**Abstract  
Background:** Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) is a fatal neurodegenerative disease. Limited evidence suggests that ALS symptoms onset is associated with air pollution exposure and specifically to traffic-related pollutants.

**Methods:** In this population-based case-control study, we used data on 3,939 ALS cases from the Danish National Patient Register diagnosed between 1989 – 2013 and matched on age, sex, year of birth and vital status to 19,298 population-based controls free of ALS at index date. We used predictions of nitrogen oxides (NOx), carbon monoxide (CO), elemental carbon (EC), and fine particles (PM2*.*5) from validated spatio-temporal models to assign 1-, 5-, and 10-year average exposures pre-ALS diagnosis at present and historical residential addresses of study participants. We used a Bayesian hierarchical conditional logistic model and adjusted for potential confounders to estimate the overall and joint association for the three traffic-related pollutants (NOx, CO, and EC), as well as pollutant-specific associations.

**Results:** For a standard deviation (SD) increase in 5-year average concentrations, EC was potentially individually associated with an increase in odds (11.5%; 95% credible interval[CrI]:-1.0%,25.6%), with decreases individually for NOx (-4.6%;95%CrI-18.1%,8.9%) and CO (-3.2%;95%CrI-14.4%,10.0%) and a null effect of non-EC PM2*.*5 (0.7%;95%CrI-9.2%,12.4%). We found no clear association for joint or overall traffic pollution. There was a 77.8% posterior probability of a positive association between the joint effect of pollutants and ALS diagnosis, 96.3% for EC, 27.8% for NOx and 26.7% for CO.

**Conclusions:** Our results indicate a potential positive association between ALS diagnosis and pollutants, particularly for EC, though results are inconclusive. Further work is needed to understand the role of air pollution on ALS pathogenesis and timing of onset.

**Abbreviations:**

ALSAmyotrophic lateral sclerosis

BMI Body mass index

COCarbon monoxide

CrI Credible interval

EC Elemental carbon

ICD International Classification of Diseases

Non-EC PM2.5 Non-elemental carbon fine particles

NOxNitrogen oxides

O3 Ozone

PM2.5 Fine particles

SD Standard deviation

SES Socioeconomic status

**Introduction**Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) is a devastating and fatal neurodegenerative disease,1 currently without a cure.2 Approximately half of patients die within three years of symptom onset.3 Annually, there are nearly 30,000 cases of ALS in Europe and over 200,000 worldwide.4 Known inherited genetic variants only account for 5–10% of ALS cases.5,6 Environmental factors, therefore, are likely important in ALS pathogenesis.7 However, because the disease is relatively rare, it is challenging to conduct large-scale prospective studies. There is a recognized need for more evidence of the environmental contributors of ALS.5,8   
  
Although air pollution is commonly studied in association with respiratory- and cardiovascular-related outcomes, e.g., refs. 9–14, epidemiologic and toxicological studies support several plausible biological mechanisms in association with the nervous system and neurodegeneration, e.g., 15–34. Ambient air pollution, especially urban air pollution, is a ubiquitous exposure that has been associated with several other neurodegenerative disorders, e.g., refs. 16–21,35,36. and is consistently linked to systemic inflammation,22–24 oxidative stress,25–28 and neuroinflammation,15,29 all of which, in turn, have been reported as key pathways to ALS pathogenesis, e.g., refs. 30–34.  
  
Despite the compelling plausibility, few studies to datehave evaluated the association between air pollution and ALS.35,37–39 A study in 2021 found that traffic-related air pollutants may be driving observed associations.38 No study has hitherto attempted to understand the combined and individual associations of the pollutants in a single model. Air pollutants have been consistently associated with adverse health, primarily in single pollutant analyses.13,17,40–42 However, they are highly correlated with one another.40 It is therefore a mixture modelling challenge to infer the association of multiple air pollutants and health outcomes.43 Using three air pollutants commonly used in health studies as traffic-related emissions tracers—nitrogen oxides (NOx), carbon monoxide (CO), and elemental carbon (EC)— we aimed to assess whether exposure to (a) each individual air pollutant is independently associated with ALS diagnosis, and estimate their (b) joint and (c) overall traffic-related emissions associations.

