

## Research article

# Construction of polluted aerosol in accumulation that affects the incidence of lung cancer

Kriangsak Jenwitheesuk<sup>a</sup>, Udomlack Peansukwech<sup>b</sup>, Kamonwan Jenwitheesuk<sup>c,\*</sup><sup>a</sup> General Surgery Unit, Department of Surgery, Faculty of Medicine, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand<sup>b</sup> Research Manager & Consultant of Department of Surgery, Faculty of Medicine, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand<sup>c</sup> Plastic & Reconstructive Unit, Department of Surgery, Faculty of Medicine, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand

## ARTICLE INFO

**Keywords:**  
 Lung cancer  
 Air pollution  
 Polluted aerosol components  
 Bayesian model  
 MERRA-2  
 Environmental science  
 Environmental health  
 Environmental risk assessment  
 Environmental toxicology  
 Public health  
 Oncology

## ABSTRACT

**Background:** This model demonstrated the correlation between lung cancer incidences and the parts of ambient air pollution according to the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA)'s high resolution technology satellites.

**Methods:** Chemical type of aerosols was investigated by the Aerosol Diagnostics Model such as black carbon, mineral dust, organic carbon, sea-salt and SO<sub>4</sub>. The model investigated associations between the six year accumulation of each aerosol and lung cancer incidence by Bayesian hierarchical spatio-temporal model. Which also represented integrated geophysical parameters.

**Results:** In analyses of accumulated chemical aerosol component from 2010 – 2016, the incidence rate ratio (IRR) of patients in 2017 were estimated. We observed a significant increasing risk for organic carbon exposure (IRR 1.021, 95%CI 1.020–1.022), SO<sub>4</sub>, (IRR 1.026, 95% CI 1.025–1.028) and dust, (IRR 1.061, 95% CI 1.058–1.064). There was also suggestion of an increased risk with, every 1 ug/m<sup>3</sup> increase in organic carbon compound is associated with 21% increased risk of lung cancer, whereas a 26% excess risk of cancer per 1 ug/m<sup>3</sup> increase in mean SO<sub>4</sub> and 61% increased risk of lung cancer for dust levels. The other variables were the negative IRR which did not increase the risk of the exposed group.

**Conclusion:** With our results, this process can determine that organic carbon, SO<sub>4</sub> and dust was significantly associated with the elevated risk of lung cancer.

## 1. Introduction

Air pollution has a direct impact on our environment by disturbing its balance, causing greenhouse effects, global warming, and climate changes; changes that affect health. The characteristics of ambient air pollution contains several kinds of harmful contaminants that are breathable particles and cause particulate matter of various sizes. PM<sub>2.5</sub> is a particle size not exceeding 2.5 microns (PM<sub>2.5</sub>). PM<sub>10</sub> are larger particles. Both sizes are classified as one of the 5 main air pollution types besides sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), carbon monoxide (CO), ozone gas (O<sub>3</sub>) [1]. More than 90% of the world population faced to the air quality levels exceed World Health Organization (WHO) standard [2]. Ambient air pollution exposure caused as many deaths as 4.2 million worldwide every year [3].

Air pollution problems can occur from many reasons. For example, the occurrence of acid rain with high levels of nitric and sulfuric acid.

These acids made up smog. In some instances, the dry precipitation characteristics may stem from gas and particulate. Ozone in the stratosphere layer protect the world from dangerous ultraviolet rays, which are different from the ozone at ground level. Ozone at ground level is another component of air pollution which is harmful to health and is the main ingredient of smog. The ozone is a chemical reaction between oxides of nitrogen and volatile organic compounds (VOC), with sunlight being a contributor to the reaction [4]. The pollution can affect our wellbeing, the diseases of respiratory tract such as asthma, or allergies [5, 6, 7, 8], chronic lung diseases [9], an important trigger of inflammation in autoimmune disease [10], cardiovascular diseases [11, 12], developmental defects of childhood such as autism and cognitive development [13, 14, 15], neurological disorders [16], mental health disorders [17, 18], and cancer [1, 19, 20].

Cancer is extremely widespread amongst many people. WHO reported the most common cancer for both sexes in 2018 was lung cancer

\* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: [kamoje@kku.ac.th](mailto:kamoje@kku.ac.th) (K. Jenwitheesuk).

with a 11% new cases, and still the leading cause of death with 18.4% mortality rate [21]. The lifestyle risk factors play a major role in this rise. In 2013, outdoor air pollution was recognized as a cause for lung cancer by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) [22].

With the information on air quality regulations in Thailand [23], it is found that ambient air pollution has become a major problem and has a health impact on the population. There several causes of this, such as emissions from traffic, industrial plants, and biomass [24, 25, 26]. Efforts to control the amount of toxic substances require an air quality monitoring stations, which is still not enough [1]. But in reality, pollution can occur anywhere in the country, including different urban and rural areas. With the time trend related increased the incidence of lung cancer in Thailand. It may be correlated with the air pollution [27]. For this reason, there should be a tool that can monitor all areas simultaneously. An approach for structural formation of fine particulate matter risk was developed. This model demonstrated the correlation between lung cancer incidences and the components of ambient air pollution by high resolution technology of National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA)'s satellites [28]. Satellite-derived annual means for aerosol grids in order to track aerial pollution trends was collected by the Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA-2) [29].

## 2. Method

The objective of this research was to investigate the influence of ambient aerosol components in lung cancer incidences which was demonstrated by spatio-temporal variations. With two main data-banks from Thai population cancer data and NASA Earth Observatory information were integrated for establishing the valuable outcome.

The spatial variation was the method by examining the differences in the populations across space-time by using a Bayesian modeling methodology. This model may be used not only for cluster disease specific detection but also for searching the confounding or etiological risk factors [30, 31, 32].

### 2.1. Ethical considerations

Data were obtained from two public domains which were opened for the public to use under noncommercial purposes. None of the variables or data used in this study allowed the identification of individuals. Confidentiality in this study was considered together with the privacy consideration, where relevant. The obligation to protect and promote the non-disclosure of information imparted in a relationship of trust lies at the core of the concept of confidentiality. The study was reviewed and approved by the Khon Kaen University Ethics Committee for Human Research (HE 631103).

