles (Sallis et al., 2015). Typically, our urban fabrics are made up of
48 dense construction, with large amounts of public space being assigned to
49 accommodating motor traffic. As a consequence, little space is available for green or
50 blue infrastructure that could provide urban resilience, would beautify our cities and
51 could be used for recreational purposes and to promote physical activity (PA) (Eakin et
52 al., 2017; Nieuwenhuijsen and Khreis, 2016). With expansion of a city, scarcity of
53 space and increases in housing prices, migration processes take place which force
54 people to relocate to urban peripheries that often are low density neighborhoods that in
55 return imply high motor vehicle dependency and long commuting times (Litman and
56 Steele, 2017; Shoag and Muehlegger, 2015). Motor traffic exposes us not only to
57 physical hazards, but also to hazardous emissions of air pollution, noise and
58 anthropogenic heat (Mueller et al., 2017; Nieuwenhuijsen, 2016). Together with the
59 effects of climate change, these emissions can contribute to increasing temperatures in
60 cities.

61

62 The ‘city’, nowadays the primary settlement form, is increasingly becoming the unit of
63 analysis and is gaining in importance in policy decision-making (WHO, 2015). Cities
64 have direct local accountability and may be more agile to act in terms of governance
65 structures compared to national governments. Cities can identify local problems and
66 therefore develop specific policies that can target actions more effectively. The
67 importance of local accountability on how urban spaces are managed has been
68 recognized recently in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the aligned
69 adoption of the New Urban Agenda that make sustainable cities and communities a
70 pressing issue for sustainable urban renewal (United Nations, 2017, 2015). The New
71 Urban Agenda proposes how urban spaces should best be planned to provide
72 sustainable urbanization processes and specifically allocates power to cities and towns
73 by committing to “support local governments in determining their own administrative
74 and management structures, in line with national legislation and policies, as appropriate,
75 in order to adapt to local needs” (United Nations, 2017).

76

77 Until now, estimates of the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) have mainly been
78 produced on national or regional levels (Forouzanfar et al., 2015). These estimates,
79 however, are less useful for city governments that have to allocate resources and take
80 decisions on the local scale with direct impacts on residents’ daily lives. To address this
81 gap, we aimed to evaluate the city-level burden of disease (BD) impact and direct
82 economic implications of current urban and transport planning practices. We therefore,
83 estimated annual preventable BD and direct economic health gains under compliance
84 with international exposure recommendations for PA, exposure to air pollution, noise
85 and heat, and access to green spaces.

86

87 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

88 2.1 Study setting

89 We further developed and applied the Urban and Transport Planning Health Impact
90 Assessment (UTOPHIA) tool (Mueller et al., 2017) (Supplementary Material A, Fig.
91 A.1) to the city of Barcelona, Spain. Barcelona has one of the highest population
92 densities in Europe with 1.6 million people living on 100 km². Its urban design is made-
93 up of dense, semi-tall construction, streaked by narrow street canyons. Only 10% of the
94 city area is assigned as green space (Barcelona City Council, 2012). As typical for the
95 Mediterranean region, Barcelona's climate (classified as dry-summer subtropical) is
96 comprised of warm summers and mild winters with an annual mean temperature of 18
97 °C and low precipitation (Barcelona City Council, 2012; Brines et al., 2015). Despite a
98 well-connected public transport system with frequent service (i.e. metro, bus, trams,
99 trains) within the municipality area, which in 2013 carried almost 900 million
100 passengers (Barcelona City Council, 2013a), the provision of public transport for the
101 wider metropolitan area is less well-developed. Of the almost two million daily
102 commuter trips from the metropolitan area, over 40% are made in private motor vehicle
103 (Barcelona City Council, 2013a). Barcelona's internal motor vehicle fleet of over
104 500000 cars and 300000 motorcycles plus the large daily motorized metropolitan
105 commuter fleet result in a large traffic volume and one of the highest emission levels in
106 Europe (Barcelona City Council, 2013b; Nieuwenhuijsen et al., 2014). During the
107 summer months urban heat islands (i.e. UHI; urban areas being hotter than surrounding
108 areas) can form and the UHI effect for Barcelona has been observed to be as high as 8
109 °C (Moreno-Garcia, 1994).

110

111 **2.2 Burden of disease assessment – Urban and TranspOrt Planning Health Impact**

112 **Assessment (UTOPHIA) tool**

113 We conducted a BD assessment for Barcelona residents ≥ 20 years (N=1357361) at the
114 census tract level (N=1061) using data from 2012. The census tracts have a mean area
115 of 9.6 ha with an average population of 1528 residents. Using the UTOPIA tool
116 (Mueller et al., 2017), we estimated (1) preventable morbidity (Supplementary Material
117 B), (2) disability-adjusted life-years (DALYs) and its components of years of life lost
118 (YLLs) and years lived with disability (YLDs) (Supplementary Material C), and (3)
119 economic health gains if Barcelona complied with international exposure
120 recommendations for PA, exposure to air pollution, noise and heat, and access to green
121 spaces (Table 1).

122

123 We obtained incidence rates, stratified by sex if available, for selected morbidities from
124 the Catalan Information System for Research in Primary Care (SIDIAP) (SIDIAP,
125 2016) or the literature (Table 2). Background YLLs [(1) natural-causes: communicable,
126 maternal, neonatal, and nutritional disorders; non-communicable diseases; (2) road
127 injury], and cause-specific YLDs for Spain were available through the GBD Study 2015
128 (Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME), 2017). YLLs and YLDs for Spain
129 were scaled to Barcelona considering differences in population size, age and sex
130 structures (Table C.1) (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2011). We obtained
131 recommended exposure levels and compared them to current levels (Table 1). We
132 obtained exposure response functions (ERFs) from the literature to quantify the
133 associations between exposures and morbidities (Tables 3-7). We used ERFs preferably
134 assessing long-term effects and coming from meta-analyses, large longitudinal studies
135 or having a particular exposure-risk gradient for Barcelona. We calculated the relative

136 risk (RR) and population attributable fraction (PAF) for each exposure difference
137 between recommended and current levels.

138

139 YLLs and YLDs corresponding to non-compliance were calculated based on the
140 Environmental Burden of Disease (EBD) approach (Hänninen and Knol, 2011) (Tables
141 3-7) (Fig. C.1-C.2, Tables C.1-C.3). YLLs and YLDs were calculated for the age groups
142 the selected RRs correspond to. To capture the attributable BD more broadly than
143 would be possible by relying on the selected cause-specific RRs only (Tainio, 2015), we
144 calculated natural-cause YLLs by using all-cause mortality RRs for PA (Woodcock et
145 al., 2011), air pollution (WHO. Regional Office for Europe, 2014a), noise (Halonen et
146 al., 2015), heat (Guo et al., 2014) and green space (Gascon et al., 2016b). YLDs (and
147 YLLs for road injury) were calculated using cause-specific RRs. Estimated YLLs and
148 YLDs were summed to obtain DALYs. As a sensitivity analysis, we calculated cause-
149 specific YLLs and YLDs by applying directly the selected cause-specific RRs following
150 the approach of previous studies (Ding et al., 2016; Stevenson et al., 2016) (Tables 3-7).
151 To estimate health cost savings, we performed a literature review to identify direct
152 health care costs associated with each morbidity (Table 8). We estimated direct savings
153 per prevented case of morbidity under compliance of exposure recommendations. We
154 also estimated the willingness to pay to avoid annoyance and sleep disturbance related
155 to traffic noise (Istamto et al., 2014) (Table 9).

156

157 **2.3 Internationally recommended exposure levels**

158 1. Physical activity: The WHO recommends adults (≥ 18 years) to achieve 150 minutes
159 of moderate-intensity PA or 75 minutes of vigorous-intensity PA weekly (WHO, 2010)
160 (Table 1).

