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Aircraft noise and cardiovascular morbidity and mortality near Heathrow Airport: a case-crossover study

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1 **Title: Aircraft noise and cardiovascular morbidity and mortality near Heathrow Airport: a case-**
2 **crossover study**

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11

12

13 **Abstract**

14 Aircraft noise causes annoyance and sleep disturbance and there is some evidence of associations
15 between long-term exposures and cardiovascular disease (CVD). We investigated short-term
16 associations between previous day aircraft noise and cardiovascular events in a population of 6.3
17 million residing near Heathrow Airport using a case-crossover design and exposure data for different
18 times of day and night. We included all recorded hospitalisations (n=442,442) and deaths (n=49,443)
19 in 2014-2018 due to CVD. Conditional logistic regression was used to estimate the ORs and adjusted
20 for NO₂ concentration, temperature, and holidays. We estimated an increase in risk for 10dB
21 increment in noise during the previous evening (L_{eve} OR = 1.007, 95% CI 0.999-1.015), particularly
22 from 22:00-23:00h (OR= 1.007, 95% CI 1.000-1.013), and the early morning hours 04:30-06:00h (OR=
23 1.012, 95% CI 1.002-1.021) for all CVD admissions, but no significant associations with day-time
24 noise. There was effect modification by age-sex, ethnicity, deprivation, and season, and some
25 suggestion that high noise variability at night was associated with higher risks. Our findings are
26 consistent with proposed mechanisms for short-term impacts of aircraft noise at night on CVD from
27 experimental studies, including sleep disturbance, increases in blood pressure and stress hormone
28 levels and impaired endothelial function.

29 **Key Words:** aircraft noise, epidemiology, mortality, hospitalisation, short-term association, case-
30 crossover, cardiovascular disease

31

32 **Introduction**

33 It is estimated that each year over 1 million disability-adjusted life-years are lost in western Europe
34 due to environmental noise exposure¹. The World Health Organisation 2018 Environmental noise
35 guidelines for the European Region provide a strong recommendation to limit the average exposure
36 to environmental noise to 45dB during the daytime and 40dB during the night-time, and 80% of
37 respondents surveyed in 27 countries across the European Union felt that environmental noise
38 affects their health².

39 A meta-analysis conducted as part of the 2018 World Health Organization guidelines on
40 environmental noise found a relative risk of 1.09 (95%CI 1.04-1.15) for incidence of coronary heart
41 disease per long-term exposure to L_{den} noise and 1.05 (95%CI 0.96-1.15) for incidence of stroke³.

42 Nevertheless, only two previous studies have investigated short-term effects on CVD. A study
43 published in 2021⁴ found acute increases in cardiovascular mortality associated with night-time
44 aircraft noise from Zurich airport and the accompanying editorial⁵ called for further studies at
45 airports with higher night-time exposures. However, a study following the April 2010 eruption of
46 Iceland's Eyjafjallajökull volcano and the subsequent six day closure of London Heathrow did not
47 find a significant difference in CVD hospital admission rates in the areas surrounding Heathrow
48 airport during its closure⁶.

49 Environmental noise is associated with an increased risk of sleep disturbance and general
50 annoyance, and there are good mechanistic pathways by which this may damage the vascular
51 system including vascular oxidative stress and activation of the sympathetic nervous system, which
52 may lead to the acute onset of a cardiovascular event. Experimental studies have shown that aircraft
53 noise stimuli affect sleep, increase blood pressure and stress hormone levels and impair endothelial
54 function in humans^{7,8}. Endothelial dysfunction is strongly associated with adverse cardiovascular
55 events, and evidence shows that dysfunction can be induced a few hours after exposure to a
56 stressor^{9,10}. Acute high levels of noise have also been shown to over-produce cortisol and alter lipid
57 and lipoprotein levels in humans and lead to atherosclerosis¹¹, a common precursor to CVD. A cross-
58 sectional study in Germany found a significant association between night-time road traffic noise
59 exposure and atherosclerosis¹². Atherosclerotic lesions can induce cytokine cascades that then
60 promote endothelial dysfunction¹⁰. In a population-based study near four major European airports
61 elevated blood pressure was consistently found immediately following a night-time aircraft event¹³.
62 This suggests there may be evidence of a short-term association between aircraft noise exposure
63 and cardiovascular morbidity, and therefore there is a need for further epidemiological studies to
64 understand how aircraft noise may act as a trigger for cardiovascular events.

65 The present study aims to assess the short-term impact of aircraft noise at specific time periods
66 throughout the day and night on short-term cardiovascular morbidity and mortality, after adjusting
67 for air pollution and temperature in the population residing near Heathrow Airport. Heathrow
68 Airport is one of the world's busiest airports, situated in a densely populated area in west London.
69 Heathrow flight patterns change according to wind direction, with flight paths taking off to the west
70 approximately 70% of the time due to westerly wind direction and a switch to the east
71 approximately 30% of the time due to easterly wind direction¹⁴. This provides short-term contrasts
72 in noise levels that should aid detection of associations.

73 **Methods**

74 *Study Design*

75 We used a time-stratified case-crossover study design with bidirectional control sampling, in which
76 the days on which an event of interest occurred are compared to control days selected within the
77 same month and on the same day of the week^{15,16}. This individual-level design naturally adjusts for
78 all time-invariant or slowly time-varying confounders, including, sex, smoking behaviour, and genetic
79 factors. It utilizes all cases in the population without the need to recruit additional controls. The
80 case-crossover design is useful in assessing the acute impact of a transient risk factor with minimal
81 bias and has been used widely in environmental epidemiology, predominantly in temperature and
82 air pollution studies as well as aircraft noise^{4,17}.

83 *Study Population*

84 The study area was designed to capture the outer bounds of the Civil Aviation Authority (CAA)
85 annual-average aircraft noise contours in 2011 and covered an approximate distance of 97 km east-
86 to-west, and 47km north-to-south centred on Heathrow Airport. This area encompasses roughly 6.3

87 million people and 155,000 postcodes with one postcode encompassing an average of 22
88 households (SD = 17) occupied by 53 residents (SD = 44) [Figure 1].

