Check for updates

OPEN ACCESS

EDITED BY Ghulam Mujtaba Kayani, Hubei University of Economics, China

REVIEWED BY Yang Wang, Yunnan Normal University, China Mohammad Javad Mohammadi, Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences, Iran Feng Hong, Guizhou Medical University, China

*CORRESPONDENCE Yung-Po Liaw ⊠ Liawyp@csmu.edu.tw Chih-Yi Chen ⊠ Cshy1566@csh.org.tw

RECEIVED 05 June 2023 ACCEPTED 27 December 2023 PUBLISHED 15 January 2024

CITATION

Tsai H-H, Tantoh DM, Lu WY, Chen C-Y and Liaw Y-P (2024) Cigarette smoking and PM_{2.5} might jointly exacerbate the risk of metabolic syndrome. *Front. Public Health* 11:1234799.

doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2023.1234799

COPYRIGHT

© 2024 Tsai, Tantoh, Lu, Chen and Liaw. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (CC BY). The use, distribution or porceduction in other forume i

distribution or reproduction in other forums is permitted, provided the original author(s) and the copyright owner(s) are credited and that the original publication in this journal is cited, in accordance with accepted academic practice. No use, distribution or reproduction is permitted which does not comply with these terms.

Cigarette smoking and PM_{2.5} might jointly exacerbate the risk of metabolic syndrome

Hao-Hung Tsai^{1,2,3,4,5}, Disline Manli Tantoh^{3,6}, Wen Yu Lu⁶, Chih-Yi Chen^{1,7}* and Yung-Po Liaw^{3,6}*

¹Institute of Medicine, Chung Shan Medical University, Taichung City, Taiwan, ²College of Medicine, Chung Shan Medical University, Taichung City, Taiwan, ³Department of Medical Imaging, Chung Shan Medical University Hospital, Taichung City, Taiwan, ⁴Department of Medical Imaging, School of Medicine, Chung Shan Medical University, Taichung City, Taiwan, ⁵Department of Medical Imaging and Radiological Sciences, Chung Shan Medical University, Taichung City, Taiwan, ⁶Department of Public Health and Institute of Public Health, Chung Shan Medical University, Taichung City, Taiwan, ⁷Division of Thoracic Surgery, Department of Surgery, Chung Shan Medical University Hospital, Taichung City, Taiwan

Background: Cigarette smoking and particulate matter (PM) with aerodynamic diameter < 2.5 μ m (PM_{2.5}) are major preventable cardiovascular mortality and morbidity promoters. Their joint role in metabolic syndrome (MS) pathogenesis is unknown. We determined the risk of MS based on PM_{2.5} and cigarette smoking in Taiwanese adults.

Methods: The study included 126,366 Taiwanese between 30 and 70 years old with no personal history of cancer. The Taiwan Biobank (TWB) contained information on MS, cigarette smoking, and covariates, while the Environmental Protection Administration (EPA), Taiwan, contained the $PM_{2.5}$ information. Individuals were categorized as current, former, and nonsmokers. $PM_{2.5}$ levels were categorized into quartiles: $PM_{2.5} \leq Q1$, $Q1 < PM_{2.5} \leq Q2$, $Q2 < PM_{2.5} \leq Q3$, and $PM_{2.5} > Q3$, corresponding to $PM_{2.5} \leq 27.137$, $27.137 < PM_{2.5} \leq 32.589$, $32.589 < PM_{2.5} \leq 38.205$, and $PM_{2.5} > 38.205 \,\mu g/m^3$.

Results: The prevalence of MS was significantly different according to PM₂₅ exposure (p-value = 0.0280) and cigarette smoking (p-value < 0.0001). Higher PM_{2.5} levels were significantly associated with a higher risk of MS: odds ratio (OR); 95% confidence interval (CI) = 1.058; 1.014-1.104, 1.185; 1.134-1.238, and 1.149; 1.101–1.200 for $27.137 < PM_{25} \le 32.589$, $32.589 < PM_{25} \le 38.205$, and $PM_{2.5}$ > 38.205 µg/m³, respectively. The risk of MS was significantly higher among former and current smokers with OR; 95% CI = 1.062; 1.008-1.118 and 1.531; 1.450–1.616, respectively, and a dose-dependent p-value < 0.0001. The interaction between both exposures regarding MS was significant (pvalue = 0.0157). Stratification by cigarette smoking revealed a significant risk of MS due to PM_{2.5} exposure among nonsmokers: OR (95% CI) = 1.074 (1.022-1.128), 1.226 (1.166–1.290), and 1.187 (1.129–1.247) for $27.137 < PM_{2.5} \le 32.589$, $32.589 < PM_{2.5} \le 38.205$, and $PM_{2.5} > 38.205 \,\mu g/m^3$, respectively. According to $PM_{2.5}$ quartiles, current smokers had a higher risk of MS, regardless of PM_{2.5} levels (OR); 95% CI = 1.605; 1.444-1.785, 1.561; 1.409-1.728, 1.359; 1.211-1.524, and 1.585; 1.418–1.772 for $PM_{2.5} \le 27.137$, $27.137 < PM_{2.5} \le 32.589$, $32.589 < PM_{2.5} \le 38.205$, and $PM_{2.5}$ > 38.205 µg/m³, respectively. After combining both exposures, the group, current smokers; $PM_{2.5} > 38.205 \ \mu g/m^3$ had the highest odds (1.801; 95%) CI =1.625-1.995).

