

Chapter 20

The Effect of Heat Stress on Daily Mortality in Tel Aviv, Israel

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Abstract Weather-related morbidity and mortality have attracted renewed interest because of climate changes. During a multi-center project conducted within Europe, the threshold temperature where the “heat effect” changes was found to be different for Mediterranean and north continental cities. In this paper, we study the V/J relationship between heat stress (Discomfort Index-DI) and mortality in Tel Aviv, a city within Asia, using daily data of mortality counts and meteorological variables for the period 1/1/2000–31/12/2004 using a Poisson regression and accounting for confounders. The relationship between the discomfort index DI (lag 0–3) and log mortality rates was J shaped for Tel Aviv. The DI threshold was found to be 29.3 (90% CrI=28.0–30.7). Above this threshold, a 1 unit increase in DI was found to be associated with increased mortality of 3.72% (90% CrI=–0.23 to 8.72). NO₂ was also found to have a significant effect on mortality. As global warming continues, even though there exists a high awareness amongst the Israeli population of the negative health impacts of heat, there is still a vital need to develop local policies to mitigate heat-related deaths.

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Keywords Heat stress • Mortality • Global warming • Mediterranean cities

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21 20.1 Introduction


[AU2]

22 Weather-related morbidity and mortality have attracted renewed interest because
23 of climate changes. Specifically, the short-term effects of temperature on mortal-
24 ity have recently been studied in Europe [1–3], Australia [4] the US [5, 6],
25 East Asia [7], and other places [8].  display a seasonal pattern with increased
26 mortality in cold and hot temperatures (a V or J shape). Within Europe, in the
27 multi-center project of PHEWE (Assessment and Prevention of acute Health
28 Effects of Weather conditions in Europe), a threshold apparent temperature – a
29 point where the heat effect changes, was found to be different between
30 Mediterranean and north continental cities [1]. This difference is related to the
31 fact that populations adapt to their local climate—physiologically, culturally
32 and behaviourally.

33 In South-Eastern Mediterranean cities in West Asia, such as Tel Aviv, the
34 climate-mortality association has not yet been investigated (except for Beirut in
35 the years 1997–199 ). Tel Aviv is the second largest city in Israel and is situ-
36 ated on the East Mediterranean coast, with warm to hot, dry summers and cool,
37 wet winters. Compared to European Mediterranean cities, there are many more
38 hot days throughout the year as well as episodes of resuspended wind-blown dust
39 from the Sahara desert, mainly in spring. Air pollutants are potential confound-
40 ers in the association between temperature and mortality [5]. In Tel Aviv, the
41 main source of air pollution is heavy traffic and to a lesser extent power stations
42 and industrial zones.

43 For the calculation of valid indices that define heat stress and zones of dis-
44 comfort, many physiological and environmental factors are required. In Israel,
45 we use the discomfort index (DI) as an index for human thermal comfort [10].
46 This index involves two environmental factors, temperature and relative humid-
47 ity  and is similar to the index of apparent temperature (AT) which is common
48 in studies on the short term effects of heat on health [11]. Since Tel Aviv differs
49 from European Mediterranean cities in climate, culture and inhabitants' behav-
50 iour, especially with regard to a high use of air conditioners and a high aware-
51 ness of water/fluid consumption, our aim was to study the V/J relationship
52 between heat stress and mortality in Tel Aviv, while estimating a threshold heat-
53 stress (DI) point (where the heat-stress effect changes) during the whole year in
54 a time-series design.

55 20.2 Methods

56  data was collected for the Tel Aviv area for the period 1/1/2000–31/12/2004 in
57 a time-series design [6].

20.2.1 Health Data



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The Israel Ministry of Health provided daily mortality counts, referring to the city residences. Taking into account the results of previous studies and the biological plausibility of the health effects [12], the following causes of death were selected for all ages combined and specific age groups (0, 1–14, 15–44, 45–64, 65–74, 75+y): all causes (except external causes) ICD-9: 1–799; cardiac diseases ICD-9: 390–429; circulatory system diseases ICD-9: 440–459; and respiratory diseases ICD-9: 460–519. The gender was stamped in the data set.

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20.2.2 Meteorological Data



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The Israel Ministry of Environmental Protection provided data from monitoring stations located in the city for the entire study period. For this study, we focused on air temperature and relative humidity recorded every half hour. Mean daily averages of all stations were calculated for each variable. Quality control included a descriptive overview of the variables, detecting possible errors and extreme values, testing for homogeneity and correcting erroneous values where possible.