161 2. Air pollution: Particulate matter with a diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) is widely used as an
162 indicator of fossil fuel combustion sources and thus air pollution from motor traffic
163 (Mueller et al., 2015). The WHO recommends annual mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations to not
164 exceed $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (WHO, 2006).

165 3. Noise: The WHO recommends day time (7:00-23:00 hr) outdoor noise levels to not
166 exceed equivalent sound pressure levels above 55 dB(A) (WHO, 1999) and night time
167 (23:00-7:00 hr) levels to not exceed 40 dB(A) (WHO. Regional Office for Europe,
168 2009).

169 4. Heat: Although there are no official guidelines, reducing traffic and impermeable
170 surfaces in urban areas, while at the same time increasing greenery and urban albedo
171 may provide cooling by up to 4°C (Doick et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014).

172 5. Green spaces: A European Commission working group as well as the WHO
173 recommend universal access to a green space, defined as living within 300 m linear
174 distance to a green space ≥ 0.5 ha (European Commission, 2001; WHO. Regional Office
175 for Europe, 2016).

176

177 **2.4 Current exposure levels**

178 **2.4.1 Physical activity**

179 PA data were available for 3279 Barcelona residents (20-64 years: $N=2486$; ≥ 65 years:
180 $N=793$) through the 2011 Barcelona Health Survey, a population-based randomized
181 sample studying the health status of Barcelonians (Bartoll et al., 2013) (Supplementary
182 Material D). PA data were extrapolated to all Barcelona residents ≥ 20 years. WHO
183 guidelines were translated into metabolic equivalent of task (MET) minutes/ week:
184 adults 18-64 years, 600 MET minutes/ week; adults ≥ 65 years, 450 MET minutes/ week
185 (IPAQ Webpage, 2005) (Tables D1.-D.2). The exposure difference between current

186 MET minutes and recommended 600/ 450 MET minutes/ week was estimated. We used
187 the following morbidity outcomes (Table 3): cardiovascular disease (CVD) (Kyu et al.,
188 2016), stroke (Kyu et al., 2016), type 2 diabetes (Kyu et al., 2016), colon cancer (Kyu et
189 al., 2016), breast cancer (Kyu et al., 2016), and dementia (Hamer and Chida, 2009).

190

191 **2.4.2 Air pollution**

192 Annual mean PM_{2.5} data (2012) were available on the census tract level through the
193 European Study of Cohorts for Air Pollution Effects Land Use Regression (ESCAPE
194 LUR) model (Eeftens et al., 2012). The exposure difference between current PM_{2.5}
195 concentrations and recommended 10 µg/m³ was estimated for each census tract. We
196 used the following health outcomes (Table 4): CVD (Cesaroni et al., 2014), stroke
197 (Stafoggia et al., 2014), type 2 diabetes (Eze et al., 2015), preterm birth (Sapkota et al.,
198 2010), and low birth weight (Pedersen et al., 2013).

199

200 **2.4.3 Noise**

201 Road traffic noise levels were available on census tract level through Barcelona's
202 strategic noise map (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2006). Different indicators were
203 calculated based on the noise exposure units corresponding to the selected morbidities
204 (Table 5), namely day time ($L_{Aeq,16hr}$) and night time (L_{night}) equivalent sound pressure
205 levels, day-evening-night EU indicator L_{den} with 5 and 10 dB weights for the evening
206 and night time, and day-night indicator L_{dn} with a 10 dB weight for the night time
207 (Supplementary Material E). We used following morbidity outcomes (Table 5): CVD
208 (Babisch, 2014), hypertension (van Kempen and Babisch, 2012) and stroke (Sørensen et
209 al., 2011). Additionally, we calculated the percentage of residents being highly annoyed
210 (%HA) (Fidell et al., 1991; Schultz, 1978) and highly sleep disturbed (%HSD)

211 (Miedema and Vos, 2007; Miedema et al., 2003) by road traffic noise as well as
212 estimated alterations thereof under compliance with noise exposure recommendations.

213

214 **2.4.4 Heat**

215 We used data on daily maximum temperatures (2012) available from a central monitor
216 in Barcelona (Klein Tank, 2002). Drawing on a temperature raster map (2007,
217 resolution 1 km) (Grupo de Investigación Kraken. Universidad Extremadura, 2007) and
218 using QGIS (v2.6.1), monthly maximum temperatures on the census tract level were
219 available. Monitor and raster map data were combined to estimate daily maximum
220 temperatures on the census tract level for 2012.

221

222 We used morbidity outcomes with strong local evidence of an association with heat
223 (Table 6): traffic incidents with injury (including fatal injuries) (Basagaña et al., 2015),
224 respiratory hospital admissions (Michelozzi et al., 2009) and preterm birth (Schifano et
225 al., 2016). According to the time frames and temperature thresholds provided in the
226 studies, indicating when health effects occur, local temperature thresholds were
227 calculated (i.e. traffic incidents, mean maximum temperature from May 15th, 2012 to
228 October 15th, 2012 = 26.6 °C; respiratory hospital admissions; 90th percentile of
229 maximum temperature from April 1st, 2012 to September 30th, 2012 = 30.5 °C; preterm
230 birth, mean maximum temperature from April 1st, 2012 to October 31st, 2012 = 25.3 °C)
231 (Supplementary Material F). For days exceeding the local threshold in maximum
232 temperature, the exposure difference between daily maximum temperature and the
233 threshold level was calculated on census tract level. The corresponding RRs and PAFs
234 were calculated. Attributable cases were estimated on a daily level. We subtracted 4 °C
235 (i.e. presumed impact of reduced impermeable surfaces and increased urban albedo),

236 from daily maximum temperature for days above the threshold. The exposure difference
237 between the 4 °C reduced daily maximum temperature and the threshold was calculated.
238 The corresponding RR and PAF were calculated. The number of cases (i.e. traffic
239 injuries, respiratory hospital admissions, preterm birth) attributable to 4 °C reduced
240 temperatures was subtracted from the number of cases attributable to estimated
241 temperatures in 2012 (Table F.1).

242

243 **2.4.5 Green space**

244 In order to provide universal access to a green space ≥ 0.5 ha within 300 m linear
245 distance, we estimated how much ‘greenness’ each census tract would need to have
246 (Supplementary Material G). We defined ‘greenness’ by using the mean Normalized
247 Differenced Vegetation Index (NDVI) within a 300 m buffer of each census tract
248 (excluding large water bodies). NDVI is a satellite-based indicator of the density of
249 photosynthetically-active vegetation (Gascon et al., 2016a). NDVI values range from -1
250 to +1 with higher values indicating higher vegetation density. NDVI was available
251 through Landsat 8 Operational Land Imager (OLI) and Thermal Infrared Sensor (TIRS)
252 images (resolution 30 m \times 30 m) (US Geology Survey, 2015). Using ArcGIS (v10.0),
253 NDVI levels on census tract level were calculated as well as quintiles of the NDVI
254 distribution. Data on green spaces in Barcelona were available through Urban Atlas
255 (2007, resolution 1:10000) (European Environment Agency, 2007). Using ArcGIS, we
256 abstracted the residential distance of Barcelona Health Survey respondents (N=3417) to
257 the nearest green space ≥ 0.5 ha. For each NDVI quintile, the proportion of Health
258 Survey respondents living within 300 m of a green space ≥ 0.5 ha was determined by
259 matching census tract numbers (Table G.1). Estimates for the Health Survey
260 respondents were extrapolated to all Barcelonians. A logarithmic function was fitted to

261 predict the 'greenness' (NDVI level) needed to provide universal access to a green
262 space ≥ 0.5 ha within 300 m (Fig. G.1). A mean NDVI level of 0.18 was predicted to
263 provide universal access. The exposure difference between the current NDVI level of
264 each quintile and the necessary 0.18 NDVI was determined (Table G.2). Depression
265 was used as the morbidity outcome associated with green space exposure, with local
266 Barcelona risk gradient (Triguero-Mas et al., 2015) (Table 7). The corresponding RR
267 and PAF were calculated.