**Methods**

*Study Population and Outcome Assessment*

We used data from the Danish National Patient Register during 1989-2013, through which details on demographic characteristics and certain health outcomes of all Danish residents can be linked based on a unique personal identifier.44 The Register was established in 1977 and is comprehensive, including nationwide clinical and administrative records for all inpatient data, with outpatient data available since 1995.45

We identified ALS cases based on their International Classification of Diseases (ICD) discharge diagnoses, i.e., ICD-8 code 348.0 (ALS) until 1993 and ICD-10 code G12.2 (motor neuron disease) thereafter, using the date of the first relevant code as the diagnosis date. This was the index date. We only included patients who were at least 20 years old when diagnosed because (i) cases younger than 20 years old were at a greater chance of misclassification, since ALS has been predominantly diagnosed in older adults in Denmark,46 and (ii) juvenile ALS cases have been explained to a much larger degree by genetic mutations (~40%).47 In our validation study, Register data for ALS ascertainment were highly reliable; working with a specialist ALS neurologist to review medical records and comparing to death certificates and hospital discharges, the Danish National Patient Register was found to have an overall predictive value for ALS of 82%.48

We obtained controls through the Danish Civil Registration System, established in 1968 and updated daily, which includes administrative records (e.g., date and place of birth, sex, vital status, and history of civil status and addresses since 1971) on all persons living in Denmark; records are kept even when a person dies or emigrates.49 We randomly matched five controls per case by age, sex, year of birth, and vital status. Controls were alive and free of diagnosed ALS at the ALS diagnosis date of the matched case (index date). The control-sampling scheme followed a risk-set matching pattern, so cases could have served as controls before diagnosis of ALS.50

We obtained all addresses of cases and controls from January 1st 1979 onwards from the Danish Civil Registration System,49 including the dates of moving to and from each address, before the index date. We then obtained the geographical coordinates at the door of each house of the residential history of the participants, with previous evidence of the high accuracy of this method of geocoding of addresses in Denmark.17

This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board Committee at the Columbia University and the Danish Data Protection Agency.

*Exposure data*

We obtained predictions on monthly concentrations of nitrogen oxides (NOx), carbon monoxide (CO), elemental carbon (EC), and fine particles (PM2*.*5) (as well as ozone (O3) for a sensitivity analysis, usually negatively correlated with other pollutants due to its chemistry51), at residential addresses of study participants from the validated spatio-temporal air pollution modelling system (DEHM-UBM-AirGIS) with full space and time coverage over our study period, described in detail elsewhere.52–55 In brief, DEHM-UBM-AirGIS is a human exposure modelling system for traffic pollution, developed for application in Danish air pollution epidemiological studies. The modelling system is able to generate street configuration and traffic data based on digital maps and national databases, which enables estimation of air quality levels at a large number of addresses in an automatic and effective way. These predicted pollutant concentrations have been extensively used in previous air pollution epidemiologic studies in Denmark.17,56–58 The models have good predictive accuracy, with average monthly correlations between measured and modelled results of 0.85 for NOx, 0.91 for CO, 0.92 for O3, 0.79 for EC, and 0.83 for annual concentrations of PM2.5.52,55 Because traffic is a major source of PM2.5 and EC one of the main PM2.5 components in urban environments,59 we removed the EC concentration from the total PM2.5 mass concentration (non-EC PM2.5) by subtraction, to avoid overadjustment when including both in the models simultaneously.