89 *Exposure Data*

90 Spatiotemporal aircraft noise sources originating from Heathrow were modelled in version 3b of the
91 Aviation Environmental Design Tool (AEDT)¹⁸ by the environmental consultancy firm, Anderson
92 Acoustics, with external guidance from the University of Leicester. AEDT noise surface estimates
93 account for flight activity, terrain features and other meteorological parameters (see Supplementary
94 Text 2). Radar tracks of individual flights were provided by Heathrow Airport, with a unique set of
95 aircraft footprints constructed for each modelled time period. The created AEDT surfaces cover
96 1,826 days across the five years of 2014-2018. To reduce the computational demands of AEDT, each
97 day was split into eight time bands, and a variable grid resolution was used. In total, 14,608 flight-
98 activity-informed noise surfaces were constructed with a resolution of 100x100m near to Heathrow
99 and a resolution of 200x200m at distant locales. The inner grid with a 100m resolution covers the
100 area from Datchet to Osterly Park, approximately 25km east-to-west, and West Drayton to Ashford,
101 approximately 15km north-to-south.

102 The short-term set of average 'A' frequency weighted noise surfaces cover the following eight time
103 bands of each day, defined by the diurnal variations in temperature and operational activity at
104 Heathrow: 24:00-04:30h, 04:30-06:00h, 06:00-07:00h, 07:00-15:00h, 15:00-19:00h, 19:00-22:00h,
105 22:00-23:00h, and 23:00-24:00h. Daily metrics of L_{day} , L_{eve} , L_{night} , L_{den} and L_{Aeq24} were then calculated
106 from these surfaces [see Supplementary Text 1]. These time periods were chosen in discussion with
107 the study advisory board and industry representatives to capture conventional time periods (i.e.
108 07:00-19:00 day, 19:00-23:00 evening, 23:00-07:00 night), together with timings that are aligned
109 with Heathrow operations (i.e. 23:30-04:30 is a scheduled night flight ban, while 07:00-15:00 and
110 15:00-22:00 are main operational periods with scheduled respite periods). The 'A' Weighting is
111 standard weighting of the audible frequencies designed to reflect the response of the human ear to
112 noise. For further details on the AEDT modelling procedure refer to Supplementary Text 2 in the
113 Supplementary Materials. Average continuous noise estimates from the day prior to the event were
114 used in the analyses. Unlike the analysis of short-term impacts of aircraft noise from Zurich airport
115 by Saucy et al.^{4,19}, data on the exact time of CVD event were unavailable in this population. Analyses
116 in the present study were restricted to observations above 20dB to account for reduced accuracy of
117 the noise model at lower levels.

118 *Health Outcomes Data*

119 All hospital admissions and deaths due to primary cardiovascular disease in the study area from
120 01/01/2014 to 31/12/2018 were included. We extracted post coded data on all hospital admissions
121 and deaths from the Hospital Episode Statistics from NHS Digital and the mortality data from the
122 Office for National Statistics held by the UK Small Area Health Statistics Unit at Imperial College
123 London. Data were obtained for all events with primary cause of admission or death due to stroke
124 (ICD-10 codes I61, I63-I64), coronary heart disease (ICD-10 I20-I25), and other cardiovascular disease
125 (ICD-10 Chapter I) and linked to postcode-level noise estimates. If multiple CVD admissions were
126 recorded in a day, one record was randomly selected for inclusion because the order of admissions
127 in a calendar day or the time of admission were not available. Time of hospital episode and death
128 were not available. The study was covered by national research ethics approval from the London-
129 South East Research Ethics Committee - reference 17/LO/0846. Data access to confidential patient
130 information without consent was covered by the Health Research Authority - Confidentiality
131 Advisory Group under Regulation 5 of the Health Service (Control of Patient Information)
132 Regulations 2002 ('section 251 support') - HRA CAG reference: 20/CAG/0028.

133 *Covariate Data*

134 The environmental covariates included in the models were mean temperature and NO₂
135 concentration to adjust for potential confounding from transport emissions²⁰. Hourly dry air
136 temperature measurements were captured at three National Oceanic and Atmospheric
137 Administration Integrated Surface Database (NOAA-ISD) weather stations within 25km of the study
138 area. Hourly background measurements of fine particulate matter were captured by six UK
139 Automatic Urban and Rural Network (UK-AURN) sites within 25km of the study area. Dry air
140 temperature and background NO₂ concentrations were estimated at each residential postcode using
141 a spatial interpolation technique known as inverse distance-squared weighting (IDW). For further
142 details on dry air temperature and NO₂ estimates refer to Supplementary Text 3 in the
143 Supplementary Materials.

144 Individual-level ethnicity data were available for all hospital admissions in the Hospital Episode
145 Statistics data, and Census Output Area (COA)-level Carstairs Index quintile from the 2011 census
146 was linked to admissions and deaths data. Carstairs Index is a commonly used indicator of material
147 deprivation in health studies^{21,22}. For further details on Carstairs quintile calculation refer to
148 Supplemental Text 4 in the Supplementary Materials. All estimates were also adjusted for the effect
149 of holidays included in the models as a binary variable.

150 *Statistical Analyses*

151 Patients with multiple cardiovascular records (indicating admission to the hospital) per day (n=3018)
152 had one record on the day randomly selected for inclusion, because the order of admissions within a
153 calendar day or the time of admission were not available. Control periods were matched to case
154 periods within the same year and month on the same day of the week, excluding control days on
155 which an additional cardiovascular episode occurred (n=15,856 control days). Control days on which
156 a CVD event occurred were excluded because the patient would not have been at their home. 528
157 cases with no suitable control days were also excluded from analyses. A flowchart of the exclusion
158 criteria and how they affected the number of cases/controls is presented in Supplementary
159 Materials, Figure 1.

160 Conditional logistic regression was used to estimate the odds ratio and 95% confidence intervals per
161 10dB increase for the metrics L_{day} , L_{eve} , L_{night} , L_{den} and L_{Aeq24} as well as for the eight pre-defined distinct
162 time periods throughout the 24-hour period. We considered all CVD, CHD only and stroke only for
163 both hospital episode and deaths. Estimates were adjusted for mean temperature, NO₂
164 concentration and the effect of holidays, as these are variables that change rapidly in time, while
165 long-term confounders were accounted for by the case-crossover study design. Analyses were also
166 stratified by age-sex, ethnicity, deprivation, and season to assess effect modification. We also
167 assessed modification by variation in average noise levels using the mean coefficient of variation
168 (CoV) over the 5-year period. We calculated CoV for each exposure time period by dividing the
169 standard deviation by the mean noise level over the 5-year period. Areas above the mean CoV were
170 categorised as high variation, in contrast to low variability in the areas with CoV below the mean
171 value. [Supplementary Table 6]. All analyses were run in R Statistical Software²³ using the *Epi*
172 package²⁴.