Conclusion: PM_{2.5} and cigarette smoking were independently and jointly associated with a higher risk of MS. Stratified analyses revealed that cigarette

smoking might have a much higher effect on MS than $PM_{2.5}$. Nonetheless, exposure to both $PM_{2.5}$ and cigarette smoking could compound the risk of MS.

KEYWORDS

cigarette smoking, PM_{2.5}, interaction, adults, Taiwan

Background

Metabolic syndrome (MS) is a condition characterized by the coexistence of at least three metabolic risk markers, including impaired fasting blood glucose (sugar), dyslipidemia (low high-density cholesterol and high triglyceride), abdominal obesity (high waist circumference), and elevated blood pressure (1–4). MS is a public health challenge with a huge global burden: it enhances morbidity and mortality related to chronic diseases such as cancer, stroke, diabetes, asthma, and atherosclerotic and nonatherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (5–7). Metabolic risk factors such as blood pressure, fasting plasma glucose, and high total cholesterol were among the ten largest contributors to global disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) in 2015 (8). MS has multiple promoting factors including, age (9), unhealthy diet (10, 11), obesity (11), alcohol consumption (12, 13), physical inactivity (11, 13), cigarette smoking (13–23), and PM_{2.5} (24–27).

Cigarette smoking is a major preventable promoter of global cardiovascular mortality and morbidity (16, 28, 29). In 2015, it was among the five top risk factors attributable to global DALYs in 109 countries (8). The influence of cigarette smoking on MS and its components is contentious (14, 30). For instance, cigarette smoking was a significant cause of MS among Chinese (14), Koreans (31–33), and Japanese (18, 23). Nonetheless, it was not significantly associated with MS among Japanese (34) and Chinese (35). Furthermore, heavy cigarette smoking among Turkish women was suggested as being protective against future MS (36).

Air pollution, especially $PM_{2.5}$ (fine PM) is an urgent global public health concern, with continuously increasing implications (4, 9, 37– 46). It significantly enhances neurological and cardiovascular morbidity and mortality (47, 48). Several studies reported contrasting findings regarding the relationship between MS and $PM_{2.5}$ (14–23, 31–33, 49–51). A recent systematic review and meta-analysis found that $PM_{2.5}$ could contribute to as much as 12.28% of MS (52). In several original studies, $PM_{2.5}$ exposure significantly elevated the risk of MS among Chinese (25–27, 53, 54), Saudi (55), and Korean adults (56). On the contrary, $PM_{2.5}$ did not significantly affect the risk of MS among Germans (57) and Chinese (50).

The positive association between $PM_{2.5}$ and MS was more prominent in cigarette smokers, alcohol drinkers, and obese people (25, 26, 53). This suggests that smoking and other unhealthy habits could exacerbate the adverse effects of air pollution (25, 26, 53). Smoking could also confound the effect of air pollution on cardiovascular health (58). Hence, pinpointing the combined effect of cigarette smoking and $PM_{2.5}$ could narrow the data gap for the burden of disease attributable to both exposures (59). Moreover, determining the interaction between $PM_{2.5}$ and smoking could provide insightful knowledge regarding the susceptibility to $PM_{2.5}$ -related adverse health conditions in smokers and nonsmokers (59). High exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ among Chinese was recently associated with a higher risk of hypertension caused by smoking (60). However, robust studies have not been conducted to determine the combined effect of $PM_{2.5}$ and cigarette smoking on MS. In the current study, we determined the independent association of ambient $PM_{2.5}$ and smoking with MS in Taiwanese adults. Moreover, we determined the interaction between $PM_{2.5}$ and smoking regarding MS.

Methods

Study participants and data acquisition

We acquired information relating to MS, cigarette smoking, sex, age, weight, height, alcohol drinking, exercise, marital status, educational level, secondhand smoke exposure, and duration of residence from the TWB (2008-2020). The TWB database is one of the human biological databases currently supplying data for biomedical research in Taiwan (61). The TWB project is a communitybased prospective study whose participants are exclusively Taiwanese adults with no personal history of cancer (62, 63). At the start of the project, only Taiwanese aged 30-70 were eligible for enrolment (63). Currently, individuals between 20 and 70 years old without a diagnosis of cancer can enroll in the project (62). The TWB biobank currently contains over 30 recruitment sites all over Taiwan (62). All volunteers sign informed consent forms before enrolment. At enrolment, each volunteer fills out the TWB questionnaire, undergoes anthropometric examinations, and provides blood/urine samples for biochemical testing. The questionnaire contains information on cigarette smoking, sex, age, alcohol drinking, exercise, etc. The anthropometry examination determines weight, height, waist circumference, and blood pressure. The biochemical tests determine fasting blood glucose (FBG), triglyceride (TG), and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), among others.