Based on the residential history of each case or control, we calculated 1-, 5-, and 10-year average exposure to each pollutant ending at one year before the index date, as diagnosis has been shown previously to occur at a median of 12 months after symptoms onset.60 Specifically, each case or control average value (1-, 5- or 10-year) was calculated as the mean of all concentrations recorded across time at the recorded addresses within each time window. A small number of Danish residents lack a complete address history (1.7%; lack of house number). To ensure we were including participants with adequately complete exposure records, we set the following minimum criteria for number of complete exposure record months to include cases and controls: (i) 1-year averages: 9 of 12 months, at least one measurement in each season; (ii) 5-year averages (main exposure): 30 of 60 months; and (iii) 10-year averages: 60 of 120 months.

*Covariate data*

We included a set of covariates based on as close as possible to index date to account for potential confounding bias, including household socioeconomic status (SES) based on last-reported job title at index date; civil status at index date, last reported place of residence at index date, and place of birth. We used a five-category individual-level SES definition developed by the Danish Institute of Social Sciences, based on job titles from income tax forms, which has been shown as having an association with ALS diagnosis in Denmark,61 as well as how quickly one is identified as having ALS in the Danish Civil Registration System.62 Group 1 (highest status) includes corporate managers and academics; group 2: proprietors, managers of small businesses and teachers; group 3: technicians and nurses; group 4: skilled workers; and group 5: unspecialized workers such as entry-level positions within food and retail environments. We included a group for participants who were unknown (group 9). For each married participant, we used the higher of the couple’s individual SES categories, where available. We also used information on civil status (never married, married, divorced, widowed) due to the influence that a spouse has on visiting a family physician,63 last reported place of residence from postcode (Greater Copenhagen, big cities of Denmark, rest of Denmark, Greenland) to account for various local environmental and behavioral stressors,7 and place of birth (Greater Copenhagen, big cities of Denmark, rest of Denmark, Greenland, foreign, unknown) to adjust for other potential family-specific, location-specific, and early-life confounders, which may have an impact on the probability of developing ALS.64 Ultimately, we were limited by what was available in the Danish Civil Registration System.62 As part of a sensitivity analysis, we also included parish-level SES, measured by percentage of residents with greater than high-school education, in the model. In Denmark, parishes are administrative units with an average population of ~2,500 residents.

*Statistical analysis*

We analyzed the association between ALS diagnosis (binary) and exposure to traffic-related pollutants by applying a Bayesian formulation of the conditional logistic model, with Bayesian hierarchy on the traffic-related pollutants (EC, NOx, CO).65,66 The conditional approach examines contrasts within matched strata, i.e., groupings of case and matched controls, implicitly adjusting for matching factors (age, sex, year of birth, vital status) within each matched stratum.65 Matching by finer scale than year of birth was not possible. Bayesian inference allows for full distributional estimation of parameters of interest.66 We employed a Bayesian hierarchical formulation because it enables estimates of (a) independent pollutant-outcome associations, (b) a joint association of the three pollutants (i.e., percentage change in odds of ALS diagnosis with increase in each of EC, NOx, CO), and (c) an overall average traffic association (i.e., average percentage change in odds of ALS diagnosis from each of EC, NOx, CO), while accounting for the variance-covariance structure between the highly-correlated exposures and their coefficients.66 We included a linear term for each included pollutant and adjusted for individual- and parish-level SES, civil status, last reported place of residence, and place of birth.

Specifically, via a logit function, we modelled the log-odds of ALS diagnosis, as follows:

where denotes whether subject in matched stratum was diagnosed with ALS, i.e., represents a case and its matched controls; the matched stratum-specific intercepts (not estimated in conditional logistic models); ,,,the pollutant-specific coefficients (log-odds) per standard deviation (SD) increase in concentration of , , , respectively, scaled by their respective SDs and centered at their means, with each a pollutant-specific association adjusted by other terms in the model; and the rest as coefficients for subject-specific covariates. Interquartile Range (IQR) could equivalently be used to scale pollutant concentrations. If other sources of air pollution are associated with ALS, then including non-EC PM2.5 adjusts for PM2.5 from other sources.67 Therefore, is interpreted as the association with air pollutants not specifically included in our analysis. In urban European environments, traffic-related pollutants typically represent on-average 14% of PM2.5 concentrations.68 In a sensitivity analysis, we included to account for exposures in the model, as ozone concentrations have been associated with many adverse health outcomes,69 and added , as a natural spline with three degrees of freedom.