173

174 **Results**175 *Descriptive*

176 442,442 hospital admissions and 49,443 deaths due to cardiovascular disease were included in the
177 analyses. Of the hospital admissions, 58.0% were male, 56.7% were over the age of 65, and of the
178 84.9% that reported ethnicity, 9.4% were Black and 11.4% were South Asian. Cases were evenly
179 spread across the 5 years in the study period, with 41.7% occurring in winter and 24.9% occurring in
180 summer. Among cardiovascular deaths, 52.6% were male, and 85.3% were over the age of 65. 45.2%
181 of deaths occurred in the winter months, and 22.8% occurred in the summer months [Table 1A].
182 1,489,619 and 168,122 control days were included for hospital admissions and for deaths,
183 respectively.

184 Over the entire five-year period the mean $L_{\text{aeq}24}$ for hospitalisation case days was 41.5 dB, and for
185 control days 41.4 dB; for mortality case days 41.2 dB and control days 41.2 dB. Noise exposure
186 varied greatly over the 24-hour period, with highest average noise between 15:00-19:00h and
187 lowest average noise between 24:00-04:30h for both case and control periods. Among cases, the
188 highest noise values were 76.2 dB and 78.8 dB for hospital admissions and deaths respectively;
189 among controls they were 76.2 dB and 75.0 dB. During night-time and early morning hours 23:00-
190 06:00h values were often estimated to be 0.0 dB, indicating no flight activity [Table 1B].

191 *Hospital Admissions*

192 There was evidence of a small increase in risk for 10 dB increment in noise during the previous
193 evening (L_{eve} OR = 1.007, 95% CI 0.999-1.015), particularly from 22:00-23:00h (OR= 1.007, 95% CI
194 1.000-1.013), and the early morning (04:30-06:00h OR= 1.012, 95% CI 1.002-1.021) for all
195 cardiovascular disease admissions [Table 2]. Similarly, we found evidence of an increase in risk
196 associated with noise during the previous night for admissions due to stroke (24:00-04:40h OR =
197 1.133, 95% CI 1.007-1.276). There was a similar but statistically non-significant pattern for
198 admissions due to coronary heart disease [Figure 2].

199 After stratifying by age and sex, the effect of aircraft noise on cardiovascular admissions was
200 statistically significant in men over the age of 65 during the previous evening (L_{eve} OR = 1.021, 95%
201 CI 1.006-1.036), specifically during 19:00-22:00h (OR= 1.016, 95% CI 1.001-1.031) and 22:00-
202 23:00h (OR= 1.014, 95% CI 1.002-1.025). [Figure 3A]. After stratifying by ethnicity, an association with
203 early morning hours 04:30-06:00h (OR=1.054, 95% CI 1.014-1.095) was seen in cases who reported
204 Black ethnicity and for other ethnicity (not South Asian or Black) with previous evening noise during
205 the hour of 22:00-23:00 (OR=1.008, 95% CI 1.001-1.017) for hospitalisations due to all cardiovascular
206 disease [Figure 3B]. There was also a significant increase in risk of CHD hospitalisation among cases
207 who reported Black ethnicity associated with noise in early morning hours 04:30-06:00h (OR= 1.111,
208 95% CI 1.011-1.220) and during the midday hours of 07:00-15:00 (OR= 1.085, 95% CI 1.022-1.153)
209 [Supplementary Materials Figure 2]. There was no evidence of effect modification by age and sex or
210 ethnicity among stroke cases. There was the suggestion of a trend of increasing risk of
211 hospitalisation with increasing deprivation across most time periods throughout the day, although
212 there was also an increase in risk during early morning hours among individuals residing in areas in
213 the least deprived (fifth quintile) of deprivation (04:30-06:00h OR= 1.017, 95% CI 1.003-1.032).
214 [Figure 3C].

215 We also found evidence of effect modification by season. The effect of aircraft noise on CVD hospital
216 admissions was strongest in the winter months, both in the early morning hours (04:30-06:00h OR =
217 1.013, 95% CI 0.999-1.029) and evening hours (15:00-19:00h OR = 1.011, 95% CI 1.000-1.022; 19:00-
218 22:00h OR= 1.022, 95% CI 1.008-1.035; 22:00-23:00h OR= 1.016, 95% CI 1.007-1.026) [Figure 3D]. A
219 similar but smaller pattern was seen for CHD [Supplementary Materials Figure 2].

220 *Mortality*

221 There was no evidence of an association between aircraft noise and deaths due to cardiovascular
222 disease, with wide confidence intervals [Figure 4].

223 *Noise Variability*

224 There was some evidence that night-time aircraft noise on cardiovascular hospital admissions
225 appeared to be modified by high noise variability, in particular by high variability. After stratifying by
226 noise level (above/below mean) and coefficient of variation (above/below mean). Significant
227 associations were seen in postcodes with high variation and low mean noise in both early morning
228 (24:00-04:30h OR= 1.008, 95% CI 1.000-1.015) and late night (22:00-23:00h OR= 1.030, 95% CI 1.012-
229 1.049) hours. There was also evidence of increased risk of CVD hospitalisation during the late night
230 hours in postcodes with low variation and high mean noise (22:00-23:00h OR= 1.019, 95% CI 1.000-
231 1.038).

232 To a lesser extent, the effect on CVD mortality was also modified by variability in exposure to aircraft
233 noise. Associations in postcodes with high variation and low mean noise was higher in the early
234 morning hours (04:30-06:00h OR= 0.998, 95% CI -0.977-1.020) and late night (23:00-24:00h OR=
235 1.015, 95% CI 0.991-1.039) but not statistically significant. [Figure 5].

236 *Sensitivity analysis*

237 These estimates assume that past hospitalisations had no impact on the risk of future
238 hospitalisations. To test this assumption, we ran the analyses above again including only the first
239 hospitalisation for the 60.8% of patients with more than one hospitalisation within the study period
240 (n=269915). The effect estimates did not change significantly, though the confidence intervals
241 became slightly wider due to the reduced sample size [Supplementary Materials Figure 3].

