

**Community planning for a “healthy built environment” via a human-environment nexus? A multifactorial assessment of environmental characteristics and age-specific stroke mortality in Hong Kong**

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- Evaluated socio-environmental impacts on age-specific stroke mortality
- Female and older age contributed to higher stroke mortality
- daily PM<sub>10</sub> also contributed to higher stroke mortality
- regional-level air pollution were associated with non-hemorrhagic stroke deaths
- These associations varied by age

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1 **Community planning for a “healthy built environment” via a human-environment**  
2 **nexus? A multifactorial assessment of environmental characteristics and age-**  
3 **specific stroke mortality in Hong Kong**

4  
5 **Abstract**

6 With the prevalence of stroke rising due to both aging societies and more people  
7 getting strokes at a younger age, a comprehensive investigation into the relationship  
8 between urban characteristics and age-specific stroke mortality for the development of  
9 a healthy built environment is necessary. Specifically, assessment of various  
10 dimensions of urban characteristics (e.g. short-term environmental change, long-term  
11 environmental conditions) is needed for healthy built environment designs and  
12 protocols.

13 A multifactorial assessment was conducted to evaluate associations between  
14 environmental and sociodemographic characteristics with age-stroke mortality in Hong  
15 Kong. We found that short-term (and temporally varying) daily PM<sub>10</sub>, older age and  
16 being female were more strongly associated with all types of stroke deaths compared  
17 to all-cause deaths in general. Colder days, being employed and being married were  
18 more strongly associated with hemorrhagic stroke deaths in general. Long-term (and  
19 spatially varying) regional-level air pollution were more strongly associated with non-  
20 hemorrhagic stroke deaths in general. These associations varied by age. Employment  
21 (manual workers) and low education were risk factors for stroke mortality at younger  
22 ages (age < 65). Greenness and open space did not have a significant association with  
23 stroke mortality. Since a significant connection was expected, this leads to questions

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24 about the health-inducing efficacy of Hong Kong's compact open spaces (natural  
25 greenery being limited to steep slopes, and extensive impervious surfaces on public  
26 open spaces). In conclusion, urban plans and designs for stroke mortality prevention  
27 should implement age-specific health care to neighborhoods with particular population  
28 segments.

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30 **Keywords:** stroke; mortality; urban characteristics; age-specific; high-density; Asia

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31 **Introduction**

32 Stroke is a common disorder of older adults and its population incidence is  
33 associated with demographic characteristics (Arnold et al., 2008; Graham et al., 2010).  
34 It is also important to note that strokes are one of the leading causes of death in high-  
35 density cities (Kaup et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2007). Specifically, stroke is related to  
36 cerebrovascular accidents (CVA), a type of acquired brain injury resulting from low  
37 blood supply. Multiple strokes, particularly lacuna infarction, can also cause vascular  
38 dementia. Older adults can be vulnerable, especially those who are frail or have lower  
39 quality of life (Haley et al., 2011; Nicholson et al., 2013). For example, 6.4% of male  
40 deaths and 7.5% of female deaths in 2016 were from cerebrovascular diseases in Hong  
41 Kong (<https://www.healthyhk.gov.hk>). Stroke was recorded as the second leading cause  
42 of death in China (Wang et al., 2007). In South America, stroke has also been recorded  
43 as a leading cause of death in Brazil (Lotufo & Bensenor, 2009) and shown to be  
44 associated with urban living. For example, although the mean standardized stroke  
45 mortality has been dropping in São Paulo, one of Brazil's highest density cities, the  
46 standardized stroke mortality remained 46.7 per 100 000 inhabitants in 2010, with  
47 significant spatial disparity due to urban settlement and urban characteristics (Kaup et  
48 al., 2015).

49 To turn such knowledge into health promotion and urban planning interventions,  
50 more studies of environment-stroke relationship are needed, in order to provide  
51 community protocols that can improve the wellbeing of these older adults. Evidence  
52 also points to environmental factors having moderating and exacerbating influence.

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53 Previous studies have shown the relationships between urban environment (e.g.  
54 geophysical environment, built environment, and social environment) and stroke (Hong  
55 et al., 2002, Ho et al., 2003; Hu et al., 2008; Katz et al., 2016; Martinez et al., 2003;  
56 Rostand et al., 2016; Wellenius et al., 2012). The above studies have found that living  
57 environment may be associated with stroke in a number of ways. For example, green  
58 space, socioeconomic disparity, racial problems, and long-term air pollution are factors  
59 associated with stroke (Hu et al., 2008; Katz et al., 2016; Martinez et al., 2003; Rostand  
60 et al., 2016). Studies have also found an association between short-term risk of extreme  
61 weather or temporal variability of air quality and stroke (Hong et al., 2002, Ho et al.,  
62 2003; Wellenius et al., 2012). Regrettably, most of the previous studies isolated  
63 exposure to a single environmental variable to evaluate its relationship with one health  
64 outcome (Paul et al., 2020; Wilker et al., 2014). Understanding how different  
65 components of the built environment are associated with stroke is particularly important  
66 in a high-density Asian city such as Hong Kong, where older adults live in a compact  
67 environment that strongly shapes their daily lives.

68 Since there are more people having strokes at a younger age these days due to  
69 workstyle and daily behaviors (Jamrozik et al., 19994; Galimanis et al., 2009; von  
70 Sarnowski et al., 2013), it is also important to understand the impact of environmental  
71 characteristics over urban areas across an age-range. Additionally, environmental  
72 factors may also be important as it can influence cardiovascular issues of an individual  
73 (Miller et al., 2007; Phung et al., 2016; Chi et al., 2016) and further induce  
74 cerebrovascular issues (Wilker et al., 2014).

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75 Therefore, we conducted a register-based study to evaluate the association of  
76 multifactorial environmental characteristics on age-specific stroke mortality in Hong  
77 Kong. Particularly, we followed previous studies to divide urban environment into three  
78 dimensions: built environment, natural environment, and social environment (Sarkar  
79 and Webster, 2017). A register-based study is a common epidemiological design using  
80 nationwide or territory-wide epidemiological data registered with an authority (e.g.  
81 death records or birth records) for statistical analysis (Erlangsen et al., 2017; Rahman  
82 et al., 2018). This approach makes it possible to include the entire relevant population,  
83 which minimizes sampling bias. Using data from Hong Kong Census Department, our  
84 study sought to address the following overarching questions:

- 85 1) Which types of environmental elements might influence stroke mortality in a  
86 high-density city?
- 87 2) How do environmental element(s) influence stroke mortality among  
88 subpopulations by age groups?
- 89 3) If environmental influences vary by age, what may be the driving factors?