Currently, the TWB database lacks $PM_{2.5}$ data. Notwithstanding, the Taiwan Environmental Protection Administration (EPA) contains about 71 automated stations that record daily average $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. We used the EPA daily average data from 2000 to 2016 and computed the annual average $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations ($\mu g/m^3$). The spatial-temporal variability of $PM_{2.5}$ in 349 areas in Taiwan was assessed using machine learning-coupled land-use regression (LUR) as previously described (64). The $PM_{2.5}$ data for each area was considered the exposure data for the participants' current residing there. The initial study sample was 131,498. However, we excluded 5,132 individuals with missing information for at least one variable. The final analysis included 126,366 people with complete data. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the Chung Shan Medical University Hospital granted ethical approval for this study (IRB: CS1-20009).

Definition of variables

MS was defined as the presence of at least three of the following metabolic markers: (1) waist circumference \geq 90 cm in men or \geq 80 cm in women; (2) systolic blood pressure (SBP) ≥ 130 mmHg or diastolic blood pressure (DBP) \geq 85 mmHg; (3) FBG \geq 100 mg/dL; (4) HDL-C<40 mg/dL for men and<50 mg/dL for women; (5) triglyceride (TG) \geq 150 mg/dL. This definition was based on the guidelines of the Health Promotion Administration, Ministry of Health and Welfare, Taiwan. Mean annual PM25 concentrations between 2000 and 2016 were grouped into quartiles: PM_{2.5}≤Q1 $(PM_{2.5} \le 27.137 \ \mu g/m^3), Q1 < PM_{2.5} \le Q2 \ (27.137 < PM_{2.5} \le 32.589 \ \mu g/m^3)$ m³), Q2 < PM_{2.5} \leq Q3 (32.589 < PM_{2.5} \leq 38.205 µg/m³), and PM_{2.5} > Q3 $(PM_{2.5}>38.205 \ \mu g/m^3)$. Smoking habits were self-reported, and individuals were categorized as current, former, or nonsmokers. Current smokers included those who smoked cigarettes for at least six months and were still smoking during the data collection period. Former smokers were those who smoked cigarettes for at least six months in the past but had quit the habit for over six months. Nonsmokers were those with no personal history of cigarette smoking.

The body mass index (BMI) was computed as weight/height squared (kg/m²). The cutoff values for BMI categories were BMI < 18.5, $18.5 \le BMI < 24, 24 \le BMI < 27$, and $BMI \ge 27 \text{ kg/m}^2$, corresponding to normal weight, underweight, overweight, and obesity. Current drinkers were individuals who confirmed having a regular habit of consuming at least 150 mL of alcohol per week continuously for half a year or more. Former drinkers included those who drank 150 mL of alcohol per week continuously for at least half a year in the past but had quit the habit for over six months. Nondrinkers included those who drank <150 mL of alcohol per week. Physically active individuals included those who had a habit of regularly engaging in physical activities (lasting over half an hour) at least three times weekly. Exposure to secondhand smoke referred to habitual exposure to secondhand smoke for 5 min or more in an hour. For marital status, participants were regarded as being married (still married), single, divorced/separated (not yet married/divorced or separated from their spouses), or widowed (lost a partner). Educational level categories included, elementary and below, junior and senior high school, or university and above. The quartiles for the duration of residence were < 7.58, 7.58–17.58, 17.58–29.58, and ≥ 29.58 years.

Statistical analyses

The differences in age (a continuous variable) between participants with and without MS were determined with the Student t-test. The differences in the percentage distribution of categorical variables (e.g., sex, cigarette smoking) between those with and without MS were determined using the Chi-square test. Age was presented in mean ± standard error (SE) while the categorical variables were presented as n (%). The risk of MS based on PM_{2.5}, cigarette smoking, and the interaction between both exposures was determined by multivariate logistic regression. In the logistic regression model assessing the interaction between cigarette smoking and PM_{2.5} on MS, the *p*-value was obtained by putting the interaction term (cigarette smoking*PM_{2.5}) as the main exposure (independent variable) and MS as the outcome variable. In all the regression analyses, adjustments were made for sex, age, weight, height, alcohol drinking, exercise, marital status, educational level, secondhand smoke exposure, and duration of residence. A p-value < 0.05 was set as the threshold for

statistical significance. Data were managed and analyzed using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC).