242

243 **Discussion**

244 There are very few previous studies of acute effects of aircraft noise on cardiovascular admissions
245 and mortality. This study found small associations between aircraft noise and cardiovascular disease
246 admissions mainly related to late evening and early night-time exposures, particularly in men over
247 the age of 65, and for people identifying as Black ethnicity. Hospital admission risk appeared to be
248 highest in the winter months, which may suggest a behavioural effect modifier related to season, a
249 decrease in exposure misclassification during the winter, or the unmeasured influence of another
250 seasonal characteristic. This is consistent with multiple epidemiological studies indicating colder
251 weather is associated with an increased risk of acute coronary heart syndromes²⁵. Lastly, we found
252 that aircraft noise may have differential impact on cardiovascular hospitalisations dependent on
253 noise variability and mean noise levels. Aircraft noise during early morning hours was more
254 impactful in areas of high variability and high mean noise while night-time noise had a greater effect
255 in areas of low variability, and high variability with low mean noise. These findings provide additional
256 information on the association of variability in noise with increased risk of CVD events around major
257 airports, thus warranting a more thorough investigation of the impact of variability in aircraft noise
258 as an exposure. More so, increased risk associated with different levels of variability in aircraft noise
259 may further suggest high predictability in health impact of noise exposure over time. Such evidence
260 can provide useful insight for developing noise intervention measures in affected communities,
261 particularly in developing respite period protocols, and at policy level.

262 A prior small area ecological study that examined long-term aircraft noise exposure in areas near
263 Heathrow in relation to CVD, CHS and stroke found the relative risk of hospital admissions for CVD,

264 CHD and stroke were 14%, 21% and 24% higher respectively in the noisiest areas compared to the
265 quietest areas²⁶. These findings for Heathrow and those from previous meta-analyses of aircraft
266 noise and cardiovascular disease are an order of magnitude larger than those observed in this study
267 of short-term exposures³. This is consistent with findings of the short-term effect of air pollution on
268 CVD compared with the long-term effect^{20,27,28}.

269 The results of this study are generally consistent with the findings of the one previous case-crossover
270 study of short-term aircraft noise exposure and cardiovascular morbidity and mortality. Saucy et al.
271 in a study of Zurich airport found associations between deaths due to all CVD and night-time aircraft
272 noise above 40 dB in the 2 hours preceding the event, particularly in older people. While our study
273 found an association between aircraft noise and hospital episodes in individuals over the age of 65,
274 we did not see an association with deaths due to CVD⁴, though the shape of the relationship
275 between aircraft noise and cardiovascular deaths is similar to that of the relationship with
276 cardiovascular hospital admissions. This may be due to a much smaller number of mortality events
277 compared to hospitalisation events in our data. We also did not find the effect modification by
278 deprivation that was described by Saucy et al, though our findings suggest a trend of increasing risk
279 with increasing deprivation. This may be due to chance or due to the lack of information on exact
280 time of hospital admission and death in our data.

281 Our results in the present study are also consistent with studies of short-term exposures conducted
282 on other sources of environmental noise, though the effect size is smaller. A study in Madrid found
283 an increased risk in CVD deaths per 1dB increase in road traffic L_{eqn} for both younger (OR=1.033, 95%
284 CI 1.017-1.049) and older (OR=1.050, 95% CI 1.012-1.056) people²⁹. A subsequent paper from
285 Madrid also found an association between both daytime and night-time urban noise and
286 cardiovascular death, also with a stronger effect in people over 65 years³⁰. This suggests a similar
287 mechanism for the relationship between different sources of environmental noise, particularly at
288 night, and cardiovascular risk.

289

290 *Strengths*

291 This study included virtually all hospitalisations and deaths due to cardiovascular disease in a
292 population of 6.3 million people over five years, providing adequate statistical power to detect an
293 effect. The use of modelled noise data at the postcode level and conducting individual-level analyses
294 helped avoid ecological bias and allowed us to explore effect modification at the individual level. The
295 case-crossover design controlled for important measured and unmeasured confounders including
296 lifestyle factors, ethnicity, and age by design. Distinguishing between the effects of noise at specific
297 periods of time throughout the day, evening and night provided supporting evidence for certain
298 biological mechanisms observed in previous studies. Experimental studies have found that higher
299 levels of night-time aircraft noise can increase blood pressure, decrease quality of sleep, and
300 decrease endothelial function, all of which are associated with cardiovascular disease^{7,8,31}. Lastly,
301 using UK postcode-level exposure data ensures the risk of spatial misclassification is small.

302 *Limitations*

303 The limitations of this study include potential exposure misclassification caused by several data
304 generalisations in the AEDT noise model:

- 305 1. Atmospheric pressure, relative humidity and wind speed are set as meteorological constants
306 that reflect the 30-year average at the airport. These simplifications are a limit of current
307 modelling practices, when estimating sub-annual average aircraft noise exposures.

- 308 2. The headwind speed is maintained at 8 knots, during the entire period of each operation.
309 This may result in inaccurate aircraft performance parameters such as climb and speed,
310 which are related to the location and intensity of noise.
- 311 3. Wind speed or direction are not used by the AEDT sound propagation calculations (i.e., a
312 uniform dispersion in all directions is assumed at all times).
- 313 4. The terrain model only accounts for elevation of natural landscapes, and not man-made
314 features. Therefore, containment and sheltering effects in urban locations are ignored.
- 315 5. The computational demands for creating sub-daily exposure surfaces:
- 316 a. Limited the spatial resolution of the model outputs, returning a coarser exposure
317 gradient.
- 318 b. Drier air temperatures were summarised into profiles that accounted for season
319 and time of day across the 5-year study period. Therefore, the influence of unusual
320 temperature events on sound propagation is not accounted for.

321 However, the AEDT model has demonstrated good agreement with actual aircraft noise
322 measurements when modelling average estimates, with slight overestimation in departure flights
323 and slight underestimation in arrivals³², suggesting exposure misclassification due to the model
324 should be minimal. Misclassification bias may also be introduced due to individuals moving outside
325 of the postcode to which their exposure has been assigned at different periods throughout the day.
326 We expect less exposure misclassification in the evening and night-time hours because individuals
327 are more likely to be at their postcode of residence during these times. We also expect less
328 misclassification among older individuals throughout the day and night, as they are less likely to
329 travel away from home for work or school during the day. This may partially explain why effect
330 estimates are highest during evening and night-time hours, and among individuals over the age of 65
331 years. Lastly, exposure misclassification may be introduced because data on exact time of admission
332 and death were not available, and we were therefore unable to define the precise window of
333 exposure before an event occurs. We therefore used exposure data from one day prior to the date
334 of the event (rather than on day of event) to ensure the defined exposure window had truly
335 preceded the CVD event.