### 2.2. Data records

#### 2.2.1. Geographic locations

The Geographical Information System (GIS) of Thailand's database was demonstrated by latitudes of 5.77434–20.43353 and longitudes of 97.96852–105.22908 [33]. Currently an average of 68 million people who lived within the 77 provinces compounded with a total of 513,120 km<sup>2</sup> (198,120 sq mi). Located in Southeast Asia, the country was divided into six regions with Bangkok as the capital in the central region. Apart from its tropical rainforest like climate. It is humid all year round all year round as well [34]. This computerized dataset contains names of provinces based on latitude and longitude on the Geographic Coordinate System: GCS\_WGS\_1984.38 was able to link the accurate geographical locations which could flourish and use land data in a separate layers [35].

#### 2.2.2. Cancer data

The cancer data is the national reference amongst the Thai population contains data regarding incidence of the lung cancer from the database of

the Strategy and Planning Division, Ministry of Public Health between January 1, 2017 to December 31, 2017. 273,816 lung cancer patients from a total of 4,301,953 cancer patients were included [26].

#### 2.2.3. Satellite representative air quality data

The requisites for obtaining ambient air pollution data was a set of satellite-based gridded, ambient air database. That is Aerosol Diagnostics Model (tavg1\_2d\_aer\_Nx), MERRA-2, NASA's satellite bases report. The MERRA-2 process was computed on a cubed-sphere grid and analysis algorithm model was characterized by controlling the variable for moisture used in recent versions of Grid-point Statistic Interpolation analysis system (GSI) [36]. Highlights of the MERRA-2 system performed detailed data analysis every 3 h and were able to identify parameters monitored. This data was utilized as the mean value for each substance monthly and controlled aerosol/climate and aerosol-weather interactions [36]. Chemical type of aerosols was investigated by the Aerosol Diagnostics Model such as black carbon, mineral dust, organic carbon, sea-salt and SO<sub>4</sub>. With this satellite observations, it could estimate of the past state of aerosol evidence throughout Thailand at the same time as cancer incidences recorded. Which also represented an integrated geophysical parameters in the mean level of individual grid cells for every month from the year 2011–2017. The MERRA-2 data used in this study/project have been provided by the Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) at NASA Goddard Space Flight Center.

### 2.3. Data and spatial analysis

In the primary phase, the process was investigated by individual datasets. Spatial epidemiology analyzed geographical data and lung cancer incidence rates, that explain variations each year. Cancer mapping has been constructed to clarify the provincial distribution of disease rates and identify areas with low or high rates of incidences. With the same amount of time, a spatially correlated temporal effects with polluted aerosol components throughout Thailand was defined.

The secondary approach developed a statistical models with a Bayesian hierarchical for assessing health risks. With class of models; Integrated Nested Laplace Approximations (INLA) could be utilized to estimate the random variables. With a highly flexible model, the INLA provided solutions for adjustable control factors to develop a model that fits well. The influence of chemical species such as black carbon, mineral dust, organic carbon, sea-salt, and SO<sub>4</sub> was modelled by yearly random intercepts. Potential ambient air risk factors implicated in the increase of lung cancer incidence were assessed through a linear relationship analysis between the number of lung cancer cases and the presence of the ambient air substance using a multiple regression and a Pearson correlation. The effects of different control parameters were conducted by a statistical test of posterior marginal distributions for parameters. We adjusted effects of potential confounding factors which might be influence to a model. These five chemical types were controlled with a subset of variables such as mean relative humidity (%), maximum temperature (°C), minimum temperature (°C), wind speed (m/s), and precipitation. The other confounding factor for health effect was mean household income [37]. The best-performing parameter combinations were reported with 95% confidence intervals for the incidence rate ratio (IRR). This approach developed by time ambient related aerosol exposure. The model was investigated associations between the six year accumulation of each aerosol and lung cancer incidence. The correlation between spatial designs of the individual risk and the incidence rate ratio of lung cancer were estimated using a Spatial-Bayesian inference with the following Poisson log-linear model.

$$\log(\mu) = \alpha + \beta x \text{ or equivalently, } \mu = \exp(\alpha + \beta x) = \exp(\alpha)\exp(\beta x)$$

Which can easily show that:

$\exp(\alpha) = \text{effect on the mean of } Y, \text{ when } X = 0, \text{ which is } \mu.$

$\exp(\beta)$  = The corresponding predictor variable has multiplicative effect of  $\exp(\beta)$  on the mean of  $Y$  per unit increase in  $X$ , which is  $\mu$ .

A consequence of the above is that:

- In case  $\beta = 0$ , then  $\exp(\beta) = 1$ , and the expected value,  $\mu = E(y) = \exp(\alpha)$ , and  $Y$  and  $X$  are clearly not correlated.
- In case  $\beta > 0$ , then  $\exp(\beta) > 1$ , and the expected value  $\mu = E(y)$  is  $\exp(\beta)$  times larger than when  $X = 0$
- In case  $\beta < 0$ , then  $\exp(\beta) < 1$ , and the expected value  $\mu = E(y)$  is  $\exp(\beta)$  times smaller than when  $X = 0$

Integrated nested Laplace approximation (INLA) was used to fit models to spatial data in a Bayesian context [38].

$$\eta = \alpha + \sum n f_j = 1 f(j) (u_{ij}) + \sum n \beta k = 1 \beta k z_k + \epsilon \eta = \alpha + \sum j = 1 n f(j) (u_{ij}) + \sum k = 1 n \beta \beta k z_k + \epsilon i$$

$\eta$ : the linear predictor for a generalized linear model formula.

$u$ : a linear function of some variables.

$\beta$ : the effects of covariates.

$z$  and  $e$ : an unstructured residual.