Results

Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the 126,366 study participants comprising 26,767 MS cases and 99,599 individuals without MS. The $PM_{2.5}$ quartiles were $PM_{2.5} \le Q1$ ($PM_{2.5} \le 27.137$), $Q1 < PM_{2.5} \le Q2$ $(27.137 < PM_{2.5} \le 32.589 \,\mu g/m^3),$ $Q_{2} < P_{M_{25}} \le Q_{3}$ (32.589<PM_{2.5} \leq 38.205 µg/m³), and PM_{2.5}>Q3 (PM_{2.5}>38.205 µg/m³). Individuals with and without MS significantly differed in terms of PM_{2.5} concentration (p-value=0.0280), cigarette smoking, and other variables, including sex, age, BMI, alcohol intake, marital status, educational level, secondhand smoke exposure, and duration of residence (p-value < 0.0001). Among the 99,599 individuals without MS, 24,378 (24.48%), 27,157 (27.27%), 23,147 (23.24%), 24,917 (25.02%) were within the PM_{2.5} quartiles, $PM_{2.5} \le Q1$, $Q1 < PM_{2.5} \le Q2$, $Q2 < PM_{2.5} \le Q3$, and $PM_{2.5} > Q3$, respectively. Among the 26,767 MS cases, 6,370 (23.80%), 7,250 (27.09%), 6,414 (23.96%), and 6,733 (25.15%) were within the PM_{2.5} quartiles, $PM_{25} \le Q1$, $Q1 < PM_{25} \le Q2$, $Q2 < PM_{25} \le Q3$, and $PM_{25} > Q3$, respectively. The group without MS comprised 81,706 (82.03%) nonsmokers, 9,687 (9.73%) former smokers, and 8,206 (8.24%) current smokers. The MS group comprised 19,541 (73.00%) nonsmokers, 3,628 (13.55%) former smokers, and 3,598 (13.44%) nonsmokers.

Table 2 and Supplementary Figures S1, S2 present the association of MS with PM2.5 and cigarette smoking. Higher compared to lower $PM_{2.5}$ levels (27.137 < $PM_{2.5} \le 32.589$, 32.589 < $PM_{2.5} \le 38.205$, and $PM_{2.5}$ > 38.205 vs. $PM_{2.5} \le 27.137 \ \mu g/m^3$) were significantly associated with a higher risk of MS (OR; 95% CI=1.058; 1.014-1.104 for $27.137 < PM_{2.5} \le 32.589 \,\mu g/m^3$, 1.185; 1.134 - 1.238for $32.589 < PM_{2.5} \le 38.205 \ \mu g/m^3$, and 1.149; 1.101 - 1.200 for $PM_{2.5}$ > 38.205 µg/m³). Compared to nonsmokers, former and current smokers had a higher risk of MS (OR = 1.062, 95% CI = 1.008-1.118 for former smokers and 1.531; 1.450-1.616 for current smokers). The dose-response relationship between smoking and MS was significant (p-trend <0.0001). According to the quantity of cigarettes smoked, a weekly consumption of \geq 140 cigarettes per week was significantly associated with a higher risk of MS in both former and current smokers (Supplementary Table S1). The interaction between PM_{2.5} and cigarette smoking was significant: p-value = 0.0157 (Table 2). The risk of MS was also significantly higher among people who were \geq 50 years (OR = 2.277, 95% CI = 2.190-2.367), overweight (OR; 95% CI = 4.219; 4.056-4.388), obese (OR; 95% CI=13.232; 12.707-13.778), current alcohol drinkers (OR=1.162, 95% CI=1.092-1.236), divorced/ separated (OR; 95% CI = 1.097; 1.039-1.159), and widowed (OR; 95% CI=1.178;1.098-1.264). However, the risk was lower among underweight individuals (OR = 0.084, 95% CI = 0.057-0.124), those who exercised regularly (OR=0.866, 95% CI=0.839-0.895), single people (OR; 95% CI = 0.928; 0.882-0.976), those who attained a junior and senior high school level (OR; 95% CI=0.821; 0.769-0.876), and university education and above (OR = 0.692, 95% CI = 0.648-0.740).

Table 3 shows the association between PM_{2.5} and MS in current, former, and nonsmokers. PM_{2.5} was significantly associated with a higher risk of MS among nonsmokers: OR=1.074, 95% CI=1.022–1.128, 1.226; 1.166–1.290, and 1.187; 1.129–1.247 for 27.137 < PM_{2.5} \leq 38.205, and PM_{2.5} > 38.205 µg/m³, respectively.

Table 4 illustrates the association between cigarette smoking and MS stratified by $PM_{2.5}$ quartiles. Compared to nonsmokers, the

TABLE 1 Demographic characteristics of the study participants stratified by metabolic syndrome.