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20.2.3 Exposure Assessment



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We focused on the effect of the discomfort index on mortality, according to the following formula that involves temperature (Temp) and relative humidity (RH) as both additive and multiplicative factors [10]:

[AU3]

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$$DI = -0.394479 + 0.784533 \times Temp + 0.022226 \times RH + 0.0023765 \times Temp \times RH$$

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This index has been used for more than four decades and is highly correlated with the effective temperature index and with the wet-bulb globe temperature (WBGT) heat stress index that was developed in the US Navy as part of a study on heat related injuries during military training. From a biometeorological perspective, this index is more logical than describing temperature and humidity separately. The common categorization of DI, based on studies of populations from different climate conditions and ethnicity is: <22 (no heat stress), 22–23.9 (mild), 24–27.9 (moderately heavy), and >28 (severe heat stress). The Israeli Defense Forces has adopted this categorization for guidelines for exercising in heat. Daily values of DI were computed based on daily average values of temperature (°C) and relative humidity.

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89 **20.2.4 Air Pollution Data** 

90 The following pollutant half-hourly measurements were collected from six monitoring
 91 stations in Tel Aviv which are part of the air-quality network of the Ministry of
 92 Environmental Protection: CO (maximum 8-h moving average); O₃ (daily maximum,
 93 maximum 8-h moving average); NO₂ (daily maximum, daily average); SO₂
 94 (daily average); TSP or Black Smoke (daily average); PM₁₀ (daily average); and
 95 PM_{2.5} (daily average). Monitor selection was based on local criteria, mainly on the
 96 completeness of measurements and representation of population exposure. A standardized
 97 procedure was used to fill in days with missing data [12]. Since different
 98 stations differ in monitored pollutants, we estimated a mean maximum/average
 99 daily value of all data available for each pollutant.

100 For this study, we used the maximum hourly value of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) as
 101 an indicator of the overall daily air pollution level for the entire city.

102 **20.2.5 Tel Aviv – General Characteristics** 

103 Characteristics of Tel Aviv are presented in Fig. 20.1. The area of the city is about
 104 50.5 km² and the population in the years 2001–2004 grew from 358,800 to 371,400
 105 inhabitants. On average, 8.8 inhabitants died per day during the summers and 10.3
 106 died per day during the winters of 2001–2004. About 80% of households have air
 107 conditioners.

108 **20.2.6 Statistical Modeling** 

109 A Poisson regression model was specified for the daily death count using a Bayesian
 110 approach [1]. We included in the model dummy variables for the day of week and
 111 calendar month and a linear term for the maximum hourly NO₂ concentrations (lag
 112 0–1). We modelled the relationship between DI (lag 0–3) and mortality by two linear
 113 terms constrained to joint in a point (threshold), using R software.

114 The model for the daily number of deaths (y_i) was the following:

$$y_i \sim Po(\mu_i)$$

$$\log(\mu_i) = \alpha + month_i + wday_i + \beta \times poll_i + \gamma_0 \times T_i + \gamma_1 \times (T_i - threshold)_+$$

$$(T_i - threshold)_+ = \begin{cases} (T_i - threshold) & T_i > threshold \\ 0 & T_i \leq threshold \end{cases}$$