### 3. Results

The actual incidence rate of lung cancer at the county level during 2017 displayed incidence rate of 273,816 (per 100,000 population) from a total 4,301,953 cancer patients. Whereas in Table 1 demonstrated the baseline of accumulated chemical component from 2010 – 2016 which effected the cancer incidence on 2017.

With the Bayesian spatio-temporal model, the posterior distributions for the parameters were simulated using R-INLA software. The spatial distribution of the fit model is shown in Table 2. It represents the posterior means and posterior standard deviations of parameters with 95% Bayesian credible intervals (CI). These display the estimated marginals of the precisions of the prior variances for the random effects in the best-selected model of each components. The exposure of each substance was able to be controlled by spatio-temporal distribution and income effect could be demonstrated, every 1  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in organic carbon compound is associated with 21% increased risk of lung cancer, whereas a 26% excess risk of cancer per 1  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in mean  $\text{SO}_4$  and 61% increased risk of lung cancer for dust level.

For Table 3, the significant risk probabilities associated with 77 provinces of Incidence Rate Ratio (IRR) on organic carbon component 1.021, 95%CI 1.020–1.022 with P value <0.001, whereas  $\text{SO}_4$ , IRR 1.026, 95% CI 1.025–1.028 with P value <0.001 and dust, IRR 1.061, 95% CI 1.058–1.064 with P value <0.001. The other variables were the negative IRR which did not increased risk in the exposed group.

Figure 1 illustrates the distribution of diseases by spatiotemporal distribution in a grid consisting of 40767 cells ( $3 \times 3 \text{ km}^2$  resolution) as a province scale. The spatial distribution of the aerosol remarkable sign manifests in different signs. In Northern parts showed a dense organic carbon, dust and  $\text{SO}_4$  level, whereas a Southern parts demonstrated mild degree of aerosol concentration. These substances concentration was consistent with incidence of lung cancer. On geographic province scales, the pattern of incidence rate on mapping indicated that the northern areas were more dens with cancer.

### 4. Discussion

Airborne particulate matter (PM) is a common indicator for air pollution. There are several sizes of particulate matter such as, UFPs,  $\text{PM}_{1}$ ,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ,  $\text{PM}_{10}$ . The major PM components are ammonium sulfate, ammonium nitrate, organic carbonaceous mass, elemental carbon and crustal material/dust [39, 40] and also is usually a complex mixture of particles constituted by insoluble metals, organic compounds including PAHs and polychlorinated biphenyls, biological components (allergens), microbial agents, and water [41]. Seasonal variations and sources of pollutants displayed that the concentrations variable of PM-bound PAHs [42, 43]. From 2016 the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC), which is a specialized cancer agency of WHO, classified particulate matter (PM), as carcinogen type 1 that is harmful to human beings [1]. These molecular compositions of organic aerosols can enter the human body via by skin, digestive tract or by breathing. Airborne pollutants are released into a continuously moving surface film and pass through pulmonary epithelial cells at terminal bronchioles [44].

Several studies worldwide have demonstrated that  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  is directly associated with lung cancer incidence and mortality. There was reported that the incidence rate of lung cancer increased by 36%, when the daily  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  increased by 10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  [45]. PM represents a serious health threat by many avenues. It can initiate structural lung damage with thickened alveolar walls and decreased alveolar spaces [46]. PM is also to induce the exceeding of pro-inflammatory cytokines that provoke cell cytotoxicity which contributes to inflammatory cell infiltration, increased alveolar interval, and promoted capillary dilatation [47, 48]. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) production during inflammation occupies a role as a contributors in PM induced DNA hypermethylation [49, 50]. The other mechanisms involve cell cycle alterations by the deregulation of cell signaling pathways [51], cell autophagy [52], and apoptosis [53]. These all of actions promote mechanisms of carcinogenesis [54].

The studies have found that the involvement of PM and lung cancer in both  $\text{PM}_{10}$  [55, 56, 57],  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  [58, 59, 60, 61] mostly, but  $\text{PM}_1$  or even UFPs are limited to very few studies. With an effective tool to monitoring PM or even species of PM will serve the purpose of this research, but there are no efficient ambient air quality monitoring ground stations in Thailand. Global Modelling and Assimilation Office (GMAO), NASA demonstrated the pattern to make real-time estimates and forecasts of aerosols in subcategories of sea-salt, dust, organic and black carbon and sulfate [62]. This research obtained more information from the data bank of NASA's technology and Thai 's health system based to classify the chemical profiles of PM in carcinogenicity. Due to their great benefits of the satellites giving complete and synoptic views of large areas in one image on a systematic basis because of their global monitoring with high resolution, is an important tool for estimating and mapping air pollution for long periods.

There were several studies that presented the long-term exposure to ambient air pollution increased significantly with lung cancer, but nobody knew the exact time-risk involved [58, 63, 64]. However, there were evidences that showed more than five year of exposure effected lung function impairment [65, 66]. This was why we tried to investigate more than 5 years for risk related lung cancer. The more important question is which component of PM strongly effected lung cancer? The knowledge that can demonstrate the real cause for development of the disease.

**Table 1.** Baseline accumulated chemical component from 2010 - 2016.

chemical component	Mean ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	sd ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	Median ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	Min ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	Max ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )
black carbon	8.21	3.08	8.14	2.80	16.47
organic carbon	49.56	14.77	54.03	18.50	76.35
sea salt	119.37	93.92	73.24	26.93	402.88
dust	14.36	2.91	14.21	8.85	20.70
sulfate	26.11	8.38	28.53	9.40	39.28

**Table 2.** Posterior marginals for linear predictor and fitted values computed of lung cancer in Thailand by the aerosol components.