268

269 **3. RESULTS**

270 Barcelona currently does not comply with international exposure recommendations to
271 protect health (Table 1) (Mueller et al., 2017). We estimated that more than 70% of
272 residents were insufficiently physically active. The annual mean $PM_{2.5}$ level of 16.6
273 $\mu g/m^3$ exceeded the WHO guideline of 10 $\mu g/m^3$. Mean day time noise levels of 65.1
274 dB(A) and a night time levels of 57.6 dB(A) exceeded recommended levels of
275 ≤ 55 dB(A) and ≤ 40 dB(A), respectively. Barcelona's summer months were too hot for
276 favorable health outcomes and one third of the population did not live within 300 m
277 linear distance to a green space ≥ 0.5 ha.

278

279 A large reduction in BD was estimated with compliance of exposure recommendations
280 for PA, air pollution, noise, heat, and access to green spaces. Overall, we estimated to
281 be preventable annually: 1699 cases of CVD (95% CI: 724-2674); 1340 cases of
282 hypertension (95% CI: 743-1937); 849 cases of stroke (95% CI: 539-1159); 740 cases
283 of depression (95% CI: 295-1199); 648 cases of type 2 diabetes (95% CI: 356-942); 210
284 cases of dementia (95% CI: 122-298); 198 cases of low birth weight (95% CI: 75-315);
285 126 cases of preterm birth (95% CI: 106-146); 48 traffic incidents with injury

286 (potentially fatal) (95% CI: 0-97); 20 cases of respiratory hospital admissions (95% CI:
287 12-28); 15 cases of colon cancer (95% CI: 0-30); and 9 cases of breast cancer (95% CI:
288 0-21) (Tables 3-7, Fig. 1). In addition, the prevalence of %HA and %HSD due to traffic
289 noise were estimated to be decreasing from 19% to 6% and from 10% to 3%,
290 respectively (Table 5).

291

292 In Barcelona, a background BD of 401347 DALYs due to natural-causes is expected
293 annually (i.e. 200757 YLLs, 200591 YLDs) (Table C.1). Exposure level
294 recommendation compliance was estimated to result in a health gain of 52001 DALYs
295 (95% CI: 42866-61136) avoidable each year (13% of all expected DALYs), with noise
296 contributing 18951 DALYs (95% CI: 11786-26117), PA contributing 16053 DALYs
297 (95% CI:11584-20523), air pollution contributing 9901 DALYs (95% CI: 6877-12923),
298 heat contributing 4876 DALYs (95% CI: 4101-5648), and green spaces contributing
299 2220 DALYs (95% CI: 674-3766) (Fig. 2). Traffic noise-related %HSD and %HA were
300 especially prevalent and contributed alone 10548 DALYs to the noise-related BD.
301 Results of the sensitivity analysis, estimating YLLs with the cause-specific RRs,
302 showed a lower health gain, namely the avoidance of 25967 DALYs (95% CI: 15029-
303 36904), with noise contributing most, followed by air pollution, PA, green spaces and
304 heat (Tables 3-7). Compliance of recommendations was estimated to result in direct
305 health care savings of 20.10 million € (95% CI: 15.36-24.83) annually (Table 8).
306 Willingness to pay to avoid health risks from excess traffic noise (i.e. annoyance and
307 sleep disturbance) was estimated to amount to 7.35 million € (95% CI: 3.26-11.45)
308 annually (Table 9).

309

310

311 **4. DISCUSSION**

312 Our results show that a considerable morbidity burden, 52000 DALYs and 20 million €
313 in direct health care costs could be prevented annually in Barcelona if urban and
314 transport planning related exposures of PA, air pollution, noise, heat and access to green
315 spaces were improved according to internationally-recommended levels. The largest
316 share in BD was attributable to traffic noise (over 18000 DALYs), with especially sleep
317 disturbance and annoyance being highly prevalent and contributing largely. Results of
318 the sensitivity analysis showed a remarkably lower impact, namely the avoidance of
319 only 26000 DALYs. Therefore, results are highly sensitive to the DALY estimation
320 method.

321

322 Until now, the scarce evidence that exists in this area has primarily focused on the BD
323 associated with transport. A study for Warsaw, one of the most congested cities in
324 Europe, estimated annually 58000 DALYs attributable to noise, air pollution and traffic
325 injuries (with noise contributing the largest), and a health gain of 17000 DALYs
326 avoided due to transport-related PA (Tainio, 2015). A recent study for sparsely
327 populated New Zealand, found 25000 DALYs attributable to traffic incidents, air
328 pollution and noise (Briggs et al., 2016). Another recent study estimated 400 to 800
329 DALYs per 100000 persons avoided due to changes in PA, air pollution and traffic
330 incidents in Boston, Copenhagen, Delhi, London, Melbourne and São Paulo under a
331 compact city scenario (Stevenson et al., 2016). Moreover, similar to our study, a study
332 for the region of Flanders, Belgium found 11% of the population HA and 7% HSD from
333 environmental noise (Stassen et al., 2008).

334

335 Exposures modifiable through urban and transport planning have different impacts in
336 terms of burdens related to premature mortality and morbidity. Whilst noise is
337 associated with a large morbidity burden (i.e. large YLD burden), Barcelonians die
338 more prematurely from physical inactivity and air pollution exposure (i.e. large YLL
339 burden) (Fig. 2). A recent health risk assessment for Switzerland concluded that air
340 pollution and noise exposure have similar external cost impacts, with air pollution
341 contributing particularly with mortality and noise with impaired quality of life
342 (Vienneau et al., 2015). Despite different YLL and YLD contributions of the different
343 exposures, using the summary health measure of DALYs allows to compare disparate
344 health effects with different disability severities, by translating them into a single
345 comparable unit (National Research Council Of The National Academies, 2011).

346

347 As shown, exposures related to current urban and transport planning practices result in a
348 considerable BD and substantial health care costs. Spain has the second highest life
349 expectancy worldwide (after Japan) of 83.2 years at birth (OECD, 2015). However, a
350 better measure of quality of life might be how much time people actually spend in good
351 health and how this time can be prolonged. In 2011, Spanish health care expenditure
352 accounted for 9.4% of the national gross domestic product [GDP of 1477 billion US\$ in
353 2011 (OECD, 2012a)], which is slightly above the Organization for Economic
354 Cooperation and Development (OECD) average (OECD, 2014). Considering that more
355 than 70% of health care expenditure in Spain is funded by public sources (OECD,
356 2014), containing these costs (by for example promoting the compliance of exposure
357 recommendations) should be of great interest to public administrations. In Barcelona,
358 exposure level compliance was estimated to translate into savings of over 20 million €
359 of direct health care costs annually. Moreover, willingness to pay estimates to avoid

360 health risks from traffic noise amounted to over 7 million €annually, which emphasizes
361 the severity of noise being perceived as a serious health threat. Other implied indirect
362 and intangible costs such as restricted-activity, productivity loss, or emotional suffering
363 were not considered. Thus, the total economic impact, also affecting other policy
364 sectors, is most likely underestimated in our study.