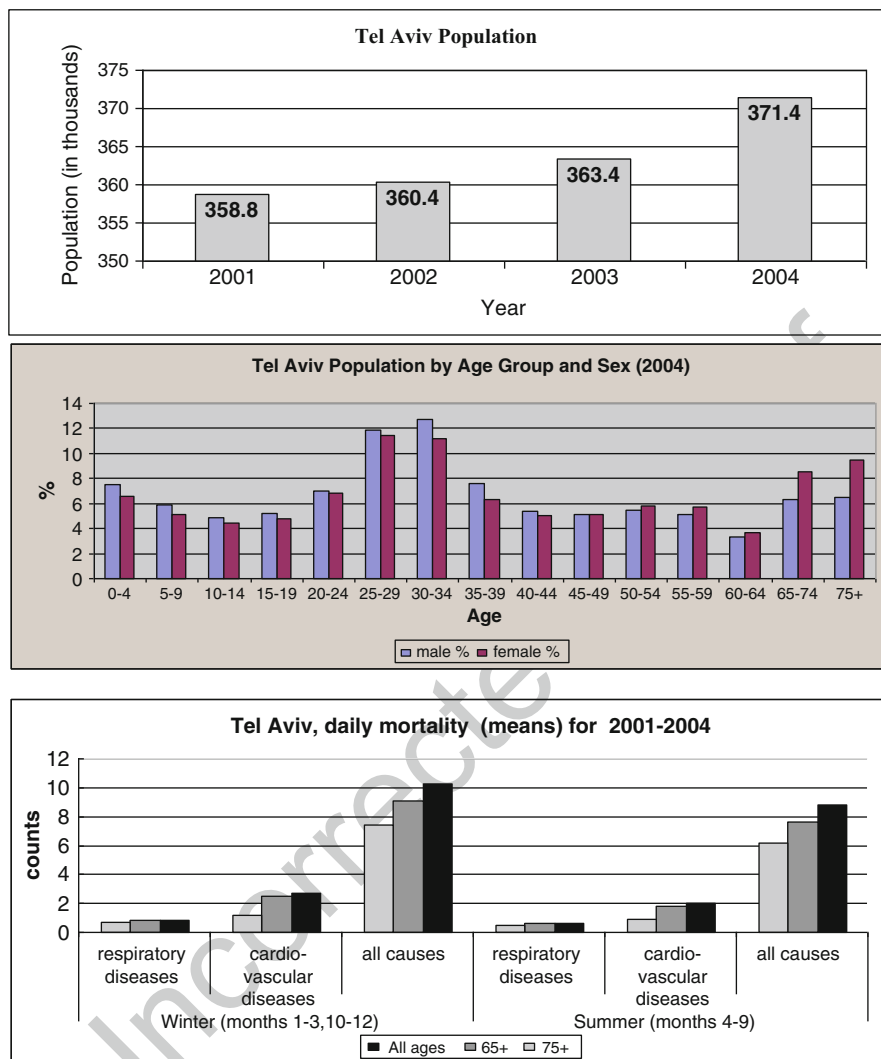


Fig. 20.1 Tel Aviv population (2001–2004)

The threshold, a value of DI which corresponds to a change in the effect estimate, was considered as an unknown parameter to be estimated. A normal prior distribution with large variance, centered in 24, was specified for the threshold. Non-informative prior distributions were specified on all regression coefficients. The joint posterior distribution for the model parameters was obtained using MCMC methods, with the software WinBugs 14. Posterior mean and 90% credibility intervals are provided for the parameters of interest.

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123 **20.3 Results**

124 Table 20.1 presents summary statistics of meteorological data during the summer
 125 in Tel Aviv (months 4–9) in comparison to other Mediterranean European cities
 126 (18). The mean AT temperature in Tel Aviv was found to be the highest among
 127 these cities and the relative humidity was also high. Figure 20.2 presents daily data
 128 of temperature, discomfort index and relative humidity as well as NO₂ levels during
 129 the study period (2001–2004) in Tel Aviv.

130 **20.3.1 Exposure-Response Relationship**

131 The relationship between the discomfort index DI (lag 0–3) and log mortality rates
 132 was J shaped for Tel Aviv (Fig 20.4). This indicated a linear excess risk to die for
 133 exposures to heat stress above a threshold. The DI threshold for Tel Aviv was
 134 found to be 29.3 (90% CrI=28.0–30.7), a value considered to be a severe heat-
 135 stress (DI>28). We report the heat effect as percent change in mortality associated
 136 with a 1 unit change in DI above/below the threshold. Above the threshold of 29.3,
 137 a 1 unit increase in DI was found to be associated with borderline significant
 138 increased mortality of 3.72% (90% CrI=-0.23 to 8.72). However, below the
 139 threshold a 1 unit decrease in DI was found to be associated with a non-significant

t1.1 **Table 20.1** Meteorological data in Tel Aviv and European Mediterranean cities, during the summer
 t1.2 (months 4–9); mean, min-max