Variables	No metabolic syndrome	Metabolic syndrome	<i>p</i> -value
	(n = 99,599)	(<i>n</i> = 26,767)	
$PM_{2.5}$ quartile, n (%)			0.0280
$PM_{2.5} \le Q1 (PM_{2.5} \le 27.137 \mu g/m^3)$	24,378 (24.48)	63,70 (23.80)	
$Q1 < PM_{2.5} \le Q2 (27.137 < PM_{2.5} \le 32.589 \mu g/m^3)$	27,157 (27.27)	7,250 (27.09)	
$Q2\!<\!PM_{2.5}\!\le\!Q3~(32.589\!<\!PM_{2.5}\!\le\!38.205\mu g/m^3)$	23,147 (23.24)	64,14 (23.96)	
$PM_{2.5} > Q3 \ (PM_{2.5} > 38.205 \mu g/m^3)$	24,917 (25.02)	6,733 (25.15)	
Cigarette smoking status, <i>n</i> (%)			<0.0001
Nonsmokers	81,706 (82.03)	19,541 (73.00)	
Former smokers	9,687 (9.73)	3,628 (13.55)	
Current smokers	8,206 (8.24)	3,598 (13.44)	
Sex, <i>n</i> (%)			<0.0001
Women	6,5,749 (66.01)	14,973 (55.94)	
Men	33,850 (33.99)	11,794 (44.06)	
Age, <i>n</i> (%)			<0.0001
Age < 50 years	50,614 (50.82)	8,935 (33.38)	
Age \geq 50 years	48,985 (49.18)	17,832 (66.62)	
BMI, n (%)			<0.0001
Underweight (BMI < 18.5 kg/m²)	4,192 (4.21)	26 (0.10)	
Normal weight $(18.5 \le BMI < 24 \text{ kg/m}^2)$	57,268 (57.50)	4,682 (17.49)	
Overweight $(24 \le BMI < 27 \text{ kg/m}^2)$	25,174 (25.28)	9,037 (33.76)	
Obesity (BMI \ge 27 kg/m ²)	12,965 (13.02)	13,022 (48.65)	
Alcohol intake status, <i>n</i> (%)			<0.0001
Nondrinkers	9,1946 (93.32)	23,573 (88.07)	
Former drinkers	2,323 (2.33)	1,012 (3.78)	
Current drinkers	5,330 (5.35)	2,182 (8.15)	
Exercise, <i>n</i> (%)			0.1665
No	59,543 (59.78)	16,127 (60.25)	
Yes	40,056 (40.22)	10,640 (39.75)	
Marital status, n (%)			<0.0001
Married	72,256 (72.55)	19,849 (74.15)	
Single	15,113 (15.17)	2,804 (10.48)	
Divorced or separated	8,251 (8.28)	2,501 (9.34)	
Widowed	3,979 (4.00)	1,613 (6.03)	
Educational level, <i>n</i> (%)			<0.0001
Elementary school and below	3,924 (3.94)	2,189 (8.18)	
Junior and senior high school	34,053 (34.19)	11,330 (42.33)	
University and above	61,622 (61.87)	13,248 (49.49)	
Secondhand smoke exposure, <i>n</i> (%)			<0.0001
No	89,566 (89.93)	23,529 (87.90)	
Yes	10,033 (10.07)	3,238 (12.10)	
Duration of residence, <i>n</i> (%)			<0.0001
<7.58 years	26,129 (26.23)	5,448 (20.35)	
7.58–17.58 years	25,695 (25.80)	5,847 (21.84)	
17.58–29.58 years	24,310 (24.41)	7,143 (26.69)	
≥29.58 years	23,465 (23.56)	8,329 (31.12)	

n, sample size; %, percent; BMI, body mass index; kg, kilogram; m², meter squared.

TABLE 2 Association of $\ensuremath{\mathsf{PM}_{\text{2.5}}}$ and cigarette smoking with metabolic syndrome.

Variables	OR	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value					
PM _{2.5} quartile								
PM _{2.5} ≤27.137 (ref.)	1							
$27.137 < PM_{2.5} \le 32.589$	1.058	1.014-1.104	0.0096					
$32.589 < PM_{2.5} \le 38.205$	1.185	1.134-1.238	<0.0001					
PM _{2.5} >38.205	1.149	1.101-1.200	<0.0001					
P-trend		NA						
Cigarette smoking status								
Nonsmokers (ref.)	1							
Former smokers	1.062	1.008-1.118	0.0232					
Current smokers	1.531	1.450-1.616	<0.0001					
P-trend		<0.0001						
Sex								
Women (ref.)	1							
Men	0.966	0.930-1.003	0.0705					
Age								
Age<50 (ref.)	1							
Age \geq 50	2.277	2.190-2.367	<0.0001					
BMI								
Normal weight (ref.)	1							
Underweight	0.084	0.057-0.124	<0.0001					
Overweight	4.219	4.056-4.388	<0.0001					
Obesity	13.232	12.707-13.778	<0.0001					
Alcohol intake status			·					
Nondrinkers (ref.)	1							
Former drinkers	1.056	0.968-1.152	0.2198					
Current drinkers	1.162	1.092-1.236	<0.0001					
Exercise								
No (ref.)	1							
Yes	0.866	0.839-0.895	<0.0001					
Marital status								
Married (ref.)	1							
Single	0.928	0.882-0.976	0.0036					
Divorced or separated	1.097	1.039-1.159	0.0009					
Widowed	1.178	1.098-1.264	<0.0001					
Educational level								
Elementary school and below (ref.)	1							
Junior and senior high school	0.821	0.769-0.876	< 0.0001					
University and above	0.692	0.648-0.740	< 0.0001					
Secondhand smoke exposure								
No (ref.)	1							
Yes	1.048	0.998-1.100	0.0614					
Duration of residence	Duration of residence							
<7.58 (ref.)	1							
7.58–17.58	1.065	1.017-1.114	0.0070					
17.58–29.58	1.128	1.078-1.182	<0.0001					
≥29.58	1.146	1.092-1.203	< 0.0001					
PM ₂₅ *cigarette smoking	<i>p</i> -value=0.0157							

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; ref., reference; BMI, body mass index; NA, not applicable (the trend is nonlinear).

TABLE 3 Association between $\mathsf{PM}_{2.5}$ and metabolic syndrome in current, former, nonsmokers.