365

366 **4.1 Uncertainties**

367 As common in health impact assessment (HIA), this study implies uncertainties about
368 causal inferences. The morbidity and BD estimations have to be interpreted with
369 caution, especially when putting them into the wider context and comparing them with
370 estimates from other settings. Differences in estimations are due to varying assessment
371 methodologies, counterfactuals scenarios, exposure quantity and quality considered,
372 ERFs applied, outcomes considered, their incidence rates and underlying population
373 parameters. Where gaps in knowledge on the true properties of parameters exist, HIA
374 draws on assumptions and extrapolations, which add to further uncertainty.

375

376 In HIA studies, DALYs have previously been estimated in different ways according to
377 authors' judgment. DALY estimations can yield different results as seen by the two
378 different methods applied (i.e. depending on background YLLs and RR gradients
379 considered). When using all-cause mortality RRs to calculate natural-cause YLLs, the
380 mortality burden of other outcomes associated with the exposures, which we could not
381 quantify, is also captured. Thus, we believe that our approach better reflects the overall
382 BD associated with the exposures. When applying the cause-specific RRs to YLLs and
383 YLDs directly, as in the sensitivity analysis, solely the BD of the included health
384 outcomes is reflected and underestimates the total BD attributable to the exposures.

385 Our estimated DALYs are exclusively attributable to the five exposures studied (i.e.
386 noise, PA, air pollution, heat and green spaces). Other risk factors, such as socio-
387 economic and lifestyle factors, or genetic predispositions, keep contributing steadily to
388 the BD (Stevenson et al., 2016). The more comprehensively an exposure is assessed, the
389 larger will be the contribution of this exposure to the overall BD (Stansfeld, 2015). For
390 instance, other noise sources, such as air and rail traffic or industrial sites were not
391 considered, but are suggested to have an independent BD (WHO. Regional Office for
392 Europe, 2011). Also, other traffic-related air pollution (TRAP) such as nitrogen
393 dioxides (NO₂) or ozone (O₃) potentially have an independent BD (Faustini et al., 2014;
394 Héroux et al., 2015; Walton et al., 2015) that was disregarded in the present study. As
395 mutual confounding effects by different TRAPs cannot be ruled-out completely, we
396 only assessed the BD of PM_{2.5} as commonly done in transport HIAs (Mueller et al.,
397 2015). Nonetheless, if health effects of TRAPs are truly independent, then the true BD
398 has been underestimated. Many of the considered exposures affect multiple health
399 outcomes, although not all associations are well quantified with continuous ERFs in the
400 literature. By excluding these outcomes, the attributable BD will most likely be
401 underestimated. For example, PA is suggested to be associated with hypertension (Huai
402 et al., 2013), while noise is suggested to be associated with type 2 diabetes (Dzhambov,
403 2015) and obesity (Dzhambov and Dimitrova, 2016).

404

405 PA, air pollution and noise are all associated with CVD. The largest burden of CVD,
406 however, is suggested to be attributable to air pollution as it shows to have the strongest
407 exposure-risk gradient (i.e. largest RR). Nevertheless, there may be the risk of double-
408 counting of cases and DALYs if multiple exposures are correlated. This raises the issues
409 of mutual confounding and effect modification, and highlights the necessity for more

410 research on the independence of health effects and their physiological mechanisms.
411 Independence of health effects has so far only been demonstrated for noise and air
412 pollution exposure (Stansfeld, 2015; Tétreault et al., 2013). New research evidence
413 suggests modification of health effects of air pollution by temperature (Li et al., 2017).
414 Health effects of green spaces may indeed result from increases in PA levels or
415 mitigation effects of air pollution, noise and heat and thus may not be independent
416 (Gascon et al., 2016b). Therefore, our results should be interpreted with caution as
417 synergetic effects between the exposures cannot be ruled out.

418

419 For noise, most of the estimated DALYs were due to annoyance and sleep disturbance.
420 However, to estimate the BD associated with these two outcomes it is recommended to
421 use prevalence instead of incidence, as a steady-state situation is assumed (Hänninen
422 and Knol, 2011), which limits comparability. Despite the small disability weights for
423 annoyance and sleep disturbance [i.e. 0.02 and 0.07, respectively (WHO. Regional
424 Office for Europe, 2011)], the large prevalence of both outcomes results in a substantial
425 BD. Thus, results can be controversial when comparing BD of less severe but common
426 health outcomes to severe but rare outcomes (Hänninen and Knol, 2011; Tainio, 2015).
427 Albeit, it has been suggested that those people being noise-annoyed are probably also
428 the ones being sleep disturbed (Tainio, 2015); therefore, the noise associated BD (and
429 willingness to pay to avoid noise exposure) may have been overestimated. The
430 contribution of noise, insufficient PA and air pollution is much larger than the
431 contribution of heat and green spaces to the estimated BD. On the one hand, this might
432 imply that these three exposures are the most concerning in the urban context. On the
433 other hand, this finding might partially be due to the simple fact that more research has
434 been performed on PA, air pollution and recently noise and stronger evidence exists for

435 these exposures. For some exposure-health outcome combinations, measuring and
436 quantifying the exposure or the outcome has been challenging and epidemiological
437 studies did not provide enough evidence for causality yet, even if causal relations are
438 suspected (Ezzati et al., 2004).

439

440 Despite the utility of using DALYs to make different health effects comparable, the
441 scaling of DALYs from the national to the city level can be limited by omission to
442 consider variability in baseline health status between the different populations (e.g.
443 possible differences in health status between city and rural populations). Furthermore,
444 the estimated BD refers to one point in time only. The relative contribution of each
445 exposure might change in the future: in times of climate change and increasing
446 population densities (i.e. more people moving into cities where space is limited),
447 considering the exposures of heat and green spaces and their health effects gains in
448 importance; potential advancements in motor vehicle design might improve air quality
449 and noise levels; while community-level interventions may help increase PA levels.
450 More evidence is needed on the multiple exposures in the urban context, their relation
451 with health and their potentially interactive effects in order to estimate the attributable
452 BD more holistically.

453

454 **4.2 Possible solutions**

455 As far as we are aware, the present study is the first to look comprehensively into the
456 BD associated with not just transport but also with urban planning related exposures,
457 estimating a substantial BD and economic expenditure for Barcelona. As we estimated
458 noise, PA and air pollution to contribute the most, we suggest that, in terms of urban
459 and transport planning, healthy living could best be promoted by reducing Barcelona's

460 burdensome motor traffic volume (i.e. a common source of noise, physical inactivity,
461 and air pollution) and promoting walking and cycling for transport in combination with
462 improvements in public transport (i.e. active transport, a common mitigator of noise,
463 physical inactivity and air pollution).

464

465 Implementing these transport measures concurrently, i.e. reducing motor traffic through,
466 for example, traffic calming (e.g. ‘superblocks’), congestion charging or parking pricing
467 and promoting active transport through, for example, expansions of the cycling and
468 public transport network (also improving access for the metropolitan area), can help
469 overcome the motor transport-associated noise and air pollution burden while at the
470 same time increase PA levels (Macmillan et al., 2014; Rojas-Rueda et al., 2011;
471 Woodcock et al., 2014). The urban planning sector can support by creating more
472 attractive environments in which people like to live and be physically active in
473 (Nieuwenhuijsen, 2016; Nieuwenhuijsen et al., 2016). Urban planning related features
474 that promote an active lifestyle have been identified, besides others, as proximity to
475 green spaces and surrounding greenness (i.e. trees, greenways, etc.) (Sallis et al., 2015).
476 Despite the weaker direct associations with health, green spaces are an important urban
477 and transport management tool (Mueller et al., 2017). Not only do green spaces provide
478 a place for PA (either for leisure or as a pleasant active transport route diversion), but
479 urban greenery can also be a natural noise barrier, can help offset greenhouse gas
480 emissions and other air pollutants (Lee et al., 2015) and provides shading and cooling in
481 the summer months (Doick et al., 2014). Moreover, in the urban context where space is
482 limited, the more space that is assigned to parks and green belts, the less space there is
483 available for roadways and the hazardous traffic it accommodates (i.e. replacement
484 effect).