City	Study Period	Meteorological variables		
		AT ^a	Temperature ^b	Relative-humidity
Tel Aviv	2001–2004	32.4	25.5	71
		14.0–45.3	13.9–33.8	22–90
Valencia	1995–2000	29.5	22.3	66
		10.6–44.9	10.5–30	32–92
Athens	1992–1996	27.9	23.5	57
		7.9–41.6	7.6–34.3	23–89
Rome	1992–2000	26.1	20.5	72
		5.9–40.5	6.1–30.3	25–94
Milan	1990–2000	25.4	20.0	72
		2.7–40.8	2.5–29.4	26–100
Turin	1991–1999	23.4	18.5	74
		4.2–45.8	3.0–27.9	32–97
Barcelona	1992–2000	23.3	21.7	66
		6.5–36.9	8.6–34.2	29–99
Ljubljana	1992–1999	20.1	15.9	75
		-1.7 to 35.4	0.6–26.5	33–98

t1.20 ^aApparent temperature in °C, $AT = -2.653 + .994 * temp + .0153 * (dew)^2$

t1.21 ^bIn Tel Aviv it's a daily average AT while in the other cities it's a daily max AT

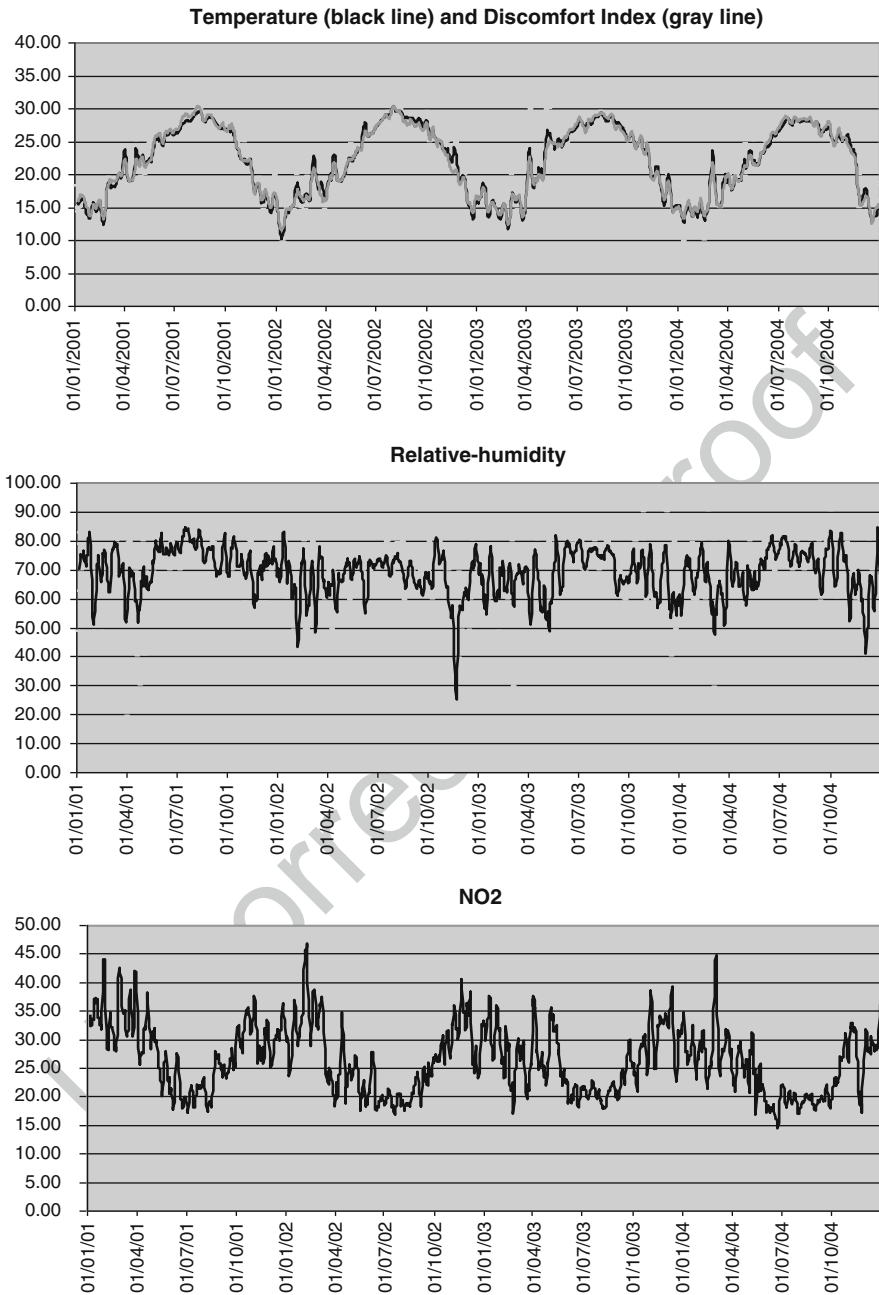
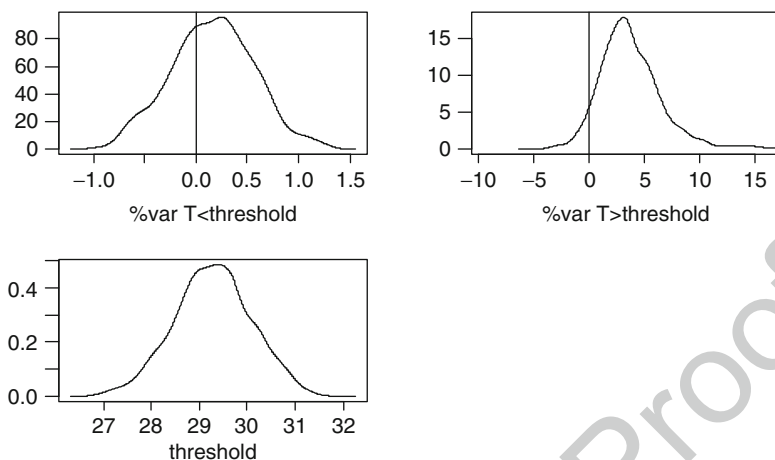