336 *Conclusion*

337 These findings provide potential evidence that aircraft noise in the late evening and night-time may
338 be associated with increased risk of cardiovascular hospitalisations and deaths in the population
339 living within the Heathrow Airport noise contour. This is consistent with a mechanism of action via
340 disturbed sleep and has implications for developing respite measures for the communities situated
341 near busy airports. Further research into these potential respite mechanisms and behavioural
342 interventions, including runway rotation and noise insulation initiatives, is needed to understand
343 how best to translate the findings from this study into action.

344

345 **Data Availability**

346 The aircraft noise exposure data are available to other academic researchers on request.

347 Health outcomes and individual confounder data were obtained from the Small Area Health
348 Statistics Unit (SAHSU), which does not have permission to supply data to third parties. The data can

349 be requested through the Office for National Statistics (<https://www.ons.gov.uk/>) and NHS Digital
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351

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445

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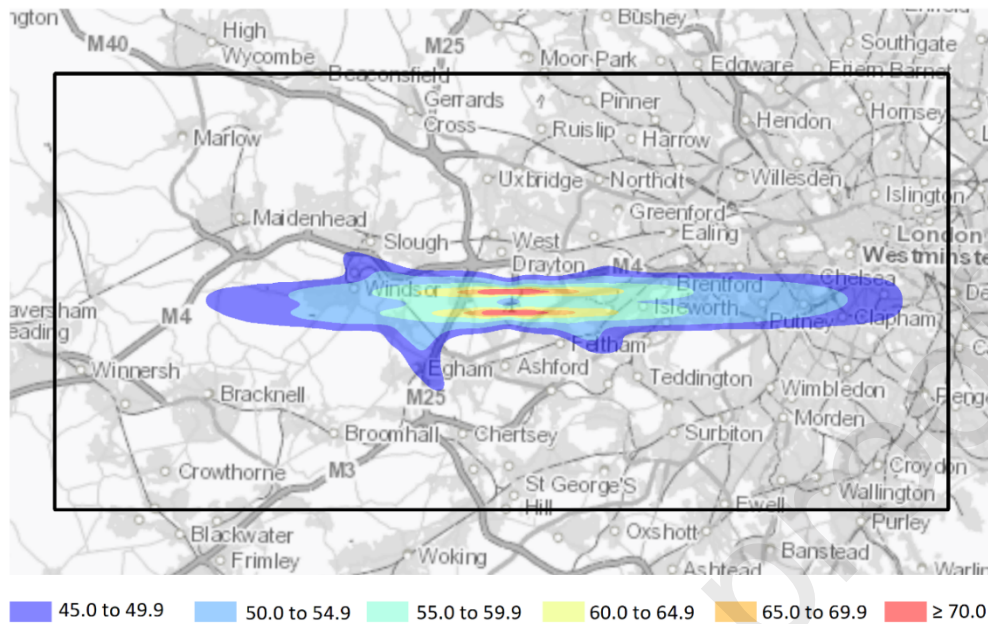
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468 Hospital Episode Statistics data are copyright © 2022, re-used with the permission of NHS Digital. All
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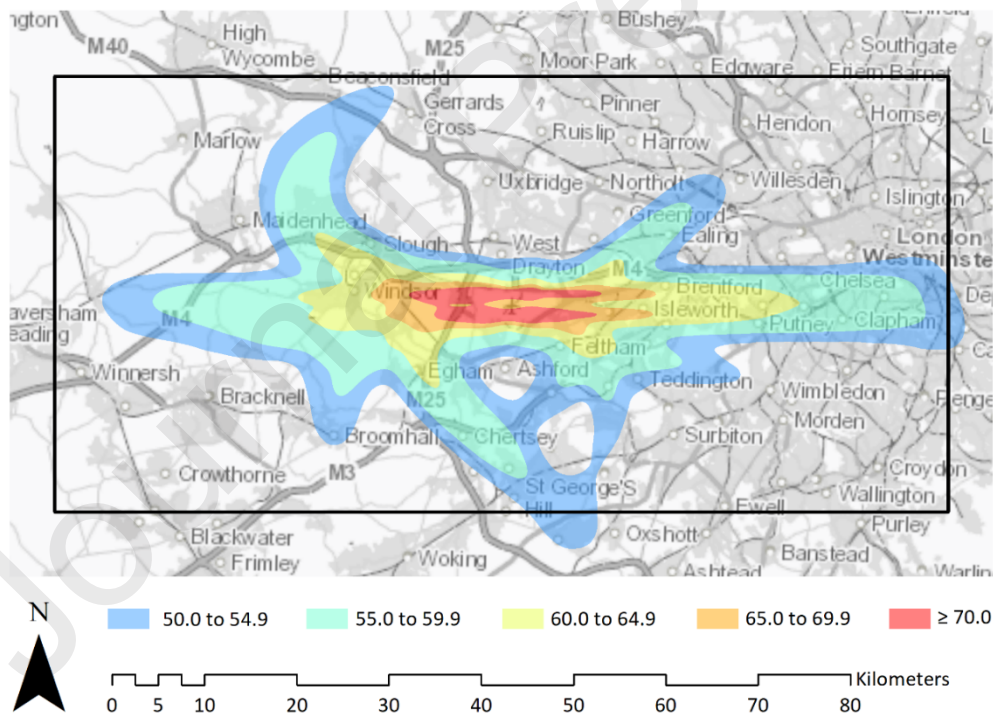
472 **Author Contributions**

473 ALH, JG and MB conceived and obtained funding for the study and developed the study protocol. JG,
474 CJ, XG and KA prepared the exposure data in collaboration with Anderson Acoustics and the
475 environmental confounder data. NI prepared and linked the health outcomes data and ran the
476 analyses with help from GA and GK. NI wrote the initial draft with input from CJ, XG and GA. All
477 authors contributed to interpretation of the results and provided comments on subsequent drafts.