485 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

486 Non-compliance of recommended levels for PA, air pollution, noise, heat and green
487 spaces were estimated to result in a considerable BD and substantial direct health care
488 costs each year in Barcelona. Improvements are expected with changes to urban and
489 transport planning related practices. Our findings suggest that (1) the reduction of motor
490 traffic together with the promotion of active transport and (2) the provision of green
491 infrastructure would result in a considerable BD avoided and substantial savings to the
492 public health care system, as these measures can provide mitigation of noise, air
493 pollution and heat as well as opportunities for PA promotion.

494

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498

499 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

500 There is no conflict of interest to declare.

501

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507

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Table 1. International exposure recommendations and current exposure levels in Barcelona

Exposure	Recommendation	Current exposure
Physical activity Adults 18-64 years Adults ≥65 years	600 MET minutes/ week 450 MET minutes/ week	78 MET minutes/ week 39 MET minutes/ week
Air pollution Annual mean PM _{2.5}	10 µg/ m ³	16.6 µg/ m ³
Noise Day time (7:00-23:00 hr) outdoor activity noise (L _{Aeq,16hr}) level Night time (23:00-7:00 hr) outdoor activity noise (L _{night}) level	55 dB(A) 40 dB(A)	65.1dB(A) 57.6 dB(A)
Heat	Changes to urban plan may provide cooling of 4 °C	Traffic accidents with injury ^a : >26.6 °C on 98 days (mean exceedance by 2.3 °C) Respiratory hospital admissions ^b : >30.5 °C on 21 days (mean exceedance by 1.1 °C) Preterm birth ^c : >25.3 °C on 132 days (mean exceedance by 2.8 °C)
Green spaces	Access to green space ≥0.5 ha within 300 m linear distance	31% of residents without access to green space ≥0.5 ha within 300 m linear distance

^amean maximum temperature from May 15th, 2012 to October 15th, 2012

^b90th percentile of maximum temperature from April 1st, 2012 to September 30th, 2012

^cmean maximum temperature from April 1st, 2012 to October 31st, 2012

Table 2. Morbidity incidence rates

Health outcome	Sex	Incidence rate (per 100000 persons)	Population (Location)	Age	Year	Reference
CVD (Ischemic heart disease ICD-10 codes: I20-I25)	M	642	Barcelona	≥35 years	2015	(SIDIAP, 2016)
	F	278	Barcelona	≥35 years	2015	
Hypertension (ICD-10 codes: I10-I15)	M	1595	Barcelona	≥35 years	2015	(SIDIAP, 2016)
	F	1602	Barcelona	≥35 years	2015	
Stroke	M	690	Spain	≥65 years	2010	(Martínez-Salio et al., 2010)
	F	370	Spain	≥65 years	2010	
Type 2 diabetes mellitus (ICD-10 codes: E11)	M	774	Barcelona	≥35 years	2015	(SIDIAP, 2016)
	F	560	Barcelona	≥35 years	2015	
Colon cancer (ICD-10 codes: C18, except C18.1 and C18.8)	M	102	Barcelona	≥35 years	2015	(SIDIAP, 2016)
	F	76	Barcelona	≥20 years	2015	
Breast cancer (ICD-10 codes: C50)	F	210	Barcelona	≥20 years	2015	(SIDIAP, 2016)
Dementia	M	1110	Spain	≥65 years	2008	(Bermejo-Pareja et al., 2008)
	F	960	Spain	≥65 years	2008	
Depression	Both	895	Catalonia	≥18 years	2014	(Vilagut and Alonso, 2014)
Traffic incidents with injuries (fatal or non-fatal)	Both	583	Barcelona	≥20 years	2012	(Barcelona City Council, 2013b)
Respiratory hospital admissions	M	4964	Catalonia	≥75 years	2014	(Generalitat de Catalunya, 2015)
	F	3530				
Fecundity	F	3662	Barcelona	15-49 years	2014	(Agència de Salut Pública de Barcelona, 2014)
Preterm birth	Both	7400 ^a	Spain	-	2010	(WHO, 2012)
Low birth weight	Both	7700 ^a	Spain	-	2012	(OECD, 2012b)

CVD=cardiovascular disease; F=female; ICD-10=international classification of disease (2010); M=male

^aper 100000 births

Table 3. Preventable cases and DALYs for physical activity under compliance of exposure recommendation in Barcelona

Physical activity	Risk estimate	Exposure	Age group	Study design	Reference	Sex	Preventable cases (95% CI)	Attributable burden of disease			Sensitivity analysis Attributable burden of disease		
								YLLs	YLDs	DALYs	YLLs	YLDs	DALYs
Natural-cause mortality	RR = 0.81 (95% CI: 0.76-0.85)	per 660 MET min/week	≥ 20 years	Meta-analysis	(Woodcock et al., 2011)	Both	NA	15493 (11729-20666)	0	15493 (11729-20666)			
CVD	RR = 0.909 (95% CI: 0.857-0.964)	per 600 MET min/week	≥ 20 years	Meta-analysis	(Kyu et al., 2016)	M	223 (84-372)	15493 (11729-20666)	59 (22-104)	59 (22-104)	837 (317-1372)	59 (22-104)	896 (340-1475)
						F	111 (42-185)		63 (24-104)	63 (24-104)	566 (215-929)	63 (24-104)	629 (239-1032)
Stroke	RR = 0.910 (95% CI: 0.831-1.000)	per 600 MET min/week	≥ 65 years	Meta-analysis	(Kyu et al., 2016)	M	51 (0-104)		16 (0-33)	16 (0-33)	119 (0-238)	16 (0-33)	135 (0-271)
						F	42 (0-86)		22 (0-44)	22 (0-44)	178 (0-357)	22 (0-44)	200 (0-401)
Type 2 diabetes mellitus	RR = 0.980 (95% CI: 0.967-0.996)	per 600 MET min/week	≥ 20 years	Meta-analysis	(Kyu et al., 2016)	M	55 (11-92)		41 (8-69)	41 (8-69)	19 (4-32)	41 (8-69)	61 (12-101)
						F	46 (9-77)		44 (9-74)	44 (9-74)	23 (4-38)	44 (9-74)	67 (13-111)
Colon cancer	RR = 0.978 (95% CI: 0.940-1.016)	per 600 MET min/week	≥ 20 years	Meta-analysis	(Kyu et al., 2016)	M	8 (0-23)		5 (0-14)	5 (0-14)	64 (0-181)	5 (0-14)	69 (0-195)
						F	7 (0-19)		4 (0-11)	4 (0-11)	51 (0-143)	4 (0-11)	55 (0-154)
Breast cancer	RR = 0.987 (95% CI: 0.971-1.003)	per 600 MET min/week	≥ 20 years	Meta-analysis	(Kyu et al., 2016)	F	9 (0-21)		9 (0-20)	9 (0-20)	42 (0-96)	9 (0-20)	51 (0-116)
Dementia	RR = 0.72 (95% CI: 0.60-0.86)	per 1980 MET min/week	≥ 65 years	Meta-analysis	(Hamer and Chida, 2009)	M	75 (34-119)		83 (38-131)	83 (38-131)	256 (116-402)	83 (38-131)	339 (154-533)
						F	135 (61-214)	214 (97-336)	214 (97-336)	489 (222-771)	214 (97-336)	703 (319-1107)	
Total							15493 (11729-20666)	560 (409-710)	16053 (11584-20523)	2645 (1895-3396)	560 (409-710)	3205 (2337-4073)	