Fig. 20.2 Daily data of temperature (average in °C), discomfort index, relative humidity (average) and NO₂ levels (maximum in ppb), Tel Aviv 2001–2004; smoothed time series (7 day moving average)

a

The full posterior distribution



b

Posterior means and 90% credibility intervals

	Posterior mean	90% Credibility interval	
% variation under the threshold	0.15	-0.54	0.80
% variation over the threshold	3.72	-0.23	8.72
Threshold	29.28	27.96	30.65

Fig. 20.3 (a) posterior distribution of the percent variation under the threshold and the percent variation over the threshold and of the threshold (in DI)

140 increase in mortality of 0.15% (90% CrI=-0.54 to 0.80), which can be considered
 141 to be 0% (Figs. 20.3 and 20.4). NO₂ was found to have a significant effect on
 142 mortality; an increase in 10 ppb was associated with an increase in mortality of
 143 2.45% (90% CrI=0.44-4.49).

144 20.4 Discussion

145 In this work we found a threshold heat-stress for Tel Aviv of DI=29.3 (90%
 146 CrI=28.0-30.7), a value 1.3 units higher than the lower value of severe heat-stress
 147 (DI=28) [10]. In 2001-2004, 4% of the days were above this threshold and 15%
 148 were above DI=28. This threshold value of DI=29.3 for Tel Aviv is probably
 149 related to our specific health outcome, which was mortality rather than morbidity.
 150 Furthermore, we found that a 1-unit increase of DI above the threshold corresponded
 151 to a 3.7% increase in daily mortality, of borderline significance. A single day with a
 152 DI heat-stress exceeding the threshold noted above is sufficient to cause this increase