LNIGHT 5-DECIBEL NOISE CONTOURS IN 2011 (23:00 - 07:00)



LDEN 5-DECIBEL NOISE CONTOURS IN 2011



479

480 **Figure 1:** The spatial extent of the AEDT modelling exercise (black bounding box) in relation to the
 481 Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) annual-average aircraft noise contours for 2011 for L_{night} (top) and L_{den}
 482 (bottom).

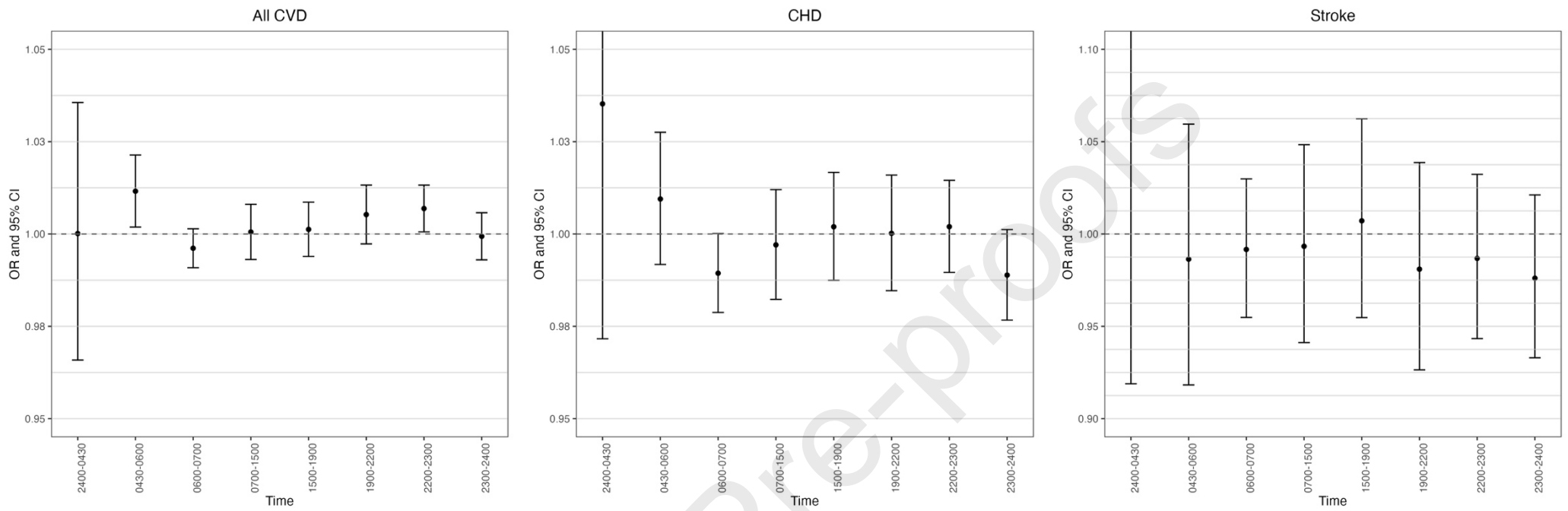


Figure 2: Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for hospitalizations due to all CVD, CHD and Stroke per 10dB increase L_{Aeq} at defined time points throughout the day, evening, and night. Estimates adjusted for NO_2 concentration, mean temperature and holiday effect.

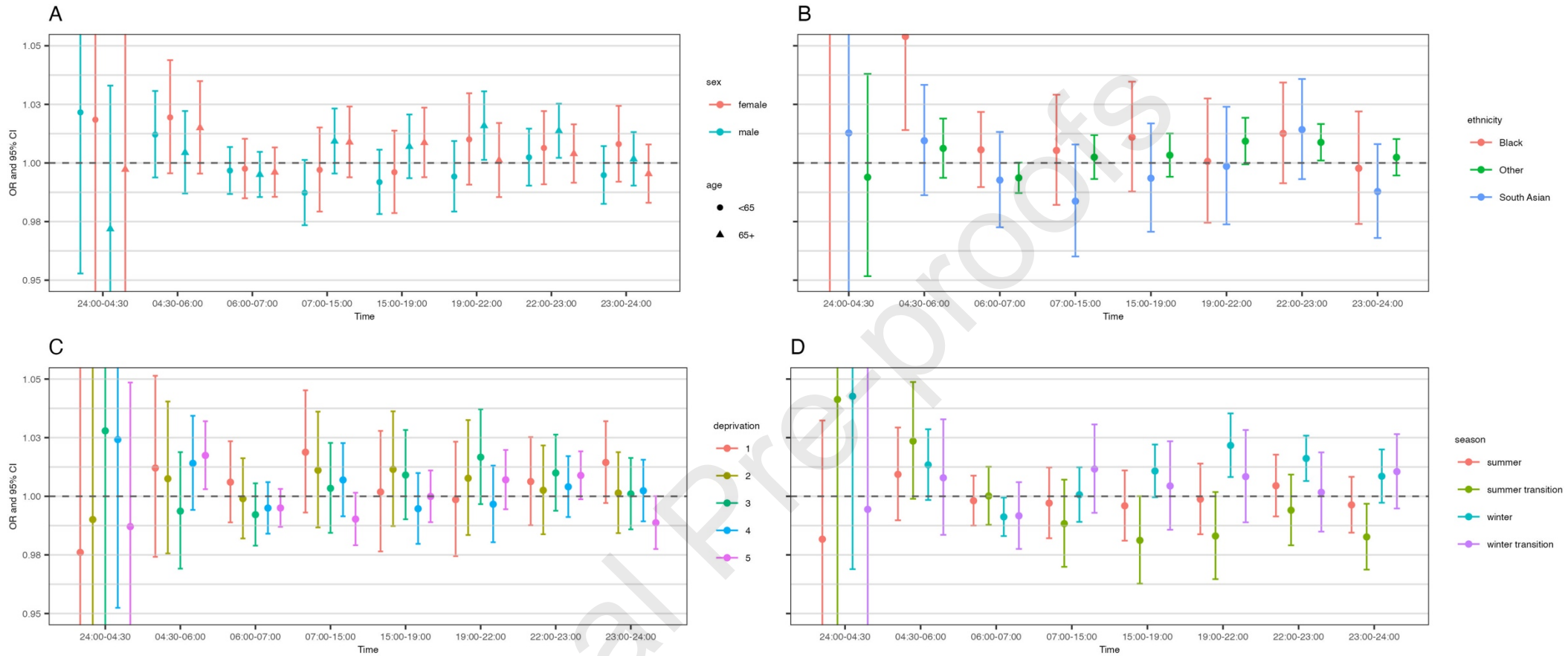


Figure 3: Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for hospitalizations due to all CVD per 10dB increase L_{Aeq} , stratified by (A) age-sex, (B) ethnicity, (C) deprivation and (D) season. Estimates adjusted for NO_2 concentration, mean temperature and holiday effect.