Fixed effects	Mean	SD	2.50%	50%	97.50%
<b>Black carbon</b>					
Intercept	9.441	0.002	9.436	0.243	0.245
Precision for Black carbon	0.243	0.001	0.241	0.189	0.191
Precision for income	-0.034	0.000	-0.034	-0.034	-0.033
Precision for spatial	-0.015	0.000	-0.015	-0.015	-0.015
Precision for temporal	0.036	0.000	0.035	0.036	0.036
<b>Organic carbon</b>					
Intercept	9.320	0.003	9.316	9.320	9.325
Precision for Organic carbon	0.060	0.000	0.059	0.060	0.060
Precision for income	-0.037	0.000	-0.037	-0.037	-0.036
Precision for spatial	-0.015	0.000	-0.015	-0.015	-0.015
Precision for temporal	0.039	0.000	0.038	0.039	0.039
<b>Sea salt</b>					
Intercept	9.981	0.002	9.978	9.981	9.985
Precision for Sea salt	-0.010	0.000	-0.010	-0.010	-0.010
Precision for income	-0.040	0.000	-0.040	-0.040	-0.040
Precision for spatial	-0.015	0.000	-0.015	-0.015	-0.015
Precision for temporal	0.026	0.000	0.025	0.026	0.026
<b>Dust</b>					
Intercept	9.538	0.003	9.532	9.538	9.544
Precision for Dust	0.109	0.001	0.107	0.109	0.111
Precision for income	-0.037	0.000	-0.037	-0.037	-0.037
Precision for spatial	-0.015	0.000	-0.015	-0.015	-0.015
Precision for temporal	0.035	0.000	0.034	0.035	0.035
<b>SO<sub>4</sub></b>					
Intercept	9.133	0.003	9.128	9.133	9.139
Precision for SO <sub>4</sub>	0.144	0.000	0.143	0.144	0.145
Precision for income	-0.036	0.000	-0.036	-0.036	-0.036
Precision for spatial	-0.014	0.000	-0.014	-0.014	-0.014
Precision for temporal	0.046	0.000	0.046	0.046	0.047

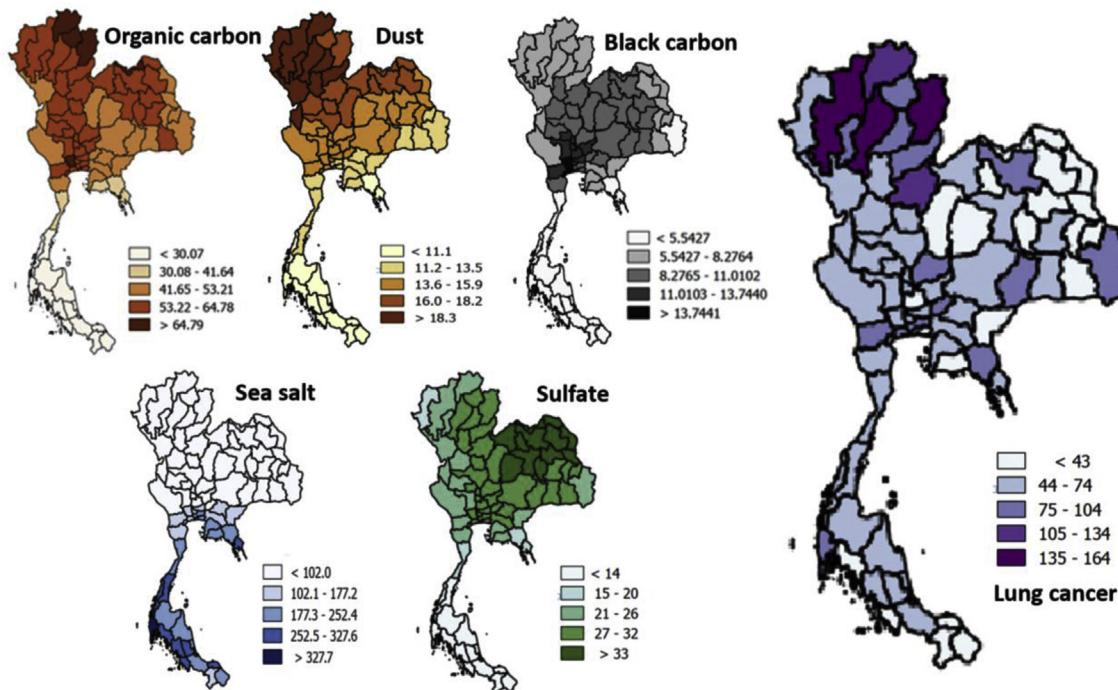
From our result, three components that effect the positive IRR and this supports the associations between components of aerosol and lung cancer. Though, organic carbon, dust and SO<sub>4</sub>. also produced a great risk for lung cancer, but black carbon provided negative IRR risk which did not increased the risk in the exposed group. Sulfate or SO<sub>4</sub> represented like yellow smog that converted from SO<sub>2</sub> in high humidity and low temperatures situation [67]. Organic carbon (OC) and black carbon (BC) are the major components of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> [68]. The important chemical component in carbonaceous aerosols is polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons which is the carcinogen [69] and exposures to polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons found increased risks of lung and bladder cancers [70, 71]. From our investigation, black carbon was less effected like organic carbon. In the appropriate chemical combinations may achieve synergistic effects beyond an individual substance. The one found that at low concentrations of the accompanying treatment of inorganic and organic carbon in PM<sub>10</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> led synergistic effect in the over-expression of decreased cell survival and apoptosis circumstance. While

alone, at the same concentrations PM<sub>10</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>, did not cause damage to the cells [72]. Some epidemiological studies have demonstrated a correlation between SO<sub>2</sub> inhalation and the occurrence of lung cancer in humans [73, 74]. SO<sub>2</sub> effected the airway epithelial cell function and caused airway dysfunction [75]. In addition to induce a cell apoptosis, SO<sub>2</sub> also enhanced an interactive feature on benzo(a)pyrene to cause apoptosis [76]. Furthermore, the basic and reliable polluted data collections are ground station monitoring but there must be enough stations in each country. This is the reason why we need to find other solutions such as satellite-based remote observations. With the several limitation of the inability to incorporate individual information made unadjusted effects for smoking prevalence, or even population dynamics of migration which might be interfered by the analysis result.