Variables	I	Nonsmoke	rs	Former smokers			Current smokers			
	OR	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value	OR	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value	OR	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value	
PM _{2.5} quartile										
PM _{2.5} ≤27.137 (ref.)	1									
$27.137\!<\!\mathrm{PM}_{2.5}\!\le\!32.589$	1.074	1.022-1.128	0.0047	1.042	0.927-1.172	0.4856	0.983	0.871-1.110	0.7860	
$32.589 < PM_{2.5} \le 38.205$	1.226	1.166-1.290	< 0.0001	1.075	0.951-1.215	0.2485	1.044	0.917-1.188	0.5187	
PM _{2.5} >38.205	1.187	1.129-1.247	< 0.0001	0.975	0.862-1.103	0.6864	1.094	0.962-1.244	0.1714	
P-trend		NA			NA		0.1193			
Sex										
Women (ref.)	1									
Men	0.941	0.903-0.981	0.0042	1.179	1.023-1.359	0.0227	1.341	1.171-1.534	<0.0001	
Age					1					
Age < 50 (ref.)	1									
$Age \ge 50$	2.403	2.296-2.514	< 0.0001	1.913	1.716-2.133	<0.0001	1.915	1.718-2.135	<0.0001	
BMI					1					
Normal weight (ref.)	1									
Underweight	0.074	0.048-0.115	< 0.0001	< 0.001	< 0.001->999.999	0.9431	0.226	0.100-0.511	0.0004	
Overweight	4.193	4.013-4.381	< 0.0001	4.458	3.916-5.074	<0.0001	4.523	3.971-5.153	<0.0001	
Obesity	12.508	11.950- 13.091	< 0.0001	15.036	13.202-17.125	< 0.0001	17.416	15.290– 19.839	< 0.0001	
Alcohol intake status										
Nondrinkers (ref.)	1									
Former drinkers	1.181	1.012-1.377	0.0344	1.021	0.888-1.174	0.7728	1.070	0.905-1.265	0.4313	
Current drinkers	1.007	0.908-1.117	0.8941	1.287	1.144-1.447	< 0.0001	1.238	1.111-1.380	0.0001	
Exercise										
No (ref.)	1									
Yes	0.866	0.834-0.898	< 0.0001	0.842	0.770-0.920	0.0002	0.853	0.769-0.947	0.0027	
Marital status										
Married (ref.)	1									
Single	0.947	0.894-1.003	0.0646	0.989	0.830-1.179	0.9032	0.863	0.755-0.986	0.0308	
Divorced or separated	1.059	0.992-1.130	0.0853	1.321	1.128-1.547	0.0006	1.213	1.056-1.394	0.0063	
Widowed	1.161	1.078-1.249	< 0.0001	1.192	0.879-1.616	0.2574	1.167	0.828-1.646	0.3773	
Educational level					1					
Elementary school and below (ref.)	1									
Junior and senior high school	0.808	0.753-0.868	<0.0001	1.016	0.823-1.254	0.8845	0.776	0.597-1.009	0.0585	
University and above	0.678	0.630-0.729	< 0.0001	0.891	0.721-1.102	0.2866	0.673	0.516-0.878	0.0035	
Secondhand smoke exposure					1			1		
No (ref.)	1									
Yes	1.048	0.986-1.115	0.1303	0.962	0.843-1.097	0.5583	1.102	0.993-1.224	0.0677	
Duration of residence										
<7.58 (ref.)	1									
7.58–17.58	1.071	1.016-1.130	0.0112	1.044	0.917-1.189	0.5154	1.045	0.927-1.179	0.4729	
17.58–29.58	1.115	1.056-1.177	< 0.0001	1.105	0.975-1.252	0.1194	1.196	1.054-1.357	0.0057	
≥29.58	1.150	1.087-1.216	<0.0001	1.098	0.959-1.258	0.1765	1.092	0.938-1.273	0.2572	

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; ref., reference; BMI, body mass index; NA, not applicable (the trend is nonlinear).