90

## 91 **Methods**

### 92 *Health measures*

93 Mortality data from 2007 through 2014 were obtained from the Hong Kong Census  
94 and Statistics Department. The following mortality data were captured: 1) date of death;  
95 2) age; 3) gender; 4) occupation; 5) marital status; 6) cause of death; and 7) location of  
96 residence. Specifically, cause of death was based on the 10<sup>th</sup> version of the International

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97 Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (ICD-10), and  
98 location of residence was based on “tertiary planning units” (TPU). TPU is a fine-scale  
99 planning unit and is the finest spatial information for vital statistics in Hong Kong, and  
100 there are 287 TPUs within 1,100 km<sup>2</sup> of land across Hong Kong.

101 In this study, we grouped decedents with stroke into two groups, hemorrhagic  
102 stroke and non-hemorrhagic stroke, as these two groups have strokes associated with  
103 different pathology. Hemorrhagic stroke included decedents with ICD-10 I60-I62  
104 recorded causes of death; and the non-hemorrhagic stroke group was defined by ICD-  
105 10 I63 and ICD-10 I64 (individuals dying from ischemic stroke or cerebral infarction  
106 or other non-hemorrhagic issues). Excluding decedents with a missing death date or  
107 TPU residence location, the analytic dataset included 8,697 hemorrhagic stroke deaths  
108 and 10,270 non-hemorrhagic stroke deaths.

109

#### 110 *Individual-level social measures*

111 Considering individual-level social factors related to stroke (Hu et al., 2008; Katz  
112 et al., 2016), a binary measure of gender was used (1=male, 0=female). A binary  
113 measure of unemployment represented pre-mortem socioeconomic status, based on a  
114 reclassification of occupation, with “economically inactive” coded as 1 and others as 0.  
115 Marital status was coded as 1 for “unmarried” and 0 for “married” and taken as an index  
116 of social isolation (Ho et al., 2020), although it could also indicate social stress in some  
117 circumstances (Ho et al., 2018). A continuous variable of age was used.

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119 *Community-level social measures*

120       Based on previous studies (Martinez et al., 2003; Rostand et al., 2016), we used the  
121 following community-level social measures associated with stroke (Figure 1): 1) % of  
122 population with low-education (*Low education %*), and 2) % of population whose  
123 native language not Cantonese (*Not Cantonese %*). *Low education %* was measured  
124 as the percentage of population whose highest level of education was primary school  
125 or below. This is commonly taken as a social indicator of low health preparedness (Guo  
126 et al., 2020). *Not Cantonese %* indicates a neighbourhood with mixed cultures. Mixed  
127 culture may be associated with community health problems in Hong Kong, because of  
128 social isolation and cultural conflicts (Guo et al., 2020; Mok & Ho, 2020). These  
129 measures were retrieved from the 2006 Hong Kong census data at the TPU level.

130

131 *Measures of long-term environmental impacts*

132       Based on previous studies (Hu et al., 2008), four spatially varying measures related  
133 to stroke were investigated (Figure 1): 1) percentage of open spaces (*Open space %*),  
134 2) greenness; 3) regional air pollution, and 4) traffic-related air pollution.

135       *Open space %* was obtained from land utilization map of Hong Kong Planning  
136 Department (Ho et al., 2019; Shi et al., 2018b), and re-sampled to the TPU-level. Open  
137 spaces in Hong Kong may be defined as public open-access areas, with or without  
138 greenery. These typically comprise planned spaces of impervious surfaces, which are  
139 mainly used for leisure, social and physical activities. In this study, the average for each  
140 TPU was used as the measure for each of these variables. An average increase of 10%

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141 across a sub-district were used as the unit of change.

142 We treated greenness as a binary measure calculated based on the average  
143 normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) of each TPU. NDVI is a spectral index  
144 ranging from  $-1$  to  $1$  (Tucker, 1979), with lower values indicating an area with less  
145 greenness, and high values meaning more greenness. Therefore, “greenness” in this  
146 study is linked to density of vegetation of a neighborhood even though the vegetation  
147 itself may not be accessible. In Hong Kong, natural vegetation is typically found on  
148 steep slopes of the hillsides that bound the built-up areas (70% of HK is natural park,  
149 mainly in the form of steep hills and river systems). Green-space is thus less likely to  
150 be accessible to local populations, especially older adults. We used a resampled spatial  
151 dataset at 15m resolution from an IKONOS multispectral image to estimate average  
152 NDVI (Ho et al., 2017). Based on the relationship between NDVI and local vegetation  
153 noted in previous studies (Yu et al., 2018), the average NDVI of 0.1 was used as the  
154 threshold, with average NDVI  $\geq 0.1$  grouped as “1” to represent TPU with higher  
155 greenness, and NDVI  $< 0.1$  grouped as “0” to demonstrate areas with lower greenness.  
156 Particularly, using NDVI of 0.1 as the threshold has been validated for local scenario  
157 (Nichol & Wong, 2007) and was commonly used in previous health research in Hong  
158 Kong (Wang et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2018).

159 Regional air pollution was measured from a map of fine particulate matter. Traffic-  
160 related air pollution measures came from a black carbon map. Air and traffic pollution  
161 maps were produced based on land use regression and air quality data of a campaign  
162 operated by the Hong Kong Environmental Protection Department (EPD) as recorded

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163 in previous studies (Barratt et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2017). Spatial resolution of these air  
164 quality maps is 10 meters and we resampled to create an average for each TPU., An  
165 average increase of 10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  in each air pollutant across a sub-district were used as the  
166 unit of change.

167

168 *Measures of short-term environmental impacts*

169 The following six temporally-varying measures have been shown in past studies to  
170 have short-term impacts on stroke mortality (Hong et al., 2002; Hong et al., 2003;  
171 Wellenius et al., 2012): 1) influence of hot weather (*Hot day*); 2) influence of cold  
172 weather (*Cold day*); 3) daily variation of respirable suspended particulates (*daily PM<sub>10</sub>*);  
173 4) daily variation of nitrogen oxides (*daily NO<sub>x</sub>*); 5) daily variation of tropospheric  
174 ozone (*daily O<sub>3</sub>*); and 6) daily variation of humidity (*daily humidity*).