Thailand's air pollution policy, government official program established since 1997. With the strategies to reduce air pollution from many sources and also implement the regulations and law. The rationale for implementing the policy was a measurable to health and life benefits

**Table 3.** Comparison of accumulation levels in each aerosol component for geographic weighting regressions from 2011 to 2016 which demonstrated for lung cancer estimated incidence rate ratio in 2017.

	IRR	95% CI	p-value
Black carbon	0.926	0.924–0.928	<0.001
Dust	1.061	1.058–1.064	<0.001
Organic carbon	1.021	1.020–1.022	<0.001
Sea salt	0.999	0.999–0.999	<0.001
SO <sub>4</sub>	1.026	1.025–1.028	<0.001



**Figure 1.** Spatial distribution of estimated comparison between lung cancer incidence and more than 5 years cumulative aerosol substances exposure.

[23]. However, estimating the effect of this policy on the healthcare system outcomes appear complicated. This project was the evidence support to push forward air quality improvement.

## 5. Conclusion

The intent of this research was to evaluate the influence of ambient aerosol components in lung cancer incidence with a long-term monitoring of species in aerosol component that covering data throughout Thailand. With our results, this process can determine that organic carbon, dust and SO<sub>4</sub> significantly correlated with the elevated risk of lung cancer. It also can represent visual perception with combination of Bayesian spatio-temporal models. This evidence provided an update data for the intervention policy to improve air quality. The limitations of the study are due to inaccessible of the individual information, such as social factors, co-morbidities, other risk factors or even population migration.

## Declarations

### Author contribution statement

Kriangsak Jenwitheesuk, Kamonwan Jenwitheesuk: Conceived and designed the experiments; Performed the experiments; Analyzed and interpreted the data; Wrote the paper.

Udomlack Peansukwech: Conceived and designed the experiments; Performed the experiments; Analyzed and interpreted the data; Contributed reagents, materials, analysis tools or data.

### Funding statement

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

### Competing interest statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

### Additional information

Additional data available on request please contact Kamonwan Jenwitheesuk; [kamoje@kku.ac.th](mailto:kamoje@kku.ac.th).

### Acknowledgements

We acknowledge the MODIS mission scientists who are associated with NASA's personnel for pollution information and the Strategy and Planning Division, Ministry of Public Health of Thailand and for the cancer database used in this research effort. The authors wish to thank Chronic Kidney Disease prevention in the Northeast of Thailand and the Research Affairs, Faculty of Medicine, KKU, Thailand (Number IN63209) for assistance with statistical analysis and valuable support. The terms of this arrangement did not lead to any conflict of interests regarding the publication.

### References

- [1] International Agency for Research on Cancer, Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs, 2019 volumes 1–124, <https://bit.ly/2TUzVnh>. (Accessed 10 August 2019).
- [2] World Health Organization, WHO Releases Country Estimates on Air Pollution Exposure and Health Impact, 2016. <https://bit.ly/2GH6qfF>. (Accessed 21 June 2019).
- [3] World Health Organization, Air Pollution, 2019. <http://www.who.int/airpollution/en/>. (Accessed 21 June 2019).
- [4] U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Ground-level ozone basics (n.d.), <https://bit.ly/2KaDUYx>, 2018. (Accessed 21 June 2019).
- [5] Y.-X. Zhao, H.-R. Zhang, X.-N. Yang, Y.-H. Zhang, S. Feng, F.-X. Yu, X.-X. Yan, Fine particulate matter-induced exacerbation of allergic asthma via activation of T-cell immunoglobulin and mucin domain 1, Chin. Med. J. 131 (2018) 2461–2473.
- [6] J.-Z. Wu, D.-D. Ge, L.-F. Zhou, L.-Y. Hou, Y. Zhou, Q.-Y. Li, Effects of particulate matter on allergic respiratory diseases, Chronic Dis. Transl. Med. 4 (2018) 95–102.
- [7] N. Bouazza, F. Foissac, S. Urien, R. Guedj, R. Carbajal, J.-M. Tréliuyer, H. Chappuy, Fine particulate pollution and asthma exacerbations, Arch. Dis. Child. 103 (2018) 828–831.
- [8] Y. Tian, X. Xiang, J. Juan, K. Sun, J. Song, Y. Cao, Y. Hu, Fine particulate air pollution and hospital visits for asthma in Beijing, China, Environ. Pollut. 230 (2017) 227–233.
- [9] T. Li, R. Hu, Z. Chen, Q. Li, S. Huang, Z. Zhu, L.-F. Zhou, Fine particulate matter (PM2.5): the culprit for chronic lung diseases in China, Chronic Dis. Transl. Med. 4 (2018) 176–186.