Variables	$PM_{2.5} \le 27.137 \mu g/m^3$		27.137 <pm<sub>2.5 ≤32.589µg/ m³</pm<sub>		32.589 <pm<sub>2.5 ≤38.205µg/ m³</pm<sub>			PM _{2.5} > 38.205 μg/m ³				
	OR	95% Cl	<i>p-</i> value	OR	95% CI	p- value	OR	95% CI	p- value	OR	95% Cl	<i>p</i> - value
Cigarette smoking	status											
Nonsmokers (ref.)	1											
Former smokers	1.139	1.027- 1.263	0.0139	1.138	1.032- 1.254	0.0094	0.960	0.863- 1.068	0.4513	1.003	0.901- 1.116	0.9590
Current smokers	1.605	1.444– 1.785	<0.0001	1.561	1.409– 1.728	<0.0001	1.359	1.211- 1.524	<0.0001	1.585	1.418– 1.772	<0.0001
P-trend		< 0.0001			< 0.0001			< 0.0001			< 0.0001	
Sex												
Women (ref.)	1											
Men	0.976	0.904– 1.054	0.5371	0.935	0.870- 1.005	0.0689	1.056	0.978- 1.140	0.1624	0.912	0.846- 0.984	0.0177
Age												
Age<50 (ref.)	1											
Age \geq 50	2.349	2.169- 2.543	<0.0001	2.159	2.002- 2.329	<0.0001	2.315	2.139- 2.505	<0.0001	2.295	2.126- 2.477	<0.0001
BMI						1			1			
Normal weight (ref.)	1											
Underweight	0.113	0.054- 0.239	<0.0001	0.048	0.018- 0.128	<0.0001	0.127	0.066- 0.246	<0.0001	0.064	0.029- 0.143	<0.0001
Overweight	4.381	4.030- 4.762	<0.0001	4.272	3.960- 4.609	<0.0001	4.228	3.901- 4.583	<0.0001	4.060	3.762- 4.381	<0.0001
Obesity	14.795	13.600- 16.095	<0.0001	13.166	12.182– 14.231	<0.0001	13.506	12.424– 14.683	<0.0001	11.850	10.944- 12.831	<0.0001
Alcohol intake stat	us											
Nondrinkers (ref.)	1											
Former drinkers	1.052	0.874– 1.266	0.5931	1.059	0.890- 1.260	0.5167	1.112	0.932- 1.327	0.2372	1.033	0.876- 1.218	0.7031
Current drinkers	1.165	1.028- 1.319	0.0163	1.113	0.993- 1.247	0.0654	1.222	1.075- 1.389	0.0021	1.171	1.025- 1.339	0.0204
Exercise												
No (ref.)	1											
Yes	0.834	0.780- 0.891	<0.0001	0.883	0.829– 0.939	<0.0001	0.853	0.797- 0.912	<0.0001	0.892	0.836- 0.951	0.0005
Marital status						1			1	1	1	
Married (ref.)	1											
Single	0.943	0.847- 1.049	0.2788	0.880	0.798– 0.970	0.0100	0.898	0.809– 0.995	0.0405	0.995	0.902- 1.098	0.9218
Divorced or separated	1.118	1.002- 1.248	0.0460	1.027	0.923- 1.142	0.6282	1.205	1.072- 1.355	0.0018	1.065	0.958– 1.184	0.2417
Widowed	1.152	0.999– 1.329	0.0515	1.172	1.026- 1.340	0.0196	1.332	1.150- 1.543	0.0001	1.088	0.946- 1.252	0.2364

TABLE 4 Association between cigarette smoking and metabolic syndrome stratified by $PM_{2.5}$ quartiles.

(Continued)

Variables	$PM_{2.5} \le 27.137 \mu g/m^3$		27.137 <pm₂₅ <br="" ≤32.589µg="">m³</pm₂₅>			32.589 <pm<sub>2.5 ≤38.205μg/ m³</pm<sub>			PM _{2.5} > 38.205 μg/m ³			
	OR	95% Cl	<i>p-</i> value	OR	95% CI	<i>p-</i> value	OR	95% CI	<i>p-</i> value	OR	95% Cl	<i>p-</i> value
Educational level												
Elementary school and below (ref.)	1											
Junior and senior high school	0.808	0.705– 0.925	0.0020	0.814	0.719– 0.921	0.0011	0.819	0.720- 0.930	0.0021	0.836	0.729– 0.958	0.0100
University and above	0.692	0.601– 0.795	<0.0001	0.683	0.602- 0.776	<0.0001	0.722	0.633- 0.824	<0.0001	0.674	0.586– 0.776	<0.0001
Secondhand smok	e exposure											
No (ref.)	1											
Yes	1.088	0.984- 1.203	0.0985	1.065	0.971- 1.168	0.1787	1.032	0.940- 1.133	0.5140	1.002	0.901– 1.114	0.9760
Duration of reside	nce											
<7.58 (ref.)	1											
7.58-17.58	1.038	0.945- 1.139	0.4379	1.120	1.022- 1.226	0.0149	1.149	0.958– 1.149	0.2990	1.053	0.963– 1.151	0.2576
17.58–29.58	1.079	0.983- 1.185	0.1097	1.166	1.064- 1.278	0.0010	1.175	1.071- 1.290	0.0007	1.096	1.001– 1.200	0.0476
≥29.58	1.080	0.980- 1.191	0.1198	1.215	1.106- 1.335	<0.0001	1.160	1.046- 1.286	0.0048	1.129	1.027– 1.242	0.0119

TABLE 4 (Continued)

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; ref., reference; BMI, body mass index.

risk of MS was significantly higher in former smokers when the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration was $\leq 32.589 \,\mu g/m^3$: OR (95% CI) = 1.139 (1.027–1.263) for $PM_{2.5} \leq 27.137 \,\mu g/m^3$ and 1.138 (1.032–1.254) for $27.137 < PM_{2.5} \leq 32.589 \,\mu g/m^3$. The risk of MS was significantly higher among current smokers, regardless of the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration. The ORs; 95% CIs were 1.605; 1.444–1.785, 1.561; 1.409–1.728, 1.359; 1.211–1.524; and 1.585; 1.418–1.772 for $PM_{2.5} \leq 27.137$, $27.137 < PM_{2.5} \leq 32.589$, $32.589 < PM_{2.5} \leq 38.205$, and $PM_{2.5} > 38.205 \,\mu g/m^3$, respectively.