175 In our study, we define *Hot day* as a binary measure based on the daily average  
176 temperature at the headquarters of HK Observatory, in which “1” is a day with  
177 temperature  $\geq 29.72^\circ\text{C}$  (95<sup>th</sup> percentile based on long-term weather records from  
178 January 1st 1971 through Aug. 31, 2015) and “0” is the other days. *Cold day* codes days  
179 with temperature  $\leq 14.25^\circ\text{C}$  (5<sup>th</sup> percentile) as “1” and the other days as “0”. By using  
180 long-term weather records, both *Hot day* and *Cold day* allow us to speculate on the  
181 impact of climate change. *Daily humidity* is the daily average humidity.

182 *Daily PM<sub>10</sub>*, *daily NO<sub>x</sub>*, and *daily O<sub>3</sub>* are the daily average of coarse particulate  
183 matters, nitrogen oxides and ozone. We followed previous studies (Ho et al., 2018; Ho  
184 & Wong 2019) to retrieve temporally varying air quality data from seven EPD stations

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185 (Central Western, Sham Shui Po, Sha Tin, Tai Po, Tsuen Wan, Kwai Chung, and Tap  
186 Mun). A  $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in each air pollutant for a day was used as the unit of change.

187

188 *Register-based study*

189 In order to evaluate which type(s) of urban element are associated with stroke  
190 mortality, we first selected all stroke deaths as “cases” and all-cause deaths as “controls”  
191 for comparison. We used all-cause deaths as a control to standardize, so that our models  
192 indicate whether associations between stroke and environmental exposure vary from a  
193 more general association (based on all-cause deaths). We then applied binomial logistic  
194 regressions to separately estimate the influences of urban characteristics on  
195 hemorrhagic and non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality, based on odds ratios (OR) and 95%  
196 confidence intervals (CI). Particularly, all significant results had  $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ . A  
197 preliminary analysis of variance inflation factor (VIF) was applied to test for  
198 multicollinearity. Based on the preliminary analyses, the above models had  $VIF < 3$  for  
199 all variables, indicating the model itself did not involve significant issues of  
200 multicollinearity.

201 To determine whether urban elements influence stroke mortality in decedents in  
202 different age groups, subgroup analysis was applied as follows: 1) all ages; 2) “old-old”  
203 aged  $\geq 89$ , 3); “young-old” aged between 65 and 79’ and 4) “not-old” aged  $< 65$ . For  
204 each subgroup, we repeated the binomial logistic regressions. R software was used to  
205 perform all statistical analyses.

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207 **Results**

208 *Data summary*

209       Among the 8,697 hemorrhagic stroke deaths, 3565 were old-old, 2932 were young-  
210 old, and 2,200 were not-old (Table 1); and among the 10,270 non-hemorrhagic stroke  
211 deaths, 6111 were old-old, 3721 were young-old, and 888 were not-old (Table 2). Our  
212 analytical dataset showed a higher ratio of hemorrhagic stroke deaths at younger ages  
213 compared to non-hemorrhagic stroke deaths.

214       Tables 1 and 2 show that both hemorrhagic and non-hemorrhagic stroke decedents  
215 lived in areas with long-term exposure to fine particulate matter three times more than  
216 the threshold defined by the World Health Organization (WHO). They also experienced  
217 PM<sub>10</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> reaching the threshold of the daily mean on an almost daily basis. In  
218 addition, stroke decedents had not tended to live in areas with more or less greenery or  
219 open spaces. Although the majority of stroke decedents were old and unemployed or  
220 retired at the time of death, we note that approximately 34% of “not-old” hemorrhagic  
221 stroke decedents and 45 % of “not-old” non-hemorrhagic stroke decedents were  
222 employed. This evidences the widening socio-demographic profile of stroke mortality  
223 in this high-density Asian city.

224

225 *Urban characteristics and age-specific hemorrhagic stroke mortality*

226       Among all decedents, days with low temperature were positively associated with  
227 hemorrhagic stroke mortality (OR: 1.101 [1.008, 1.202]), while days with high  
228 temperature were negatively associated with hemorrhagic stroke mortality, when

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229 compared with all-cause mortality, controlling for other social and environmental  
230 factors (Table 4). In addition, being male, older, unemployed, and unmarried were  
231 factors negatively associated with higher hemorrhagic stroke mortality. Furthermore, a  
232 10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in *daily PM<sub>10</sub>* was positively associated with higher hemorrhagic  
233 stroke mortality (OR: 1.015 [1.005, 1.027]).

234 From our age-specific models, short-term environmental measures only had  
235 significant associations with hemorrhagic stroke mortality among the young-old group.  
236 Specifically, days with high temperature were negatively associated with hemorrhagic  
237 stroke mortality among the young-old decedents; and a 10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in *daily PM<sub>10</sub>*  
238 was positively associated with higher hemorrhagic stroke mortality among young-old  
239 decedents (OR: 1.022 [1.005, 1.040]).

240 Individual-level social measures showed some significant associations with  
241 hemorrhagic stroke decedents in age-specific groups. Among old-old decedents, being  
242 male and being older were negatively associated with higher hemorrhagic stroke  
243 mortality. Among the mid-old decedents, being male was the only individual-level  
244 social measure negatively associated with higher hemorrhagic stroke mortality. Among  
245 the not-old decedents, older age was positively associated with higher hemorrhagic  
246 stroke mortality, with OR of 1.005 [1.001, 1.009]. However, being unemployed was  
247 negatively associated with hemorrhagic stroke mortality (OR: 0.575 [0.527, 0.628]).

248 None of the measures of long-term environmental impacts or of community-level social  
249 measures were significantly associated with hemorrhagic stroke mortality, including  
250 open space and greenness.

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251

252 *Urban characteristics and age-specific non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality*

253 For all decedents, long-term exposure to regional air pollution had a stronger  
254 positive association with non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality (OR: 1.077 [1.003, 1.157])  
255 when compared with all-cause mortality, controlling for other social and environmental  
256 factors (Table 5). Being male was negatively associated with higher non-hemorrhagic  
257 stroke mortality, while being older was positively associated with higher stroke  
258 mortality. In addition, a 10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in *daily*  $PM_{10}$  was positively associated with  
259 higher non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality (OR: 1.014 [1.004, 1.025]).