CVD=cardiovascular disease; DALYs=disability-adjusted life-years; F=female; M=male; MET=metabolic equivalent of task; RR=relative risk; YLD=years lived with disability; YLL=years of life lost; 95% CI=95% confidence interval

Table 4. Preventable cases and DALYs for air pollution under compliance of exposure recommendation in Barcelona

Air pollution	Risk estimate	Exposure	Age group	Study Design	Reference	Sex	Preventable cases (95% CI)	Attributable burden of disease			Sensitivity analysis Attributable burden of disease			
								YLLs	YLDs	DALYs	YLLs	YLDs	DALYs	
Natural-cause mortality	RR = 1.07 (95% CI:1.04-1.09)	per 10 µg/m ³ PM _{2.5}	≥ 20 years	Meta-analysis	(WHO. Regional Office for Europe, 2014b)	Both		8806 (5152-11149)	0	8806 (5152-11149)	-	-	-	
CVD	HR=1.13 (95% CI: 0.98-1.30)	per 5 µg/m ³ PM _{2.5}	≥25 years	Meta-analysis	(Cesaroni et al., 2014)	M	565 (0-1101)	8806 (5152-11149)	176 (0-346)	176 (0-346)	2483 (0-4880)	176 (0-346)	2659 (0-5226)	
						F	284 (0-553)		188 (0-370)	188 (0-370)	1699 (0-3338)	188 (0-370)	1887 (0-3708)	
Stroke	HR=1.19 (95% CI: 0.88-1.62)	per 5 µg/m ³ PM _{2.5}	≥65 years	Meta-analysis	(Stafoggia et al., 2014)	M	188 (0-425)		70 (0-161)	70 (0-161)	511 (0-1175)	70 (0-161)	582 (0-1336)	
						F	156 (0-352)		92 (0-212)	92 (0-212)	754 (0-1731)	92 (0-212)	846 (0-1942)	
Type 2 diabetes mellitus	RR=1.10 (95% CI: 1.02-1.18)	per 10 µg/m ³ PM _{2.5}	≥20 years	Meta-analysis	(Eze et al., 2015)	M	299 (64-506)		238 (51-404)	238 (51-404)	115 (24-194)	238 (51-404)	352 (75-598)	
						F	249 (53-421)		256 (54-434)	256 (54-434)	128 (27-218)	256 (54-434)	384 (82-652)	
Preterm birth (complications) ^a	RR=1.15 (95% CI: 1.14–1.16)	per 10 µg/m ³ PM _{2.5}	≥20 years	Meta-analysis	(Sapkota et al., 2010)	Both	86 (81-91)		75 (70-79)	97 (92-103)	49 (46-52)	75 (70-79)	146 (138-155)	
Low birth weight	OR=1.18 (95% CI: 1.06-1.33)	per 5 µg/m ³ PM _{2.5}	20-49 years	Pooled effect estimate analysis	(Pedersen et al., 2013)	Both	198 (75-315)		NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	
Total									8806 (5152-11149)	1095 (709-1481)	9901 (6877-12923)	5739 (2600-8877)	1095 (709-1481)	6834 (3397-10269)

CVD=cardiovascular disease; DALYs=disability-adjusted life-years; F=female; HR=hazard rate; M=male; RR=relative risk; YLD=years lived with disability; YLL=years of life lost; 95% CI=95% confidence interval

^aYLLs and YLDs of preterm birth complications were calculated for the population ≥20 years.

Table 5. Preventable cases and DALYs for noise under compliance of exposure recommendations in Barcelona

Noise	Risk estimate	Exposure	Age group	Study design	Reference	Sex	Preventable cases (95% CI)	Attributable burden of disease			Sensitivity analysis Attributable burden of disease		
								YLLs	YLDs	DALYs	YLLs	YLDs	DALYs
Natural-cause mortality	RR =1.04 (95% CI: 1.00-1.07)	Daytime traffic noise L _{Aeq,16hr} > 60 dB(A) versus < 55 dB(A)	≥25 years	Ecological study	(Halonen et al., 2015)	Both		7981 (0-13025)	0	7981 (0-13025)	-	-	-
CVD	OR=1.08 (95% CI 1.04 – 1.13)	per weighted day-night noise level L _{dn} of 10 dB(A) (range 52-77 dB(A))	≥25 years	Meta-analysis	(Babisch, 2014)	M	343 (179-529)		106 (55-164)	106 (55-164)	1499 (782-2317)	106 (55-164)	1605 (837-2481)
						F	173 (90-266)		114 (59-176)	114 (59-176)	1025 (534-1584)	114 (59-176)	1138 (593-1759)
Hyper-tension	OR=1.034 (95% CI 1.011 – 1.056)	per 5 dB(A) increase of the 16 hour average (L _{Aeq,16hr}) road traffic noise level (range 45-75 dB(A))	≥25 years	Meta-analysis	(van Kempen and Babisch, 2012)	M	617 (207-983)		3 (1-5)	3 (1-5)	37 (13-60)	3 (1-5)	40 (13-64)
						F	723 (243-1150)		6 (2-10)	6 (2-10)	77 (26-123)	6 (2-10)	83 (28-133)
Stroke	IRR=1.27 (95% CI 1.13 – 1.43)	per 10 dB higher level of road traffic noise (L _{den}).	≥65 years	Prospective cohort study	(Sørensen et al., 2011)	M	225 (124-313)		84 (46-117)	84 (46-117)	610 (334-855)	84 (46-117)	694 (379-973)
						F	187 (103-260)		110 (60-154)	110 (60-154)	899 (491-1260)	110 (60-154)	1009 (551-1414)
% HA	$0.5118 * (L_{den} - 42) - 1.436 * 10^{-2} * (L_{den} - 42)^2 + 9.868 * 10^{-4} * (L_{den} - 42)^3$	within traffic noise range 45 - 75dB(A) (L _{den})	≥20 years	Recommended by WHO. Regional Office for Europe, 2011)	(Fidell et al., 1991; Schultz, 1978)	Both	Current: 19.4% HA Compliance: 6.3% HA ^a		6972 (3984-21453)	6972 (3984-21453)	0	6972 (3984-21453)	6972 (3984-21453)
% HSD	$20.8 - 1.05 (L_{night}) + 0.01486 (L_{night})^2$	traffic noise 45 - 65 dB(A) L _{night} ; outside, maximally exposed facade	≥20 years	Recommended by WHO. Regional Office for Europe, 2011)	(Miedema and Vos, 2007; Miedema et al., 2003)	Both	Current: 9.9% HSD Compliance: 2.6% HSD ^b						
Total								7981 (0-13025)	10970 (693-21247)	18951 (11786-26117)	4148 (3107-5189)	10970 (693-21247)	15118 (4779-25457)

CVD=cardiovascular disease; DALYs=disability-adjusted life-years; dB(A)=decibel a-weighted; F=female; IRR=incidence risk ratio; M=males; OR=odds ratio; RR=relative risk;

YLD=years lived with disability; YLL=years of life lost; %HA=proportion of people highly annoyed; %HSD=proportion of people highly sleep disturbed; 95% CI=95% confidence interval

^a178773 persons are highly noise-annoyed because of exceedance of the recommended day time noise level.

^b99603 persons are highly sleep disturbed because of exceedance of the recommended night time noise level.