- [10] S. Bernatsky, M. Fournier, C.A. Pineau, A.E. Clarke, E. Vinet, A. Smargiassi, Associations between ambient fine particulate levels and disease activity in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), *Environ. Health Perspect.* 119 (2011) 45–49.
- [11] W. Zhang, S. Lin, P.K. Hopke, S.W. Thurston, E. van Wijngaarden, D. Croft, S. Squizzato, M. Masiol, D.Q. Rich, Triggering of cardiovascular hospital admissions by fine particle concentrations in New York state: before, during, and after implementation of multiple environmental policies and a recession, *Environ. Pollut.* 242 (2018) 1404–1416.
- [12] R. Khan, S. Konishi, C.F.S. Ng, M. Umezaki, A.F. Kabir, S. Tasmin, C. Watanabe, Association between short-term exposure to fine particulate matter and daily emergency room visits at a cardiovascular hospital in Dhaka, Bangladesh, *Sci. Total Environ.* 646 (2019) 1030–1036.
- [13] M. Morales-Suárez-Varela, I. Peraita-Costa, A. Llopis-González, Systematic review of the association between particulate matter exposure and autism spectrum disorders, *Environ. Res.* 153 (2017) 150–160.
- [14] R.J. Sram, M. Velemský, M. Velemský, J. Stejskalová, The impact of air pollution to central nervous system in children and adults, *Neuroendocrinol. Lett.* 38 (2017) 389–396.
- [15] T.A. Fordyce, M.J. Leonhard, E.T. Chang, A critical review of developmental exposure to particulate matter, autism spectrum disorder, and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, *J. Environ. Sci. Health Part A Tox. Hazard. Subst. Environ. Eng.* 53 (2018) 174–204.
- [16] P. Fu, X. Guo, F.M.H. Cheung, K.K.L. Yung, The association between PM2.5 exposure and neurological disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis, *Sci. Total Environ.* 655 (2019) 1240–1248.
- [17] M. Szyszkowicz, T. Kousha, M. Kingsbury, I. Colman, Air pollution and emergency department visits for depression: a multicity case-crossover study, *Environ. Health Insights* 10 (2016) 155–161.
- [18] R. Wang, D. Xue, Y. Liu, P. Liu, H. Chen, The relationship between air pollution and depression in China: is neighbourhood social capital protective? *Int. J. Environ. Res. Publ. Health* 15 (2018). <https://bit.ly/324MclP>.
- [19] J. García-Pérez, M. Pollán, E. Boldo, B. Pérez-Gómez, N. Aragónés, V. Lope, R. Ramis, E. Vidal, G. López-Abente, Mortality due to lung, laryngeal and bladder cancer in towns lying in the vicinity of combustion installations, *Sci. Total Environ.* 407 (2009) 2593–2602.
- [20] Y. Yanagi, J.V. de Assunção, L.V. Barrozo, The impact of atmospheric particulate matter on cancer incidence and mortality in the city of São Paulo, Brazil, *Cad. Saude Publica* 28 (2012) 1737–1748.
- [21] Global Cancer Observatory, Lung: Source Globocan 2018, 2019. <https://bit.ly/2TTQboX>. (Accessed 21 June 2019).
- [22] Cancer Research UK, How Can Air Pollution Cause Cancer?, 2019. <https://bit.ly/2Sm9WVp>. (Accessed 21 July 2019).
- [23] Pollution Control Department, Ministry of natural resources and environment of Thailand, *Environ. Policies* (2019), 1997–2016, [http://www.pcd.go.th/info\\_serv/reg\\_pola1.html](http://www.pcd.go.th/info_serv/reg_pola1.html). (Accessed 27 October 2019).
- [24] P. Pengchaisri, S. Chantara, K. Sopajaree, S. Wangkarn, U. Tengcharoenkul, M. Rayanakorn, Seasonal variation, risk assessment and source estimation of PM 10 and PM10-bound PAHs in the ambient air of Chiang Mai and Lamphun, Thailand, *Environ. Monit. Assess.* 154 (2009) 197–218.
- [25] C. Li, S.-C. Tsay, N.C. Hsu, J.Y. Kim, S.G. Howell, B.J. Huebert, Q. Ji, M.-J. Jeong, S.-H. Wang, R.A. Hansell, Characteristics and Composition of Atmospheric Aerosols in Phimai, central Thailand during BASE-ASIA, 2012. <https://go.nasa.gov/2OJCkgT>. (Accessed 21 June 2019).
- [26] S. Pongpiachan, D. Tipmanee, C. Khumsup, I. Kittikoon, P. Hirunyatrakul, Assessing risks to adults and preschool children posed by PM2.5-bound polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) during a biomass burning episode in Northern Thailand, *Sci. Total Environ.* 508 (2015) 435–444.
- [27] The Strategy and planning division, Ministry of public health, Patient Data of Thai Population, 2018. [https://bps.moph.go.th/new\\_bps/healthdata](https://bps.moph.go.th/new_bps/healthdata). (Accessed 10 April 2018).
- [28] K. Northon, New NASA Satellite Maps Show Human Fingerprint on Global Air Quality, 2017. <https://go.nasa.gov/1RNp304>. (Accessed 21 June 2019).
- [29] M.G. Bosilovich, R. Lucchesi, M. Suarez, MERRA-2: File Specification, Global Modeling and Assimilation Offic, Greenbelt, MD, 2016.
- [30] R. Roquette, M. Painho, B. Nunes, Spatial epidemiology of cancer: a review of data sources, methods and risk factors, *Geospatial Health* 12 (2017) 504.
- [31] R.K. Raghavan, D. Neises, D.G. Goodin, D.A. Andresen, R.R. Ganta, Bayesian spatio-temporal analysis and geospatial risk factors of human monocytic ehrlichiosis, *PloS One* 9 (2014), e100850.
- [32] D.A. Karagiannis-Voules, R.G. Scholte, L.H. Guimarães, J. Utzinger, P. Vounatsou, Bayesian geostatistical modeling of leishmaniasis incidence in Brazil, *PLoS Neglected Trop. Dis.* 7 (2013), e2213.
- [33] LatitudeLongitude.org site, Thailand Latitude and Longitude, 2018. <https://latitudelongitude.org/th/>. (Accessed 10 April 2018).
- [34] Wikipedia, Geography of Thailand. [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Geography\\_of\\_Thailand](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Geography_of_Thailand), 2019. (Accessed 20 April 2019).
- [35] GeoDatos, Geographic Coordinates of Thailand, 2018. <https://www.geodatos.net/en/coordinates/thailand/>. (Accessed 10 April 2018).
- [36] R. Gelaro, W. McCarty, M.J. Suárez, R. Todling, A. Molod, L. Takacs, C.A. Randles, A. Darmenov, M.G. Bosilovich, R. Reichle, The modern-era retrospective analysis for research and applications, version 2 (MERRA-2), *J. Clim.* 30 (2017) 5419–5454.
- [37] World Health Organization, The Top 10 Causes of Death, 2018. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/the-top-10-causes-of-death>. (Accessed 10 April 2018).
- [38] H. Rue, S. Martino, N. Chopin, Approximate Bayesian inference for latent Gaussian models by using integrated nested Laplace approximations, *J Roy Stat Soc B Stat Meth* 71 (2009) 319–392.