Note: summer = June-August; summer transition = May and September; winter = November-March; winter transition = April and October

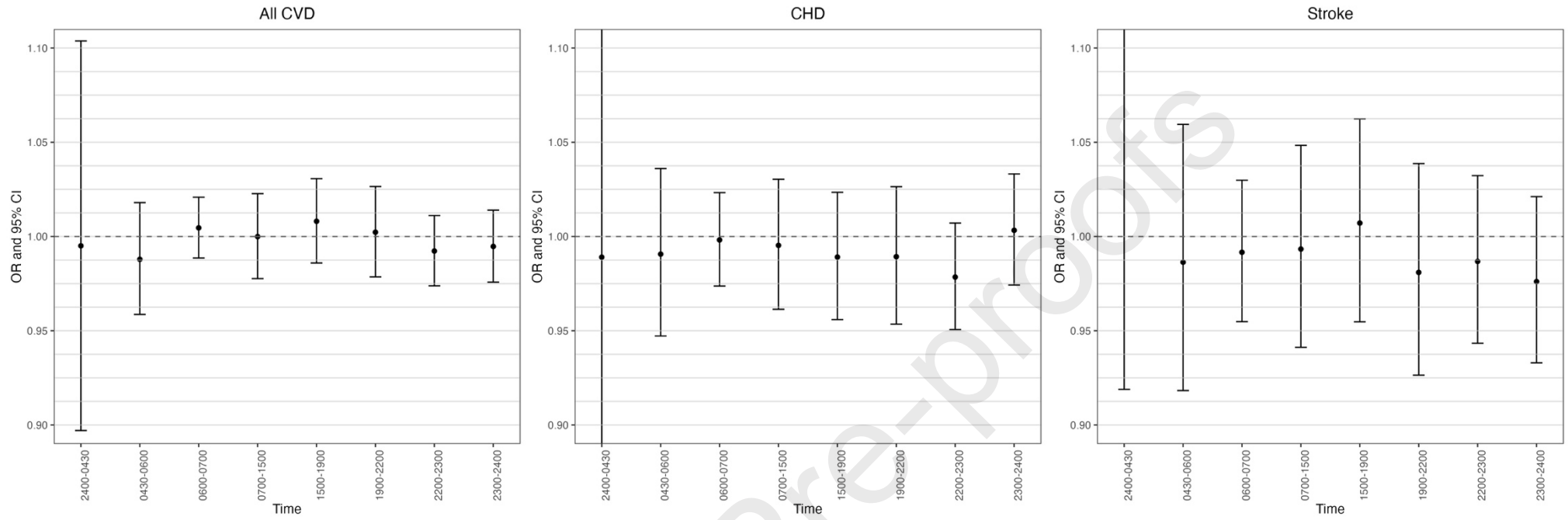


Figure 4: Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for deaths due to all CVD, CHD and Stroke per 10dB increase L_{Aeq} at defined time points throughout the day, evening, and night. Estimates adjusted for NO_2 concentration, mean temperature and holiday effect.

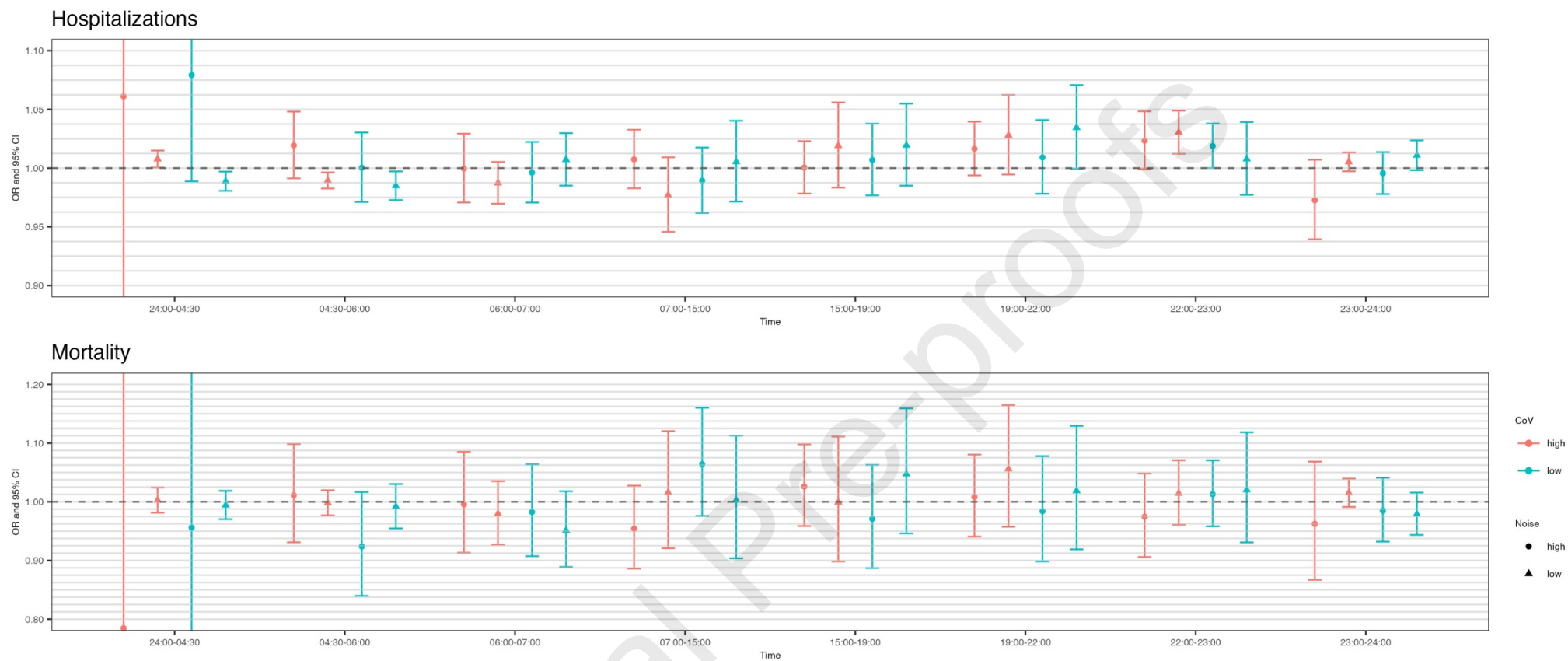


Figure 5: Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for hospitalizations and mortality due to all CVD per 10dB increase L_{Aeq} , stratified by coefficient of variation and mean noise level. Estimates adjusted for NO_2 concentration, mean temperature and holiday effect.