260 From our age-specific models, measures of long-term environmental measures  
261 only had significant associations with non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality among the  
262 young-old group. Specifically, long-term exposure to regional air pollution was more  
263 strongly related to non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality (OR: 1.139 [1.004, 1.292])  
264 compared with all-cause mortality among young-old decedents, controlling for other  
265 social and environmental factors.

266 Individual-level social measures showed a number of significant associations  
267 with non-hemorrhagic stroke decedents in age-specific groups. Among both old-old  
268 decedents and young-old decedents, being male was a factor negatively associated with  
269 non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality. Non-hemorrhagic stroke deaths tended to occur at a  
270 younger age among the old-old group compared with all-cause deaths (OR: 0.986  
271 [0.981, 0.991]). In comparison, non-hemorrhagic stroke deaths tended to occur at an  
272 older age among the young-old group compared with all-cause deaths (OR: 1.027  
273 [1.018, 1.036]). More importantly, older age and a neighborhood with higher

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274 percentage of lower education were positively associated with higher non-hemorrhagic  
275 stroke mortality, with OR of 1.048 [1.039, 1.058] and 1.018 [1.007, 1.029] respectively.  
276 However, being unemployed was negatively linked to non-hemorrhagic stroke  
277 mortality compared to being employed (OR: 0.820 [0.710, 0.948]).

278

## 279 **Discussion**

### 280 *Summary of the results*

281 This study suggests various stroke fatality patterns associated with urban  
282 characteristics in the high density city of Hong Kong. In general, short-term (and  
283 temporally varying) daily PM<sub>10</sub>, older age and being female were more strongly  
284 associated with all types of stroke deaths compared to all-cause deaths. Colder days,  
285 being employed and being married were more strongly associated with hemorrhagic  
286 stroke deaths. Long-term (and spatially varying) regional air pollution was more  
287 strongly associated with non-hemorrhagic stroke deaths than all-cause deaths. However,  
288 the only factor that was consistent across all age-subgroups of decedents was gender,  
289 with females being more vulnerable to stroke mortality. This result is inconsistent with  
290 previous studies showing that incidence of stroke was higher in men than in women  
291 (Poorthuis et al., 2017). This may be due to a high prevalence of frailty and osteoporosis  
292 among females in Hong Kong, which affected their social behavior and commuting  
293 modes including usage of spaces (Ho et al., 1999; Yu et al., 2018).

294

### 295 *Interpretation and implications from the environmental impacts*



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296 For the non-hemorrhagic stroke decedents, the air pollution results imply that dust  
297 particles inhaled into lungs may produce higher risk of non-hemorrhagic stroke  
298 mortality, consistent with previous studies regarding impacts of low air quality on  
299 community health (Ho et al., 2018b; Wang et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020). Our results  
300 suggest that the short-term effect of dust particles on non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality  
301 is not age-specific, so protection of the entire population is needed. In contrast, the  
302 association between regional air pollution and non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality for all  
303 ages and for the young-old group were found. It showed that the young-old group may  
304 be particularly vulnerable for non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality. The negative effect of  
305 an increase in daily PM<sub>10</sub> levels and days with lower temperature for all ages in general  
306 and for the young-old population among the hemorrhagic stroke decedents in particular,  
307 suggests that the need for protection from pollution due to its short-term impact rather  
308 than long-term impact on hemorrhagic stroke mortality.

309 The above results are important, as the young-old could be older people with frailty  
310 and chronic disease, but with less health care and support than the old-old. Therefore,  
311 these young-old people may not be well protected from the short- and long-term  
312 impacts that influence various types of stroke mortality.

313 The insignificant results of greenness and open space are of interest. Greenness and  
314 open space have been found to be associated with various chronic diseases, both  
315 globally and in high density cities, including Hong Kong (Paul et al., 2020; Yu et al.,  
316 2018). These factors have also been reported as significant in stroke mortality models  
317 elsewhere (Wilker et al., 2014).

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318 The lack of correlation in our study may indicate mixed health effects from high-  
319 density living (Guo et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2021; Lin et al, 2021), suggesting that this  
320 type of urban design presents residents with a high density of walkable destinations  
321 which induces more walking and outdoor socializing (Guo et al., 2021). Physical  
322 activity conducted in local greenspace may reduce health problems (Hu et al., 2008)  
323 and for seniors who do not participate in sport, walking to green space may yield health  
324 benefits (Sarkar et al., 2013). The urban greenery in Hong Kong, however, is often  
325 inaccessible, being the land-cover on the city's many steep slopes that abut and  
326 punctuate built up areas. In contrast, public open spaces located, by design, within the  
327 urban fabric of Hong Kong, is predominately impervious surfaces without greenery.  
328 Other studies have indicated beneficial effects of greenness and open space as  
329 independent urban design attributes (Mennis, Mason and Ambrus, 2018; Orioli et al.,  
330 2019; Rojas-Rueda et al., 2019). Our study is the first to find that neither urban greenery  
331 nor designed urban open spaces do not significantly influence stroke mortality among  
332 the local population. As we say, this could be the result of countervailing environmental  
333 influences in Hong Kong's mixed land-use neighborhoods or the irrelevance of  
334 greenery to walking when it is on an inaccessible slope (Frank et al., 2004; Brown et  
335 al., 2009; Alves et al., 2020; Manzi et al., 2020). Senior populations may even walk  
336 away from green areas to better enjoy a mountain landscape view of the greenery. The  
337 null effect for non-greened open spaces may be due to a lack of interest in such spaces  
338 among seniors. However, this does not tally with studies on Hong Kong's open spaces,  
339 which suggest that they are well used, particularly by the seniors (Lo and Jim, 2010;

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340 Xue, Gou and Lau, 2017; Garrett et al., 2019). We are more inclined to think that the  
341 lack of association may be due to a lack of heterogeneity of such spaces. Urban areas  
342 are very well planned and access to open spaces ‘sitting out spaces’ in Hong Kong, is  
343 much the same across the territory.