- [39] N. Frank, The Chemical Composition of PM2.5 to Support PM Implementation, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C., 2012.
- [40] X.H. Huang, Q. Bian, W.M. Ng, P.K. Louie, J.Z. Yu, Characterization of PM2.5 major components and source investigation in suburban Hong Kong: a one year monitoring study, *Aerosol Air Qual. Res.* 14 (2014) 237–250.
- [41] M. Oliveira, K. Slezáková, C. Delerue-Matos, M.C. Pereira, S. Morais, Children environmental exposure to particulate matter and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and biomonitoring in school environments: a review on indoor and outdoor exposure levels, major sources and health impacts, *Environ. Int.* 124 (2019) 180–204.
- [42] B. Feng, L. Li, H. Xu, T. Wang, R. Wu, J. Chen, Y. Zhang, S. Liu, S.S.H. Ho, J. Cao, W. Huang, PM2.5-bound polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in Beijing: seasonal variations, sources, and risk assessment, *J. Environ. Sci. China* 77 (2019) 11–19.
- [43] L. Zheng, J. Ou, M. Liu, Y. Chen, Q. Tang, Y. Hu, Seasonal and spatial variations of PM10-bounded PAHs in a coal mining city, China: distributions, sources, and health risks, *Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf.* 169 (2019) 470–478.
- [44] B.O. Stuart, Deposition and clearance of inhaled particles, *Environ. Health Perspect.* 55 (1984) 369–390.
- [45] O. Raaschou-Nielsen, Z.J. Andersen, R. Beelen, E. Samoli, M. Stafoggia, G. Weinmayr, B. Hoffmann, P. Fischer, M.J. Nieuwenhuijsen, B. Brunekreef, W.W. Xun, K. Katsouyanni, K. Dimakopoulou, J. Sommar, B. Forsberg, L. Modig, A. Oudin, B. Oftedal, P.E. Schwarze, P. Nafstad, U. De Faire, N.L. Pedersen, C.-G. Ostenson, L. Fratiglioni, J. Penell, M. Korek, G. Pershagen, K.T. Eriksen, M. Sørensen, A. Tjønneland, T. Ellermann, M. Eeftens, P.H. Peeters, K. Mieliste, M. Wang, B. Bueno-de-Mesquita, T.J. Key, K. de Hoogh, H. Concin, G. Nagel, A. Vilier, S. Grioni, V. Krogh, M.-Y. Tsai, F. Ricceri, C. Sacerdote, C. Galassi, E. Migliore, A. Ranzi, G. Cesaroni, C. Badaloni, F. Forastiere, I. Tamayo, P. Amiano, M. Dorronsoro, A. Trichopoulou, C. Bamia, P. Vineis, G. Hoek, Air pollution and lung cancer incidence in 17 European cohorts: prospective analyses from the European Study of Cohorts for Air Pollution Effects (ESCAPE), *Lancet Oncol.* 14 (2013) 813–822.
- [46] Y. Wang, Z. Lin, H. Huang, H. He, L. Yang, T. Chen, T. Yang, N. Ren, Y. Jiang, W. Xu, D.W. Kamp, T. Liu, G. Liu, AMPK is required for PM2.5-induced autophagy in human lung epithelial A549 cells, *Int. J. Clin. Exp. Med.* 8 (2015) 58–72.
- [47] H. Peng, X.-H. Zhao, T.-T. Bi, X.-Y. Yuan, J.-B. Guo, S.-Q. Peng, PM2.5 obtained from urban areas in Beijing induces apoptosis by activating nuclear factor-kappa B, *Mil. Med. Res.* 4 (2017) 27. <https://bit.ly/2L9wUfn>.
- [48] X. Lu, H. Fu, F. Han, Y. Fang, J. Xu, L. Zhang, Q. Du, Lipoxin A4 regulates PM2.5-induced severe allergic asthma in mice via the Th1/Th2 balance of group 2 innate lymphoid cells, *J. Thorac. Dis.* 10 (2018) 1449–1459.
- [49] W. Zhou, D. Tian, J. He, Y. Wang, L. Zhang, L. Cui, L. Jia, L. Zhang, L. Li, Y. Shu, S. Yu, J. Zhao, X. Yuan, S. Peng, Repeated PM2.5 exposure inhibits BEAS-2B cell P53 expression through ROS-Akt-DNMT3B pathway-mediated promoter hypermethylation, *Oncotarget* 7 (2016) 20691–20703.
- [50] X.-J. Pu, J. Li, Q.-L. Zhou, W. Pan, Y.-Q. Li, Y. Zhang, J. Wang, Z. Jiao, Rosiglitazone inhibits PM2.5-induced cytotoxicity in human lung epithelial A549 cells, *Ann. Transl. Med.* 6 (2018) 152. <https://bit.ly/324Lqv>.
- [51] E.M. Quezada-Maldonado, Y. Sánchez-Pérez, Y.I. Chirino, F. Vaca-Paniagua, C.M. García-Cuellar, miRNAs deregulation in lung cells exposed to airborne particulate matter (PM10) is associated with pathways deregulated in lung tumors, *Environ. Pollut.* 241 (2018) 351–358.
- [52] H. Lin, X. Zhang, N. Feng, R. Wang, W. Zhang, X. Deng, Y. Wang, X. Yu, X. Ye, L. Li, Y. Qian, H. Yu, B. Qian, LncRNA LCPAT1 mediates smoking/particulate matter 2.5-induced cell autophagy and epithelial-mesenchymal transition in lung cancer cells via RCC2, *Cell. Physiol. Biochem.* 47 (2018) 1244–1258.
- [53] T. Colasanti, S. Fiorito, C. Alessandri, A. Serafino, F. Andreola, C. Barbat, F. Morello, M. Alfe, G. Di Blasio, V. Gargiulo, M. Vomero, F. Conti, G. Valesini, Diesel exhaust particles induce autophagy and citrullination in Normal Human Bronchial Epithelial cells, *Cell Death Dis.* 9 (2018) 1073. <https://bit.ly/2MAzHBh>.
- [54] B. Yang, J. Guo, C. Xiao, Effect of PM2.5 environmental pollution on rat lung, *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. Int.* 25 (2018) 36136–36146.
- [55] D.E. Abbey, N. Nishino, W.F. McDonnell, R.J. Burchette, S.F. Knutsen, W. Lawrence Beeson, J.X. Yang, Long-term inhalable particles and other air pollutants related to mortality in nonsmokers, *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.* 159 (1999) 373–382.
- [56] C.A. Pope, R.T. Burnett, M.J. Thun, E.E. Calle, D. Krewski, K. Ito, G.D. Thurston, Lung cancer, cardiopulmonary mortality, and long-term exposure to fine particulate air pollution, *J. Am. Med. Assoc.* 287 (2002) 1132–1141.
- [57] J. Heinrich, E. Thiering, P. Rzehak, U. Krämer, M. Hochadel, K.M. Rauchfuss, U. Gehring, H.-E. Wichmann, Long-term exposure to NO2 and PM10 and all-cause and cause-specific mortality in a prospective cohort of women, *Occup. Environ. Med.* 70 (2013) 179–186.
- [58] P. Hystad, P.A. Demers, K.C. Johnson, R.M. Carpiano, M. Brauer, Long-term residential exposure to air pollution and lung cancer risk, *Epidemiology* 24 (2013) 762–772.
- [59] I. Kulhánová, X. Morelli, A. Le Tertre, D. Loomis, B. Charbotel, S. Medina, J.-N. Ormsby, J. Lepule, R. Slama, I. Soerjomataram, The fraction of lung cancer incidence attributable to fine particulate air pollution in France: impact of spatial resolution of air pollution models, *Environ. Int.* 121 (2018) 1079–1086.
- [60] S. Cakmak, C. Hebborn, J. Vanos, D.L. Grouse, M. Tjeenkema, Exposure to traffic and mortality risk in the 1991–2011 Canadian census health and environment cohort (CanCHEC), *Environ. Int.* 124 (2019) 16–24.