Table 6. Preventable cases and DALYs for heat under compliance of exposure recommendation in Barcelona

Heat	Risk estimate	Exposure	Age group	Study design	Reference	Sex	Preventable cases (95% CI)	Attributable burden of disease			Sensitivity analysis Attributable burden of disease		
								YLLs	YLDs	DALYs	YLLs	YLDs	DALYs
Natural-cause mortality	RR= 1.19 (95% CI: 1.16-1.23)	99th versus 74th temperature percentile	NA	Time-series study	(Guo et al., 2014)	Both		4818 (4139-5683)	0	4818 (4139-5683)	-	-	-
Traffic incident with injury (fatal or non-fatal)	RR=1.011 (95% CI 1.01-1.021)	per 1°C increase in mean maximum temperature ^a	≥20 years	Time-series analysis	(Basagaña et al., 2015)	Both	48 (0-97)	21 ^b (19-42)	14 (13-29)	35 (32-72)	21 (19-42)	14 (13-29)	35 (32-72)
Respiratory hospital admissions	RR=1.045 (95% CI 1.019-1.073)	per 1°C increase in maximum temperature above threshold ^c	≥75 years	Time-series analysis	(Michelozzi et al., 2009)	M	9 (4-13)		NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
						F	11 (5-17)						
Preterm birth (complications) ^d	RR=1.053 (95% CI:1.028-1.078)	per 1°C increase in mean maximum temperature ^e	≥20 years	Survival analysis of pregnancy cohorts in Rome and Barcelona	(Schifano et al., 2016)	Both	40 (22-55)		23 (13-33)	23 (13-33)	15 (8-22)	23 (13-33)	38 (21-55)
Total								4839 (4499-5178)	38 (25-50)	4876 (4101-5648)	36 (20-52)	38 (25-50)	73 (47-99)

DALYs=disability-adjusted life-years; F=female; M=male; RR=relative risk, YLD=years lived with disability; YLL=years of life lost; 95% CI= 95% confidence interval

^amean maximum temperature (15.05.2012-15.10.2012) was used as a threshold defined at 26.6 °C.

^bYLLs for road injury were added because fatal injuries are external causes of death.

^c90th percentile maximum temperature (01.04-2012-30.09.2012) was used as a threshold defined at 30.5 °C.

^dYLLs and YLDs of preterm birth complications were calculated for the population ≥20 years.

^emean maximum temperature (1.04.2012-31.10.2012) was used as a threshold, defined at 25.3 °C.

Table 7. Preventable cases and DALYs for green space under compliance of exposure recommendation in Barcelona

Green space	Risk estimate	Exposure	Age group	Study design	Reference	Sex	Preventable cases (95% CI)	Attributable burden of disease			Sensitivity analysis Attributable burden of disease		
								YLLs	YLDs	DALYs	YLLs	YLDs	DALYs
Natural-cause mortality	RR = 0.99 (95% CI: 0.98-1.01)	Per 10% increase in greenness	≥ 20 years	Meta-analysis	(Gascon et al., 2016b)	Both		1483 (0-2982)	0	1483 (0-2982)	-	-	-
Depression	RR = 0.80 (95% CI; 0.71 – 0.91)	per 0.08 NDVI	≥20 years	Cross-sectional	(Triguero-Mas et al., 2015)	Both	740 (295-1199)	0	737 (311-1131)	737 (311-1131)	0	737 (311-1131)	737 (311-1131)
Total								1483 (0-2982)	737 (311-1131)	2220 (674-3766)	0	737 (311-1131)	737 (311-1131)

DALYs=disability-adjusted life-years; NDVI= normalized difference vegetation index; RR=relative risk; YLD=years lived with disability; YLL=years of life lost; 95% CI= 95% confidence interval

Table 8. Estimated direct health care costs by health outcome

Health outcome	Description	€ incident case	Reference	Avoidable € in million/ year (95% CI)
CVD (Coronary heart disease)	Estimated health care costs per case of coronary heart disease in Spain	1267 ^a	(Ding et al., 2016)	2.15 (0.50-3.81)
Hypertension	Mean total costs of arterial hypertension according to level of comorbidity in a Catalan cohort	1312	(Sicras-Mainar and Navarro-Artieda, 2009)	1.76 (0.59-2.80)
Type 2 diabetes	Estimated health care costs per case of type 2 diabetes in Spain	2652 ^b	(Ding et al., 2016)	1.72 (0.36-2.91)
Stroke	Estimated health care costs per case of stroke in Spain	2497 ^c	(Ding et al., 2016)	2.12 (0.57-3.85)
Breast cancer	Estimated health care costs per case of breast cancer in Spain	1234 ^d	(Ding et al., 2016)	0.01 (0-0.03)
Colon cancer	Estimated health care costs per case of colorectal cancer in Spain	3418 ^e	(Ding et al., 2016)	0.05 (0-0.14)
Dementia	Mean yearly care costs of dementia in the home setting in a Spanish cohort	23474	(Farré et al., 2016)	4.93 (2.23-7.82)
Depression	Mean direct annual health costs according to response to the treatment of major depressive disorder in a Catalan cohort	639 ^f	(Sicras-Mainar et al., 2012)	0.47 (0.19-0.77)
Low birth weight	Mean total costs of hospitalization of very low birth weight infants in Italy (≈60 days of hospitalization)	20502	(Cavallo et al., 2015)	4.06 (1.54-6.46)
Preterm birth	Mean first year hospitalization costs of infants born with a gestational age of <37 weeks in a Swedish cohort	20263	(Ringborg et al., 2006)	2.55 (2.09-2.96)
Respiratory hospital admissions	Mean direct costs for hospital admissions from acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in Spain.	4129	(De Miguel-Díez et al., 2013)	0.08 (0.04-0.12)
Traffic injuries	Mean direct healthcare costs per injured person in Catalonia	3855	(García-Altés and Puig-Junoy, 2011)	0.19 (0.04-0.35)
Total				20.10 (15.36-24.83)

CI=confidence interval; CVD=cardiovascular disease

^aOriginal value of 1735 \$ in 2013. Dollar to Euro exchange rate (2013)=0.73.

^bOriginal value of 3633 \$ in 2013. Dollar to Euro exchange rate (2013)=0.73.

^cOriginal value of 3421 \$ in 2013. Dollar to Euro exchange rate (2013)=0.73.

^dOriginal value of 1691 \$ in 2013. Dollar to Euro exchange rate (2013)=0.73.

^eOriginal value of 4682 \$ in 2013. Dollar to Euro exchange rate (2013)=0.73.

^fThe estimates costs were 451-826 €. The mean value of 639 € was used.