In our model, , , and represent the independent pollutant-specific associations with ALS diagnosis. In the same model, we estimated the joint association between these three pollutants and ALS diagnosis as:

This sum quantifies the association (log-odds) with ALS of a one-SD increase in the three pollutants simultaneously.

Finally, we assumed that the traffic-related pollutant-specific associations arise from a distribution of the overall traffic association with ALS diagnosis. We placed a hierarchy on the traffic-specific pollutant terms in the model to account for the fact that the traffic-related pollutants, EC, NOx, CO, originate from common sources:

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where denotes the overall average one-SD association of traffic-related pollution with variance . , the estimated variance-covariance matrix among pollutant-specific estimates, was expressed as a decomposition into a positive-definite correlation matrix and scale matrix .70

We used weakly-informative priors so that data drove parameter estimation. Hyper-priors for coefficients on non-EC and covariates were N(0,10); for and we used Half-Cauchy(0,10), as recommended by Gelman, Polson and Scott as a weakly-informative prior;71,72 was defined by the weakly-informative prior LKJCorr(1).73The exception to this was the prior for , the average association of traffic-related pollutants, for which estimates became unrealistically high (approaching infinity and not converging with further iterations) with a more weakly-informative prior. We therefore used a prior of N(0,0.1), which did not affect estimates of other parameters. We conducted sensitivity analyses to understand the influence of priors and the robustness of the results.

We present all results as percentage change in odds of ALS diagnosis per SD increase in pollutant concentration (calculated via e.g., , etc. obtained in the modelling process). Due to the risk-set matching pattern of our case-control study, odds ratios are also equivalently incidence ratios (IRs). We ran each model with four chains with a sample size of 1,000 each, after a warm-up of 1,000 samples, for 4,000 total samples. We assessed whether the models converged by checking that the Gelman-Rubin potential scale reduction statistic74 was below 1.1 for all estimated model parameters. The reported 95% credible intervals (CrI) are the 2.5th to 97.5th percentiles of each parameter’s posterior marginal distribution. To calculate the probability that an association estimate was greater than null, we used the 4,000 samples of the posterior and took the proportion of samples which were above a null association. A 50% probability means that it is as likely as not that the marginal is null, a probability closer to 100% indicates that the association is more likely to be truly positive, with closer to 0% indicating more likely to be truly negative.

We conducted statistical analyses using the R Statistical Software, version 4.1.175 and R-STAN, version 2.21.2.66 All code for analysis, results from analysis, and visualization presented in this manuscript will be publicly available via GitHub at https://github.com/rmp15/multipollutants\_and\_als\_code\_review.

We assessed the sensitivity of our results to hyper-prior assignment; running more iterations and warm-up per chain; inclusion of O3; single traffic-related pollutant models adjusting for non-EC PM2.5; as well as adjusting by parish-level SES. From the parish-level SES sensitivity analysis we excluded those who lived in areas without parish-level SES data, namely: (i) 819 participants for 1-year average exposure; (ii) 826 participants for 5-year average exposure; and (iii) 838 participants for 10-year average exposure.

**Results**

After filtering the original 4,011 cases and 20,055 controls based on completeness of exposure records, we used information on 3,934 (98.1% of total) cases and 19,298 (96.2% of total) controls for 5-year average exposure. We also used 3,937 cases,19,333 controls for 1-year average exposure and 3,939 cases, 19,250 controls for 10-year average exposure. Descriptive statistics of included cases and controls for 5-year average exposure can be found in Table 1. Descriptive statistics of controls for 5-year exposure by socioeconomic status, civil status, residence, and place of birth are found in eTables 1-4. For the main results, we present 5-year average exposure associations as a parsimonious representation of most recent exposure as well as long-term concentration.