344

345 *Interpretation and implications from the socio-demographic impacts*

346 The degree of access to health care might also help explain another intriguing other  
347 age-relate findings. Our results showed that younger decedents among the old-old  
348 suffered from higher non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality, in contrast to the overall results  
349 that older people have higher non-hemorrhagic stroke mortality in general. The results  
350 for hemorrhagic mortality were even more extreme, in which we found 1) overall  
351 results as well as age-specific results for the old-old group showing that younger people  
352 have higher hemorrhagic stroke mortality in general; 2) no significant result of an age  
353 effect was found among the young-old decedents; and 3) older decedents among the  
354 not-old suffered from higher hemorrhagic stroke mortality. This indicated that non-  
355 hemorrhagic stroke mortality might be more commonly found among the mid-old (age  
356 approximately to 80), while hemorrhagic stroke mortality could be more common for  
357 the young-old. This partially indicates that the younger old need more health care to  
358 protect them from the fatal effects of stroke. More importantly, the association between  
359 higher hemorrhagic stroke mortality and being married for all ages could also be  
360 because of the needs of health care, as previous studies have already noted the health  
361 burdens caused by supporting one’s closest family members who may be frail and have

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362 chronic diseases (Martire et al., 2004).

363       The negative effects of a community's percentage of low education as well as  
364 employment among not-old decedents could imply a critically missing part in health  
365 care. Specifically, these results may indicate that less-well-educated workers (e.g.  
366 construction workers and other manual laborers) have a high risk of stroke mortality.  
367 More health education and support should be delivered to these vulnerable  
368 subpopulations.

369

370 *Recommendations for urban and community planning*

371       First, our findings provide no evidence for suggesting that greenness and  
372 ungreened open spaces influence the risk of stroke death. This is interesting in terms of  
373 healthy city design since it is well established that access to green and to other open  
374 spaces has a beneficial effect on adiposity (Sarkar et al., 2013; Sarkar, 2017; Persson et  
375 al., 2018). Why might there be an effect of open space and green on obesity but not  
376 stroke death? Additionally, our results were somewhat aligned with some local studies,  
377 which have found that natural greenness in Hong Kong might not be able to benefit  
378 community health across the cities (Guo et al., 2021; Lin et al., 2021). Particularly, Lin  
379 et al. (2021) found that natural greenery might actually worsen bone mineral density  
380 and increase fall risks among older adults in Hong Kong. Guo et al. (2021) found that  
381 open spaces could improve mental health and subjective wellbeing but natural greenery  
382 might reduce subjective wellbeing through sense of community. We note that our  
383 outcome measure is stroke mortality not stroke incidence. It may be that the

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384 environmentally-shaped habits of urban walking do in fact impact on incidence of  
385 obesity, stroke and other sedentary diseases, but not on mortality (at least in stroke).  
386 Second, we show that urban ventilation is potentially a protector against stroke  
387 mortality, especially in the young-old group. Urban design that improves air quality, by  
388 ventilation or filtering, provides multiple health benefits (Goggins et al., 2013). Vertical  
389 greening on high-rise buildings can help filter more urban air (Perini et al., 2011; Pugh  
390 et al., 2012), as can the design of ventilation corridors in high density high rise cities  
391 (Ng, 2009; Yuan and Ng, 2012; Yuan, Ng and Norford, 2014).

392 Furthermore, those with less education (e.g. manual laborers) who are younger (<  
393 65) also tend to have low awareness and preparedness due to socioeconomic  
394 deprivation and a lack of social engagement. Therefore, urban design with  
395 multifunctional spaces may better suit these subpopulations, who can participate in  
396 social or physical activities in social facilities, while at the same time health promotion  
397 through community programs can be delivered to the individuals to enhance their  
398 awareness for stroke prevention.

399

#### 400 *Limitation and future directions*

401 There are several limitations in this study. First of all, the register-based dataset did  
402 not have information on spatial mobility. This may reduce the explanatory power of a  
403 spatiotemporal effect of urban characteristics on stroke mortality. However, since older  
404 people usually have less mobility, we think we are justified in modelling local  
405 environmental exposures of age-specific stroke mortality. A second limitation is a lack

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406 of information on co-morbidities from the register-based study. While we were able to  
407 draw out a statistical association to imply potential causality, we were unable to  
408 investigate path analysis that requires information related to co-morbidities. For future  
409 study, as the data might be hierarchical due to multiple levels of variables existed,  
410 further analyses by using mixed effect models with the TPU as the mixed effect item  
411 might be more appropriate. Thirdly, we used binary measure to indicate social support  
412 (married/unmarried); overlooking the fact that many unmarried live with relatives in  
413 Hong Kong because of the high cost of homes.

414 Fourthly, this was an ecological study conducted at the TPU level, and thus suffers  
415 from all the normal caveats. One in particular that we should note is the unmeasured  
416 possible interaction of greenness as an inducement to walking and greenness as an air  
417 filter. Our air quality measures were spatially interpolated from point sources from land  
418 use regression modelling. That means that our vegetation measure simultaneously  
419 indicates the attractiveness of a TPU environment for walking and its performance in  
420 filtering polluted air. Because of limitation related to spatial unit, we are unlikely to  
421 have captured important local variations in filtering effects of vegetation, which would  
422 have in reality moderated the modelled pollution measures.

423 Finally, as an extension of investigating the effects of environmental factors in the  
424 present study, future studies can further determine the effects of the spikes of  
425 environmental elements to gain an in-depth understanding of environmental effects  
426 (Ebenstein et al., 2017; Pope & Dockery, 2006; Yin et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2020),  
427 which thus provides the support for the healthy built environment designs and protocols.

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428

429 **Conclusions**

430 In this study, we evaluate which type(s) of urban element may influence stroke  
431 mortality in a high-density city. Based on a register-based study, we found various  
432 factors linked to stroke mortality among different age groups in Hong Kong.

433 1) Linking to the research question regarding which type(s) of urban element may  
434 influence stroke mortality in a high-density city, we found that dust pollution  
435 and females should receive greater attention in general.

436 2) In addition, less well-educated workers younger than 65 and living in more  
437 polluted areas should be protected against their higher odds of stroke mortality  
438 at younger ages.

439 3) We found no evidence for a moderating effect of greenness or non-green public  
440 open spaces on stroke mortality in HK, which is seldom reported in previous  
441 studies. The insignificant association of stroke with these two green-associated  
442 factors may be due to the high homogeneity in access to open space in Hong  
443 Kong. However, we note that the insignificant effects of greenness observed in  
444 the present study do not rule out an influence of greenness on stroke incidence,  
445 as would be expected from other studies of urban design and chronic disease.