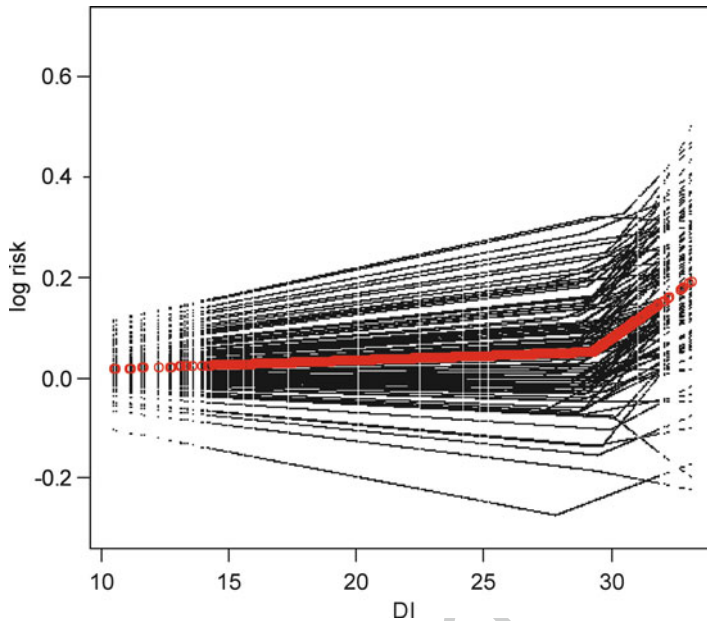


Fig. 20.4 Relationship between heat stress (in DI units) and mortality

in mortality, rather than requiring an extended heat wave. These results for Tel Aviv 153
 might not be relevant to other inland cities in Israel with different climatic condi- 154
 tions, especially with regard to humidity (*e.g.*, Beer Sheva and Jerusalem) or to rural 155
 areas. It is also difficult to directly compare our results with other epidemiological 156
 studies on heat and mortality because of methodological differences [11] such as: 157
 the use of heat-stress definition- either ambient average/max daily temperature [3, 158
 4, 8, 9] or apparent temperature [1, 2, 6, 7]; the way of reporting on heat effects – 159
 above a threshold value [1, 3, 7–9] or not [2, 4, 6]; the approach of estimating a 160
 threshold value – based on a statistical method of maximum likelihood [1, 7, 8] or 161
 on inspection of the exposure-response curves [3, 9] a mix of seasons were included 162
 in the study only the warm seasons included in [1, 2, 4, 6] or all seasons 163
 were included in [7–9]. After accounting for some methodological differences, 164
 our results are in agreement with those that have been obtained from European 165
 Mediterranean cities it is, for a J shape relationship with a threshold of 29.4°C 166
 AT (29.3 DI) and quite a similar percent increase in mortality above the threshold, 167
 even though the higher average of AT temperature in Tel Aviv during the summer 168
 However, the percent increase is less significant and this might be explained by the 169
 heterogeneity of Tel Aviv’s population with regard to socio-economic status, nation- 170
 ality (Jews and Arabs), immigrant status (newcomers from the former USSR or 171
 not), or by high use of domestic air conditioning in Israel, the air conditioning of 172
 public buildings due to mandatory building regulations [13], and behavioural 173
 adaption of the elderly that stay at home on hot days. 174

175 Interestingly, comparing Tel Aviv and Mediterranean European cities to Korean
176 cities [11] with different levels of temperature and humidity, the mortality estimates
177 above a similar threshold (Korea: 23.3–29.7°C of AT) resulted in a much higher
178 effect in Korea – an increase of 6.73–16.3% (in six cities) in mortality per 1°C
179 increase of AT compared to 3.7% (per 1 DI unit) and 3.1% (per 1°C AT) in Tel Aviv
180 and Mediterranean European cities, respectively. Two recent American studies sug-
181 gested that the effect estimates throughout California and other parts of the US are
182 similar, even with different ranges of apparent temperatures. They both found an
183 approximately 2% increase in mortality per a 10°F increase in apparent temperature
184 [11], a smaller increase than reported above. It should be noted that these studies
185 differ also in other methodological issues: in the study designs (time series or case-
186 crossover); the lag-days that were considered (*e.g.*, 0, 0–4, 2-day average); the study
187 time-period; the cause-specific mortality (*e.g.*, all cause or specific causes) and age-
188 groups that were considered (*e.g.*, mortality of all ages or 65+); as well as in the
189 statistical modelling.

190 The role of the following air-pollutants: O₃, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, CO and SO₂ as con-
191 founders and/or effect modifiers on the temperature-mortality association were
192 found to be mixed; some investigators reported air pollutants as confounders or
193 effect modifiers while others found no significant confounding or effect modifica-
194 tion in their studies [11]. We found a significant effect of NO₂.

195 Our study has some major strengths. It is the first study of this kind in Israel. The
196 exposure index was DI and not just temperature or relative humidity, and we adjusted
197 for the possible confounding effects of air pollution. We suggest that further studies
198 in Israel should focus on sub-districts and that they should examine heat-stress and
199 different causes of death, define heat waves and examine their effect on mortality
200 and consider max temperature during the day and max temperature during the night.
201 To conclude, as global warming continues, the frequency, intensity and duration of
202 heat stress days are likely to increase and even though there exists a high awareness
203 amongst the Israeli population to the negative effect of heat on health, there is still
204 a vital need for local policies to mitigate heat-related deaths.

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