The 5-year average traffic-related pollutant concentrations were 27 µg/m3 for NOx (SD=20 µg/m3), 238 µg/m3 for CO (SD=106 µg/m3) and 0.85 µg/m3 for EC (SD=0.42 µg/m3) (Table 2). Figure 1 shows Spearman correlations between pollutants for 1-, 5-, and 10-year average exposures. Traffic-related pollutants (NOx, CO, EC) were highly correlated in cases, controls and overall, ranging from correlations of 0.91 to 0.96. Otherwise, non-EC PM2.5 was most highly correlated with CO, ranging from 0.67 to 0.7. O3 was negatively correlated with other pollutants, ranging from -0.5 to -0.89.

For 5-year average pollutant concentrations, we observed the largest overall association for the individual SD increase in EC (11.5%; 95% CrI: -1.0%, 25.6% per 0.42 µg/m3; 96.3% posterior probability of positive association) (Figure 2). SD increases were associated with a decrease in odds of ALS diagnosis in NOx (-4.6%; 95% CrI: -18.1%, 8.9% per 20 µg/m3; 27.8% posterior probability of positive association) and CO (-3.2%; 95% CrI: -14.4%, 10.0% per 106 µg/m3; 26.7% posterior probability of positive association). The joint association of traffic-related pollutants (EC, NOx, CO) was 2.3% (95% CrI: -3.3%, 7.7%), with an 77.8% posterior probability of a positive association. The average overall traffic association was null (-0.1%; 95% CrI: -17.4%, 20.8%). Non-EC PM2.5 was not associated with ALS diagnosis (0.7%; 95% CrI: -9.2%, 12.4%). 1-year EC average exposure was associated with an increase in odds of ALS diagnosis (15.4%; 95% CrI: 1.6%, 25.6%) (Figure 2). 10-year average exposure results were attenuated versions of the 1- and 5-year results, as associations tended further to the null. Single-pollutant models for each traffic-related pollutant adjusting for non-EC PM2.5 (eFigure 1; single traffic-related pollutant models D, E and F) resulted in positive associations for each of EC, NOx, CO, with positive associations for non-EC PM2.5 in all but the model with EC. The 95% credible interval for EC in the single-pollutant model (eFigure 1; model D) overlapped with the credible intervals of the EC term in the multi-pollutant models (eFigure 1; models B, C, G to P). Results from variations of the main model in the sensitivity analyses were robust to prior choices, inclusion of O3, and inclusion of parish-level SES (eFigure 1). A map of average concentration of included pollutants (NOx, EC, PM2.5, CO, O3) across Denmark for a representative year (2000; middle of study period 1989-2013) is also available in eFigure 2.

**Discussion**

In the largest case-control study of ALS and traffic-related air pollution to date, we found that a joint increase in average concentrations of traffic-related pollutants was potentially associated with an increase in odds of ALS diagnosis, with the clearest results for EC. We found that EC had the largest-in-magnitude independent association with ALS diagnosis, while associations with NOx and CO were negative with credible intervals overlapping the null, and smaller in magnitude. Sensitivity analyses demonstrated that for single pollutant models, the association for EC was smaller than for our main multi-pollutant model, which took into account the variance-covariance structure of traffic-related pollutants. Overall conclusions for the association between EC and ALS diagnosis would have been similar from the single- or multi-pollutant models. The inconsistent association for NOx and CO in the multi- and single-pollutant models suggest that the model may have had limited success identifying each single-pollutant’s association with ALS diagnosis due to the high level of co-linearity of traffic-related pollutants. Nevertheless, the consistency of the sign of the central estimate of EC in all models suggests that EC may be a driver of the ALS and traffic-related pollutant association, though further analysis is required,

Our results indicate that traffic-related pollutants, hazardous in many ways,9–21,40–42 may also be associated with ALS diagnosis. Our finding—that increases in EC, are potentially positively associated with ALS diagnosis—is plausible. A recent case-control study in the Netherlands reported that ultrafine particles, another traffic emissions-related surrogate, were associated with ALS diagnosis,38 while another based in Catalonia, Spain found ALS cases clustered around key road infrastructure.76 Although we did not find an association with non-EC PM2.5 in our study, our results are not directly comparable to those of the other studies, as our PM2.5 effect estimates capture the PM2.5 components not accounted for by other pollutants in the analysis.