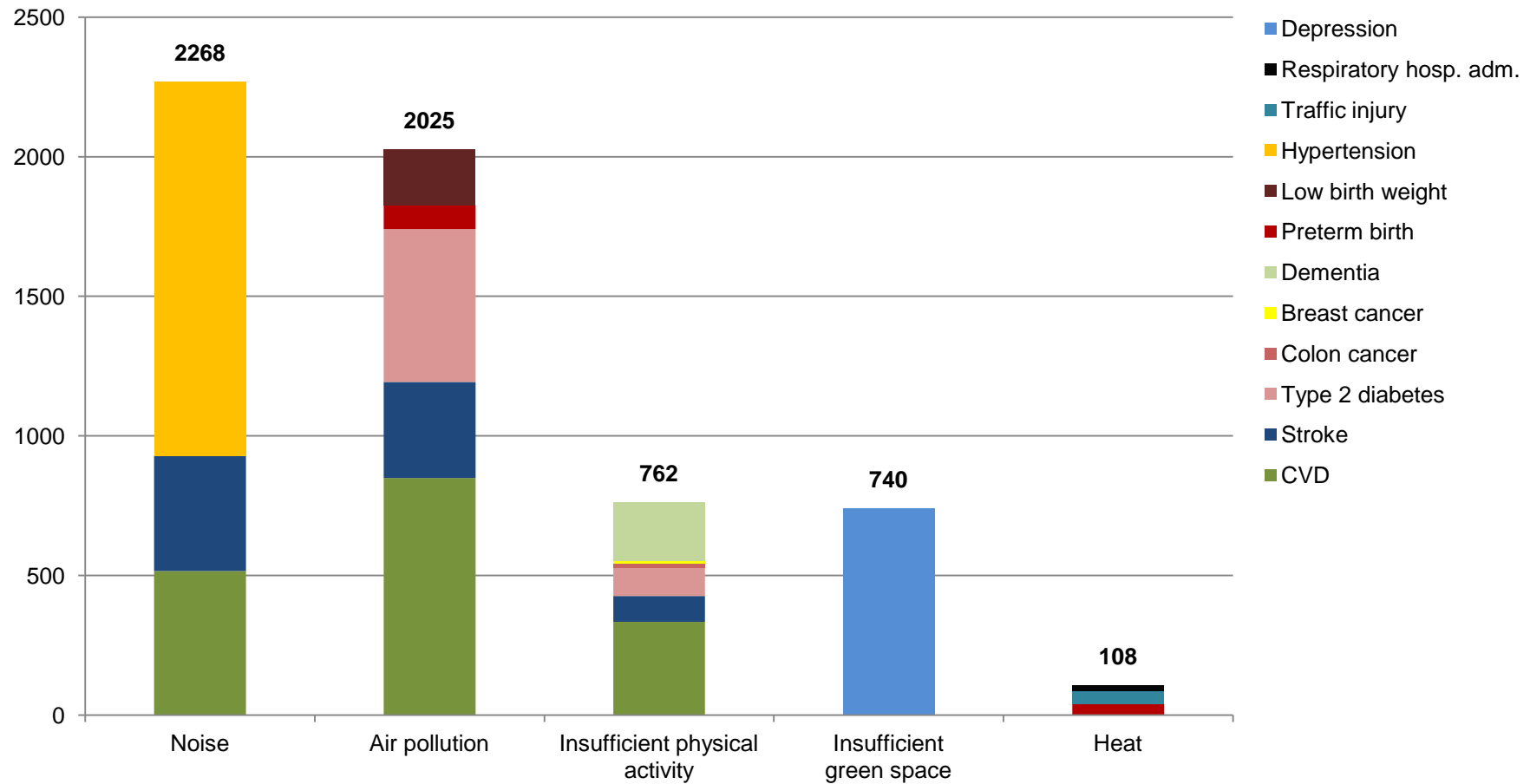
Table 9. Willingness-to-pay to avoid risks related to road-traffic noise

Health outcome	Affected population	Description	€ incident case (95% CI)	Reference	Avoidable €in million/year (95% CI)
Noise –related annoyance	178773	Median willingness to pay to avoid severe annoyance related to road-traffic noise per person/year in Spain	30 (10-50) ^a	(Istamto et al., 2014)	5.36 (1.79-8.94)
Noise-related sleep disturbance	99603	Median willingness to pay to avoid general risks related to road traffic noise per person/year in Spain	20 (10-50) ^a	(Istamto et al., 2014)	1.99 (1.00-4.98)
Total	278376				7.35 (3.26-11.45)

95% CI=95% confidence interval

^aConfidence interval are the lowest and highest median values estimated in the cross-European study by (Istamto et al., 2014).

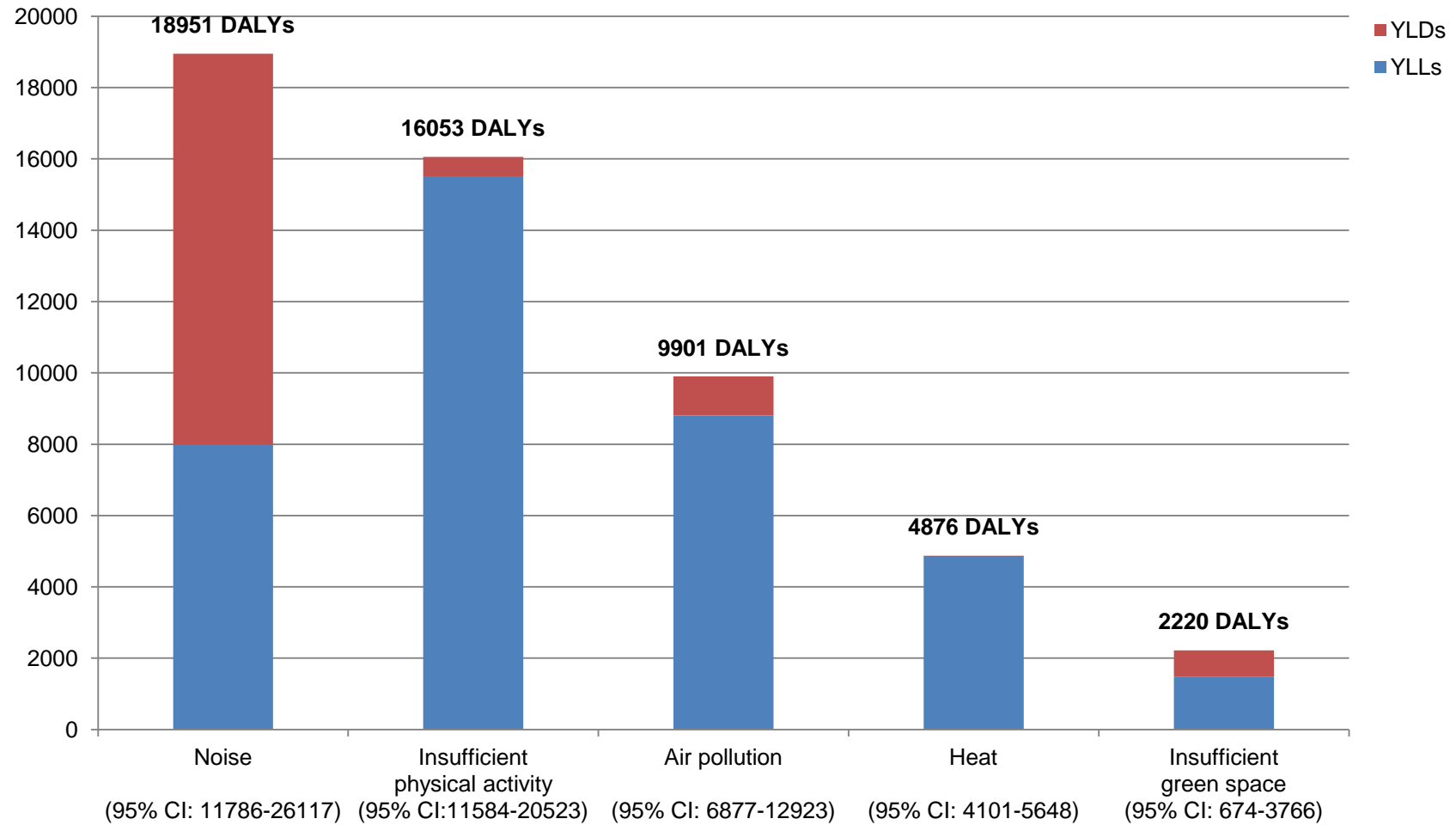
Figure 1. Morbidity cases attributable to non-compliance of international exposure recommendations of physical activity, air pollution, noise, heat and access to green spaces in Barcelona



CVD=cardiovascular disease; hosp.adm=hospital admissions

Noise-related annoyance and sleep disturbance (i.e. 178773 persons and 99603 persons, respectively) are not considered.

Figure 2. YLLs, YLDs and DALYs attributable to non-compliance of international exposure recommendations of physical activity, air pollution, noise, heat and access to green spaces in Barcelona



DALY=disability-adjusted life-years; YLDs =years lived with disability; YLLs=years of life lost; 95% CI=95% confidence interval