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	Hemorrhagic stroke decedents							
	All ages [n = 8697 (100%)]		Old-old [n = 3565 (41.0%)]		Young-old [n=2932 (33.7%)]		Not-old [n=2200 (25.3%)]	
	<b>Avg</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Avg</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Avg</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Avg</b>	<b>SD</b>
Regional air pollution ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>32.6</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>32.5</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>32.7</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>32.6</b>	<b>3.7</b>
Traffic-related air pollution ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>9.3</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>9.3</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>9.4</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>9.4</b>	<b>3.4</b>
High temp days (%)	<b>6.8</b>	<b>25.2</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>24.6</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>26.2</b>	<b>6.9</b>	<b>25.3</b>
Low temp day (%)	<b>6.4</b>	<b>24.5</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>24.8</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>24.5</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>22.4</b>
Daily PM <sub>10</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>48.3</b>	<b>24.1</b>	<b>48.2</b>	<b>23.4</b>	<b>48.4</b>	<b>25.6</b>	<b>48.4</b>	<b>23.4</b>
Daily NO <sub>x</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>93.6</b>	<b>33.9</b>	<b>93.6</b>	<b>33.5</b>	<b>93.7</b>	<b>34.4</b>	<b>93.8</b>	<b>34.2</b>
Daily O <sub>3</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>41.4</b>	<b>20.7</b>	<b>41.6</b>	<b>20.8</b>	<b>41.3</b>	<b>20.7</b>	<b>41.0</b>	<b>20.6</b>
RH	<b>77.9</b>	<b>10.9</b>	<b>77.9</b>	<b>10.9</b>	<b>77.9</b>	<b>10.8</b>	<b>77.5</b>	<b>11.1</b>
% open space (%)	<b>33.7</b>	<b>22.0</b>	<b>33.4</b>	<b>22.1</b>	<b>33.6</b>	<b>22.0</b>	<b>35.4</b>	<b>21.6</b>
High greenness (%)	<b>27.9</b>	<b>44.8</b>	<b>27.8</b>	<b>44.8</b>	<b>27.7</b>	<b>44.8</b>	<b>28.7</b>	<b>45.3</b>
low education (%)	<b>26.9</b>	<b>7.5</b>	<b>26.6</b>	<b>7.7</b>	<b>27.4</b>	<b>7.3</b>	<b>27.3</b>	<b>7.2</b>
Non-Cantonese native tongue (%)	<b>11.7</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>11.9</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>11.3</b>	<b>5.2</b>
Unemployed (%)	<b>91.5</b>	<b>27.9</b>	<b>94.4</b>	<b>22.9</b>	<b>92.9</b>	<b>25.7</b>	<b>66.0</b>	<b>47.4</b>
Unmarried (%)	<b>61.1</b>	<b>48.8</b>	<b>70.7</b>	<b>45.5</b>	<b>47.4</b>	<b>49.9</b>	<b>45.5</b>	<b>49.8</b>
Age	<b>80.3</b>	<b>10.8</b>	<b>87.2</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>74.0</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>56.1</b>	<b>7.6</b>
Male (%)	<b>47.9</b>	<b>50.0</b>	<b>38.2</b>	<b>48.6</b>	<b>60.8</b>	<b>48.8</b>	<b>67.0</b>	<b>47.0</b>

662 Table 2 – Data summary of non-hemorrhagic stroke decedents

	Non-hemorrhagic stroke decedents							
	All ages [n=10270 (100%)]		Old-old [n=6111 (59.5%)]		Young-old [n=3271 (31.9%)]		Not-old [n=888 (8.6%)]	
	Avg	SD	Avg	SD	Avg	SD	Avg	SD
Regional air pollution ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	32.5	3.6	32.4	3.5	32.5	3.6	32.5	3.6
Traffic-related air pollution ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	9.2	3.3	9.1	3.3	9.4	3.3	9.3	3.4
High temp days (%)	6.4	24.4	6.6	24.8	5.8	23.3	6.9	25.3
Low temp day (%)	7.1	25.7	7.5	26.3	7.0	25.6	6.7	25.1
Daily PM <sub>10</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	49.0	25.0	48.9	24.9	49.9	26.7	48.0	22.9
Daily NO <sub>x</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	93.5	34.0	94.1	35.0	94.2	34.1	91.6	32.1
Daily O <sub>3</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	42.0	21.0	41.8	20.9	42.1	20.8	42.3	21.2
RH	77.4	11.2	77.4	11.4	77.2	11.1	77.7	11.1
% open space (%)	34.1	21.9	33.5	21.8	34.2	21.9	34.8	22.2
High greenness (%)	27.7	44.8	27.4	44.6	28.0	44.9	27.9	44.9
low education (%)	26.9	7.5	26.8	7.8	27.2	7.3	26.5	7.0
Non-Cantonese native tongue (%)	11.6	5.8	11.9	6.1	11.4	5.4	11.4	5.7
Unemployed (%)	83.8	36.9	94.8	22.2	92.0	27.2	55.0	49.8
Unmarried (%)	54.1	49.8	66.4	47.2	46.2	49.9	44.6	49.7
Age	73.4	14.7	86.2	4.8	73.5	4.2	52.5	9.5
Male (%)	55.1	49.7	43.6	49.6	61.8	48.6	65.0	47.7