Our results indicate that EC exposure—a large part of which comes from diesel combustion and small combustion sources (such as wood stoves) in European urban centers, where prevalence of diesel cars is high77—has a high probability of a positive association with ALS diagnosis. In our previous study of ALS and occupational exposures in Denmark we found that those working in agriculture and construction, associated with exposure to diesel engine exhausts, were at higher relative risk than those in other employments.61 Truck drivers, for whom diesel exposure is common, are also at increased risk of sporadic ALS.78 EC exposure has been associated with inflammation,79 mitochondrial dysfunction80 and DNA damage,80,81 all of which are plausible pathways of neurodegeneration. These factors have also previously been identified as particular pathways to pathogenesis of ALS.30–34

We did not find a high probability of a positive association with NOx in our analyses, in contrast with a previous study, though that study did not include EC.38 NOx is also highly correlated with EC (0.95 to 0.96 in our study), which is expected given that they are both combustion products commonly associated with emissions in urban environments. EC exposure was more strongly associated with 1-year than for 5-/10-year average concentrations, which may indicate that the previous year of exposure may be the most relevant exposure window relevant to traffic-related exposures and ALS; this is biologically plausible, as this critical exposure window would be at the pre-symptomatic stage of underlying ALS progression, where traffic-related pollution exposure may add to the ongoing cellular or molecular process of the disease, to the point where the body can no longer compensate and subsequently enters the clinical phase.82–84 We do not expect that these results are attributed to reverse causation, as we have lagged these 1-year exposures by one year already prior to diagnosis, and there was likely little substantial residential movement in the year before ALS diagnosis.85 We do not expect that calendar time was a potential source of confounding, as the controls were matched by age and year of birth, and therefore would have been close in time to the cases. The null joint association, combined with the largest associations from traffic-related pollutant in all models found with EC, further indicates that EC may be driving the association of air pollution with ALS, thought further analysis will be necessary to confirm this.

Our study used one the largest number of ALS patients ever included in an environmental health study. Another strength of our study is that we leveraged highly correlated traffic pollutants and Bayesian hierarchical modeling and were able to estimate independent and joint traffic-related pollutant associations, as well as an overall traffic estimate. Although we have adjusted implicitly (by matching; age, sex, year of birth, vital status) and explicitly for many common covariates (SES, civil status, residence, place of birth), we cannot rule out residual confounding; while Body Mass Index (BMI) is not suspected as a confounder of the air pollution-ALS association, since BMI does not appear to cause variation in air pollution, we could not directly test this as we did not have BMI data for cases and controls in our study. Exposure measurement error is inevitable, as any modelled exposure will be inaccurate to some degree. However, any error is not likely correlated with ALS diagnosis, and therefore any bias would be towards null.86 While a previous study found that ALS ascertainment from the Danish National Patient Register was highly reliable,48 outcome misclassification cannot be ruled out, nor can the possibility that date of diagnosis and symptom onset were irregularly aligned. While our analysis adjusted for SES, which was based on each participant’s household, many couples in Denmark cohabitate. This would not be captured by our analysis, and ALS diagnosis in relation to cohabitation status should be further investigated.87

Future research might use larger cohort data to understand the importance of each respective pollutant in a single model. Other mixture model methods, such as Bayesian Kernel Machine Regression (BKMR)88 or Weighted Quantile Sum (WQS) Regression,89 might be useful in further exploring the robustness of joint associations in a different framework, though neither were appropriate for particular research question, as BKMR is not appropriate for case-control studies, and WQS is a frequentist method, whereas we wanted to take into account the variance-covariance structure of the traffic-related pollutants. The timing of exposure will also be an important study route. ALS is projected to increase in prevalence over the next few decades all over the world.4 Understanding ALS pathogenesis and identifying modifiable risk factors is critical for preventive action.