	HOSPITAL EPISODES (n=442442)						DEATHS (n=49443)					
	All CVD		CHD		Stroke		All CVD		CHD		Stroke	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Sex ^a												
<i>Male</i>	256674	58.0%	81278	69.9%	21367	52.7%	26011	52.6%	12984	61.9%	4014	45.7%
<i>Female</i>	185749	42.0%	34941	30.1%	19199	47.3%	23432	47.4%	7984	38.1%	4771	54.3%
Age ^a												
<65	190732	43.1%	49936	43.0%	11420	28.2%	7267	14.7%	3640	17.4%	834	9.5%
65+	250705	56.7%	66260	57.0%	29106	71.7%	42176	85.3%	17328	82.6%	7951	90.5%
Deprivation												
<i>1 (least)</i>	57060	12.9%	15061	13.0%	5080	12.5%	7239	14.6%	2843	13.6%	1349	15.4%
2	55076	12.4%	14307	12.3%	5104	12.6%	6561	13.3%	2630	12.5%	1275	14.5%
3	72775	16.4%	18735	16.1%	6666	16.4%	8582	17.4%	3541	16.9%	1529	17.4%
4	106033	24.0%	27356	23.5%	9454	23.3%	11606	23.5%	4984	23.8%	2012	22.9%

5 151498 34.2% 40763 35.1% 14263 35.2% 15455 31.3% 6970 33.2% 2620 29.8%

Season

Summer 110255 24.9% 29215 25.1% 10095 24.9% 11260 22.8% 4728 22.5% 2060 23.4%

Summer Transition 73835 16.7% 19730 17.0% 6731 16.6% 7702 15.6% 3231 15.4% 1333 15.2%

Winter 184625 41.7% 47807 41.1% 16838 41.5% 22365 45.2% 9589 45.7% 3933 44.8%

Winter Transition 73727 16.7% 19470 16.8% 6903 17.0% 8116 16.4% 3420 16.3% 1459 16.6%

Ethnicity ^b

South Asian 42994 9.7% 18049 15.5% 2711 6.7%

Black 35245 8.0% 5704 4.9% 4197 10.3%

Other ^c 297390 67.2% 73658 63.4% 27582 68.0%

Missing 66813 15.1% 18811 16.2% 6077 15.0%

Case

Control

Case

Control

Noise estimates (dB)

Mean

SD

Mean

SD

Mean

SD

Mean

SD

2400-0430

2.01

6.0

2.0

6.0

2.0

6.1

2.1

6.1

0430-0600	25.8	12.5	25.8	12.5	25.7	12.4	25.7	12.4
0600-0700	40.8	8.8	40.8	8.8	40.6	8.6	40.6	8.6
0700-1500	42.4	6.9	42.4	7.0	42.4	6.8	42.4	6.9
1500-1900	41.9	6.9	41.9	6.9	41.9	6.8	41.92	6.8
1900-2200	41.9	6.9	41.8	6.9	41.8	6.8	41.8	6.8
2200-2300	39.5	7.4	39.5	7.4	39.5	7.4	39.5	7.4
2300-2400	27.9	10.9	27.9	10.9	27.6	10.9	27.6	10.9

^a 19 hospital episodes missing sex, 1005 missing age

^b Ethnicity information not available for mortality data

^c Includes all other non-Black and non-South Asian ethnicities including white and mixed ethnicities

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for hospital admissions and deaths due to cardiovascular disease, and noise estimates for all CVD cases and controls

	All CVD	CHD	Stroke
Hosp. Episodes			
L_{Aeq24}	1.003 (0.994, 1.012)	0.996 (0.979, 1.014)	1.004 (0.975, 1.034)
L_{day}	1.001 (0.993, 1.009)	0.999 (0.983, 1.015)	1.000 (0.974, 1.027)
L_{eve}	1.007 (0.999, 1.015)	1.000 (0.984, 1.016)	1.008 (0.981, 1.035)
L_{night}	0.995 (0.988, 1.001)	0.996 (0.982, 1.010)	0.997 (0.975, 1.020)
L_{den}	1.000 (0.992, 1.009)	0.991 (0.974, 1.008)	0.999 (0.971, 1.027)
Deaths			
L_{Aeq24}	1.001 (0.974, 1.028)	0.982 (0.942, 1.023)	0.980 (0.919, 1.045)
L_{day}	0.999 (0.975, 1.024)	0.984 (0.948, 1.021)	0.988 (0.932, 1.047)
L_{eve}	0.998 (0.974, 1.023)	0.982 (0.946, 1.020)	0.983 (0.928, 1.041)
L_{night}	0.987 (0.967, 1.008)	0.983 (0.951, 1.015)	0.994 (0.946, 1.044)
L_{den}	0.994 (0.969, 1.020)	0.983 (0.944, 1.023)	0.967 (0.909, 1.028)

483

484 **Table 2:** Odds ratio and 95% confidence intervals for hospitalizations and deaths due to all CVD per
485 10dB increase L_{Aeq} . Estimates adjusted for NO_2 concentration, mean temperature and holiday effect.

486

487

488 **Author contributions**

489 **Nicole Itzkowitz:** Data preparation, Data analysis, Writing Original draft preparation.

490 **Xiangpu Gong:** Data analysis

491 **Glory Atilola:** Data analysis

492 **Garyfallos Konstantinoudis:** Data Analysis

493 **Kathryn Adams:** Data preparation

494 **Calvin Jephcote:** Data preparation, Writing- Reviewing and Editing.

495 **John Gulliver:** Conceptualization, Funding, Data preparation.

496 **Anna L Hansell:** Conceptualization, Funding, Methodology, Writing- Reviewing and Editing.

497 **Marta Blangiardo:** Conceptualization, Funding, Methodology, Supervision, Writing-

498 Reviewing and Editing.

499

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502