	All-cause deaths							
	All ages [n=284443 (100%)]		Old-old [n=141613 (49.8%)]		Young-old [n=86987 (30.6%)]		Not-old [n=55843 (19.6%)]	
	<b>Avg</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Avg</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Avg</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Avg</b>	<b>SD</b>
Regional air pollution ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>32.4</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>32.4</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>32.5</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>32.4</b>	<b>3.7</b>
Traffic-related air pollution ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>9.2</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>9.3</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>9.3</b>	<b>3.4</b>
High temp days (%)	<b>7.1</b>	<b>25.7</b>	<b>7.0</b>	<b>25.6</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>25.6</b>	<b>7.3</b>	<b>26.0</b>
Low temp day (%)	<b>6.3</b>	<b>24.3</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>24.9</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>24.0</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>23.2</b>
Daily PM <sub>10</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>47.8</b>	<b>24.7</b>	<b>47.8</b>	<b>24.6</b>	<b>48.0</b>	<b>25.0</b>	<b>47.4</b>	<b>24.4</b>
Daily NO <sub>x</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>93.0</b>	<b>33.6</b>	<b>93.1</b>	<b>33.8</b>	<b>93.0</b>	<b>33.4</b>	<b>92.6</b>	<b>33.2</b>
Daily O <sub>3</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>41.7</b>	<b>21.0</b>	<b>41.8</b>	<b>21.0</b>	<b>41.6</b>	<b>21.1</b>	<b>41.5</b>	<b>21.1</b>
RH	<b>77.9</b>	<b>10.9</b>	<b>77.9</b>	<b>10.9</b>	<b>77.8</b>	<b>10.9</b>	<b>77.9</b>	<b>10.8</b>
% open space (%)	<b>34.0</b>	<b>21.8</b>	<b>33.3</b>	<b>21.9</b>	<b>34.2</b>	<b>21.6</b>	<b>35.6</b>	<b>21.9</b>
High greenness (%)	<b>28.0</b>	<b>44.9</b>	<b>27.8</b>	<b>44.8</b>	<b>28.0</b>	<b>44.9</b>	<b>28.9</b>	<b>45.3</b>
low education (%)	<b>26.8</b>	<b>7.5</b>	<b>26.6</b>	<b>7.8</b>	<b>27.3</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>26.6</b>	<b>7.2</b>
Non-Cantonese native tongue (%)	<b>11.7</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>12.0</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>11.5</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>11.3</b>	<b>5.4</b>
Unemployed (%)	<b>88.8</b>	<b>31.6</b>	<b>94.7</b>	<b>22.4</b>	<b>92.6</b>	<b>26.2</b>	<b>67.7</b>	<b>46.7</b>
Unmarried (%)	<b>56.7</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>68.1</b>	<b>46.6</b>	<b>44.8</b>	<b>49.7</b>	<b>46.1</b>	<b>49.8</b>
Age	<b>76.2</b>	<b>15.0</b>	<b>87.4</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>73.5</b>	<b>4.1</b>	<b>52.0</b>	<b>11.9</b>
Male (%)	<b>55.2</b>	<b>49.7</b>	<b>45.6</b>	<b>49.8</b>	<b>65.9</b>	<b>47.4</b>	<b>62.7</b>	<b>48.4</b>

666 Table 4 – Odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) for evaluating the associations between urban characteristics and age-specific  
 667 hemorrhagic stroke mortality. Based on each regression, the OR was used to evaluate the difference between stroke and all-cause mortality.

	Odds ratio											
	All decedents			Old-old			Young-old			Not-old		
	OR	LUI	UCI	OR	LUI	UCI	OR	LUI	UCI	OR	LUI	UCI
Regional air pollution (in 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	1.008	0.932	1.090	0.995	0.880	1.124	1.034	0.904	1.183	1.011	0.863	1.183
Traffic-related air pollution (in 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	0.972	0.890	1.062	0.919	0.800	1.057	1.037	0.890	1.209	0.967	0.812	1.151
Day with high temperature	<b>0.903</b>	<b>0.825</b>	<b>0.988</b>	0.933	0.812	1.072	<b>0.825</b>	<b>0.702</b>	<b>0.970</b>	0.949	0.797	1.130
Day with low temperature	<b>1.101</b>	<b>1.008</b>	<b>1.202</b>	1.085	0.948	1.241	1.082	0.929	1.261	1.192	0.994	1.430
Daily PM <sub>10</sub> (in 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	<b>1.016</b>	<b>1.005</b>	<b>1.027</b>	1.012	0.994	1.030	<b>1.022</b>	<b>1.005</b>	<b>1.040</b>	1.009	0.984	1.035
Daily NO <sub>x</sub> (in 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	1.000	0.993	1.008	1.004	0.992	1.015	1.003	0.990	1.016	0.991	0.975	1.007
Daily O <sub>3</sub> (in 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	0.993	0.979	1.007	0.989	0.967	1.011	0.990	0.966	1.014	1.007	0.978	1.037
Relative humidity	0.998	0.995	1.000	0.997	0.993	1.001	0.997	0.993	1.001	1.000	0.995	1.005
Percent of open space	1.003	0.988	1.019	1.016	0.992	1.040	1.004	0.978	1.031	0.987	0.958	1.016
Vegetation	0.961	0.890	1.037	0.903	0.801	1.017	1.006	0.882	1.148	0.983	0.844	1.145
Percent of low education	1.000	0.997	1.004	1.000	0.995	1.006	0.997	0.991	1.003	1.001	0.994	1.008
Percent of non-Cantonese	0.997	0.992	1.002	0.997	0.990	1.004	0.995	0.986	1.003	1.003	0.994	1.013
Unemployed	<b>0.731</b>	<b>0.687</b>	<b>0.778</b>	1.012	0.870	1.176	0.904	0.787	1.038	<b>0.575</b>	<b>0.527</b>	<b>0.628</b>
Unmarried	<b>0.911</b>	<b>0.871</b>	<b>0.953</b>	0.965	0.894	1.041	1.021	0.945	1.102	0.944	0.864	1.031
Age	<b>0.991</b>	<b>0.990</b>	<b>0.992</b>	<b>0.953</b>	<b>0.946</b>	<b>0.959</b>	0.999	0.990	1.008	<b>1.005</b>	<b>1.001</b>	<b>1.009</b>
Male	<b>0.915</b>	<b>0.874</b>	<b>0.956</b>	<b>0.827</b>	<b>0.769</b>	<b>0.888</b>	<b>0.836</b>	<b>0.773</b>	<b>0.903</b>	1.010	0.922	1.106

669 Table 5 – Odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) for evaluating the associations between urban characteristics and age-specific non-  
 670 hemorrhagic stroke mortality. Based on each regression, the OR was used to evaluate the difference between stroke and all-cause mortality.