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**Table 1.** Demographic characteristics of cases and controls for 5-year average exposure group.

| Characteristic | Overall, N = 23,232a | Case, N = 3,934a | Control, N = 19,298a |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Average age (years)** | 66 (12) | 66 (12) | 66 (12) |
| **Sex** |  |  |  |
| Female | 10,973 (47%) | 1,854 (47%) | 9,119 (47%) |
| Male | 12,259 (53%) | 2,080 (53%) | 10,179 (53%) |
| **Socioeconomic status (SES)** |  |  |  |
| Group 1 (Highest) | 2,337 (10%) | 451 (11%) | 1,886 (9.8%) |
| Group 2 | 2,839 (12%) | 499 (13%) | 2,340 (12%) |
| Group 3 | 4,360 (19%) | 785 (20%) | 3,575 (19%) |
| Group 4 | 6,598 (28%) | 1,076 (27%) | 5,522 (29%) |
| Group 5 (Lowest) | 4,419 (19%) | 717 (18%) | 3,702 (19%) |
| Group 9 (Unknown) | 2,679 (12%) | 406 (10%) | 2,273 (12%) |
| **Place of birth** |  |  |  |
| Greater Copenhagen | 4,858 (21%) | 831 (21%) | 4,027 (21%) |
| Big cities of Denmark | 7,923 (34%) | 1,357 (34%) | 6,566 (34%) |
| Rest of Denmark | 9,009 (39%) | 1,548 (39%) | 7,461 (39%) |
| Greenland | 243 (1.0%) | 53 (1.3%) | 190 (1.0%) |
| Foreign | 1,065 (4.6%) | 122 (3.1%) | 943 (4.9%) |
| Unknown | 134 (0.6%) | 23 (0.6%) | 111 (0.6%) |
| **Civil status** |  |  |  |
| Married | 14,158 (61%) | 2,411 (61%) | 11,747 (61%) |
| Divorced | 2,703 (12%) | 433 (11%) | 2,270 (12%) |
| Widowed | 4,224 (18%) | 726 (18%) | 3,498 (18%) |
| Never married | 2,147 (9.2%) | 364 (9.3%) | 1,783 (9.2%) |
| **Last reported place of residence** |  |  |  |
| Greater Copenhagen | 1,887 (8.1%) | 335 (8.5%) | 1,552 (8.0%) |
| Big cities of Denmark | 9,385 (40%) | 1,590 (40%) | 7,795 (40%) |
| Rest of Denmark | 11,954 (51%) | 2,008 (51%) | 9,946 (52%) |
| Greenland | 6 (<0.1%) | 1 (<0.1%) | 5 (<0.1%) |
| aMean (SD); n (%) | | | |

**Table 2.** Summary of 5-year average pollutant concentrations (all in μg/m3).

| Pollutant | Overall, N = 23,232a | Case, N = 3,934a | Control, N = 19,298a |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **NOX** | 27 (20) | 28 (21) | 27 (20) |
| **CO** | 238 (106) | 239 (112) | 237 (105) |
| **EC** | 0.85 (0.42) | 0.86 (0.45) | 0.85 (0.42) |
| **non-EC PM2.5** | 11.76 (2.37) | 11.78 (2.41) | 11.76 (2.37) |
| **O3** | 51.9 (6.0) | 51.9 (6.1) | 52.0 (6.0) |
| aMean (SD) | | | |

**Figure Captions**

**Figure 1**. Spearmancorrelation of 1,- 5-, and 10-year average pollutant concentrations.

**Figure 2**. Percentage change in odds of ALS diagnosis per 1-, 5- and 10-year average standard deviation (SD) increase for each pollutant. Results are from the Bayesian hierarchical model including each of EC, NOx, CO, and non-EC PM2.5 together, and were additionally adjusted by age, sex, year of birth, vital status, socioeconomic status, civil status, last reported place of residence, and place of birth.