- [61] X. Lin, Y. Liao, Y. Hao, The burden of cardio-cerebrovascular disease and lung cancer attributable to PM<sub>2.5</sub> for 2009, Guangzhou: a retrospective population-based study, *Int. J. Environ. Health Res.* 29 (2019) 582–592.
- [62] Global Modeling and Assimilation Office, Aerosol Transport and Assimilation, 2017. <https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/research/aerosol/>. (Accessed 21 June 2019).
- [63] E. Gubéran, M. Usel, L. Raymond, J. Bolay, G. Fioretta, J. Puissant, Increased risk for lung cancer and for cancer of the gastrointestinal tract among Geneva professional drivers, *Br. J. Ind. Med.* 49 (1992) 337–344.
- [64] M. Jerrett, R.T. Burnett, R. Ma, C.A. Pope, D. Krewski, K.B. Newbold, G. Thurston, Y. Shi, N. Finkelstein, E.E. Calle, M.J. Thun, Spatial analysis of air pollution and mortality in Los Angeles, *Epidemiology* 16 (2005) 727–736.
- [65] G. Paradis, G. Theriault, C. Tremblay, Mortality in a historical cohort of bus drivers, *Int. J. Epidemiol.* 18 (1989) 397–402.
- [66] S. Upadhyay, K. Ganguly, T. Stoeger, Inhaled ambient particulate matter and lung health burden, *Eur. Med. (Edicion Espanola)* J. 2 (2014) 88–95.
- [67] World Bank, Mongolia - Air Pollution in Ulaanbaatar: Initial Assessment of Current Situation and Effects of Abatement Measures, World Bank, Washington, D.C., 2009.
- [68] B.J. Huebert, R.J. Charlson, Uncertainties in data on organic aerosols, *Tellus B Chem. Phys. Meteorol.* 52 (2000) 1249–1255.
- [69] S. Pongpiachan, K.F. Ho, J. Cao, Estimation of gas-particle partitioning coefficients ( $K_p$ ) of carcinogenic polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in carbonaceous aerosols collected at Chiang-Mai, Bangkok and Hat-Yai, Thailand, *Asian Pac. J. Cancer Prev. APJCP* 14 (2013) 2461–2476.
- [70] C. Bosetti, P. Boffetta, C. La Vecchia, Occupational exposures to polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, and respiratory and urinary tract cancers: a quantitative review to 2005, *Ann. Oncol.* 18 (2007) 431–446.
- [71] A. Singh, R. Kamal, I. Ahmed, M. Wagh, V. Bihari, B. Sathian, C.N. Kesavachandran, PAH exposure-associated lung cancer: an updated meta-analysis, *Occup. Med. (Oxf.) Engl.* 68 (2018) 255–261.
- [72] Y. Yun, R. Gao, H. Yue, G. Li, N. Zhu, N. Sang, Synergistic effects of particulate matter (PM10) and SO<sub>2</sub> on human non-small cell lung cancer A549 via ROS-mediated NF-κB activation, *J. Environ. Sci. China.* 31 (2015) 146–153.
- [73] C.-Y. Tseng, Y.-C. Huang, S.-Y. Su, J.-Y. Huang, C.-H. Lai, C.-C. Lung, C.-C. Ho, Y.-P. Liaw, Cell type specificity of female lung cancer associated with sulfur dioxide from air pollutants in Taiwan: an ecological study, *BMC Publ. Health* 12 (2012) 4. <https://bit.ly/2MD4woW>.
- [74] Y. Wang, S. Yue, B. Zheng, Z. Hao, J. Chen, A general method for evaluating the effects of air pollutants on lung cancer prevalence, *J. Air Waste Manag. Assoc.* 68 (1995) 1366–1377.
- [75] A.L. Reno, E.G. Brooks, B.T. Ameredes, Mechanisms of heightened airway sensitivity and responses to inhaled SO<sub>2</sub> in asthmatics, *Environ. Health Insights* 9 (2015) 13–25.
- [76] G. Qin, M. Wu, N. Sang, Sulfur dioxide and benzo(a)pyrene trigger apoptotic and anti-apoptotic signals at different post-exposure times in mouse liver, *Chemosphere* 139 (2015) 318–325.