	Odds ratio											
	All decedents			Old-old			Young-old			Not-old		
	OR	LUI	UCI	OR	LUI	UCI	OR	LUI	UCI	OR	LUI	UCI
Regional air pollution (in 10 µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	<b>1.077</b>	<b>1.003</b>	<b>1.157</b>	1.037	0.945	1.139	<b>1.139</b>	<b>1.004</b>	<b>1.292</b>	1.103	0.865	1.406
Traffic-related air pollution (in 10 µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	1.077	0.992	1.169	1.092	0.981	1.215	1.024	0.885	1.185	1.131	0.862	1.483
Day with high temperature	0.970	0.894	1.052	0.920	0.826	1.024	1.082	0.942	1.243	0.909	0.692	1.192
Day with low temperature	0.982	0.903	1.070	0.980	0.879	1.093	1.051	0.904	1.221	0.822	0.603	1.121
Daily PM <sub>10</sub> (in 10 µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	<b>1.014</b>	<b>1.004</b>	<b>1.025</b>	1.012	0.998	1.026	1.012	0.994	1.031	1.029	0.996	1.064
Daily NO <sub>x</sub> (in 10 µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	1.000	0.993	1.007	0.999	0.990	1.008	1.003	0.991	1.016	0.998	0.975	1.021
Daily O <sub>3</sub> (in 10 µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	<b>0.985</b>	<b>0.972</b>	<b>0.999</b>	0.988	0.971	1.005	0.993	0.970	1.016	<b>0.955</b>	<b>0.913</b>	<b>0.998</b>
Relative humidity	1.000	0.998	1.003	1.000	0.997	1.003	1.002	0.998	1.006	0.995	0.988	1.002
Percent of open space	0.995	0.981	1.009	1.003	0.985	1.022	0.986	0.961	1.011	0.997	0.952	1.044
Vegetation	1.066	0.993	1.145	1.031	0.940	1.132	1.091	0.962	1.237	1.101	0.871	1.391
Percent of low education	1.003	0.9999	1.006	1.000	0.996	1.005	1.001	0.995	1.006	<b>1.018</b>	<b>1.007</b>	<b>1.029</b>
Percent of non-Cantonese	0.999	0.994	1.003	0.997	0.992	1.003	0.998	0.990	1.007	1.013	0.999	1.028
Unemployed	1.026	0.953	1.104	0.949	0.848	1.063	1.008	0.878	1.158	<b>0.820</b>	<b>0.710</b>	<b>0.948</b>
Unmarried	1.011	0.968	1.056	1.031	0.970	1.096	1.052	0.979	1.132	1.131	0.988	1.294
Age	<b>1.020</b>	<b>1.019</b>	<b>1.022</b>	<b>0.986</b>	<b>0.981</b>	<b>0.991</b>	<b>1.027</b>	<b>1.018</b>	<b>1.036</b>	<b>1.048</b>	<b>1.039</b>	<b>1.058</b>
Male	<b>0.831</b>	<b>0.796</b>	<b>0.866</b>	<b>0.723</b>	<b>0.684</b>	<b>0.766</b>	<b>0.822</b>	<b>0.764</b>	<b>0.884</b>	1.093	0.947	1.262

671

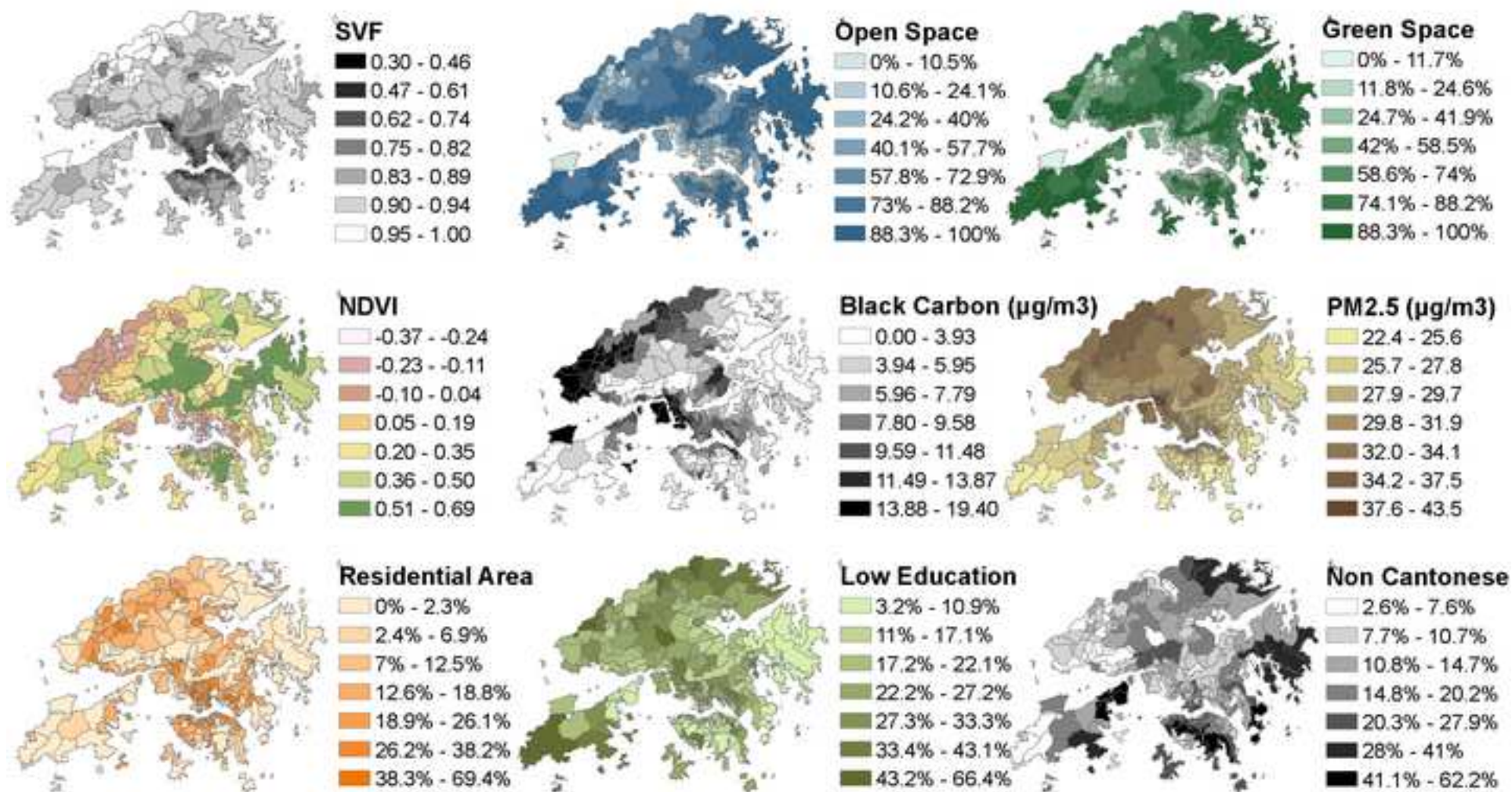
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672 **Captions of Figures**

673 **Figure 1 – Spatial variability of long-term environmental conditions and community-level socioeconomic disparity**

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Figure 1





H.C. Ho and K. Fong conceived the study. H.C. Ho and H. Guo conducted the data analysis. H.C. Ho prepared the draft of the manuscript. Y. Shi prepared the data collection. Y. Shi, C. Webster and T.C. Chan provided comments on environmental health implications. All authors provided critical feedback on all versions of the manuscript.