Table 5 and Supplementary Figure S3 show the risk of MS according to cigarette smoking and $PM_{2.5}$ exposure. Compared to nonsmokers with low $PM_{2.5}$ exposure ($PM_{2.5} \le 27.137 \ \mu\text{g/m}^3$), the risk of MS was significantly higher in all the categories. Of note, the category comprising current smokers and $PM_{2.5} > 38.205 \ \mu\text{g/m}^3$ had the highest risk of MS (OR = 1.801, 95% CI = 1.625–1.995).

Discussion

Cigarette smoking and $PM_{2.5}$ have significant adverse effects on individual and public health. A systematic analysis of the global burden of disease ranked $PM_{2.5}$ and cigarette smoking among the ten leading causes of death and disability in 2015 (8). We evaluated the independent and joint association of both factors with MS in Taiwan Biobank volunteers. Smoking and $PM_{2.5}$ were independently associated with higher odds of MS. Moreover, both exposures were interactively associated with MS in a significant manner.

Cigarette smoking has been associated with CVD risk factors such as elevated heart rate, dyslipidemia, hyperinsulinemia, and glucose intolerance (15-17). In line with our study, several original studies and meta-analyses reported cigarette smoking as a metabolic syndrome-promoting factor (14-23, 31-33, 51). For instance, in a meta-analysis including 13 prospective studies, active smoking was positively associated with MS (51). In an original study, life-course cigarette smoking was associated with a higher risk of MS among Chinese, particularly those under 70 years (14). Moreover, a crosssectional study among Koreans below 40 years found a higher likelihood of MS in smokers than nonsmokers (33). Furthermore, a community-based study involving Taiwanese aged 40 years and above revealed a dose-dependent positive relationship of current smoking with MS and some of its components, including high TG and low HDL (22). In addition, a study among Japanese aged 35-65 also showed a higher incidence of MS among both current and former smokers (23). Another study among Japanese between 20 and 93 years found that the risk of MS in individuals who smoked over 40 cigarettes per day persisted even after 20 years of quitting (18). A cross-sectional study among male Korean former smokers aged at least 19 years showed a higher risk of MS, hypertriglyceridemia, and hyperglycemia among those who had smoked for over 20 years (32). Another cross-sectional among male Koreans aged over 20 years also showed a higher risk of MS among

TABLE 5 Risk of metabolic syndrome based on a combination of cigarette smoking and $PM_{2.5}$ exposure.

Variables	OR	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value
Cigarette smoking status and PM _{2.5} exposure			
Nonsmokers; PM _{2.5} ≤27.137 (ref.)	1		
Nonsmokers; 27.137 < PM _{2.5} ≤ 32.589	1.075	1.023-1.129	0.0043
Nonsmokers; 32.589 < PM _{2.5} ≤ 38.205	1.224	1.164-1.288	<0.0001
Nonsmokers; PM _{2.5} >38.205	1.190	1.132-1.250	<0.0001
Former smokers; PM _{2.5} ≤27.1374	1.155	1.051-1.270	0.0029
Former smokers; 27.137 < PM _{2.5} ≤ 32.589	1.194	1.091-1.307	0.0001
Former smokers; 32.589 < PM _{2.5} ≤ 38.205	1.248	1.132-1.376	<0.0001
Former smokers; PM _{2.5} >38.205	1.136	1.029-1.254	0.0114
Current smokers; PM _{2.5} ≤27.137	1.648	1.498-1.813	<0.0001
Current smokers; $27.137 < PM_{2.5} \le 32.589$	1.630	1.484-1.791	<0.0001
Current smokers; 32.589 < PM _{2.5} ≤ 38.205	1.758	1.583-1.953	<0.0001
Current smokers; PM _{2.5} >38.205	1.801	1.625-1.995	<0.0001
Sex			
Women (ref.)	1		
Men	0.966	0.931-1.004	0.0755
Age			
Age < 50 (ref.)	1		
$Age \ge 50$	2.277	2.191-2.367	<0.0001
BMI			
Normal weight (ref.)	1		
Underweight	0.084	0.057-0.124	<0.0001
Overweight	4.219	4.057-4.389	<0.0001
Obesity	13.239	12.714-13.786	<0.0001
Alcohol intake			
Nondrinkers (ref)	1		
Former drinkers	1.060	0.971-1.156	0.1929
Current drinkers	1.163	1.093-1.238	<0.0001
Exercise			
No (ref.)	1		
Yes	0.867	0.839-0.895	<0.0001
Marital status			
Married (ref.)	1		
Single	0.927	0.881-0.975	0.0033
Divorced or separated	1.097	1.038-1.158	0.0010
Widowed	1.178	1.098-1.264	<0.0001
Educational level			
Elementary school and below (ref.)	1		
Junior and senior high school	0.821	0.769–0.876	<0.0001
University and above	0.692	0.647-0.740	<0.0001
Secondhand smoke exposure			
No (ref)	1		
Yes	1.047	0.997-1.099	0.0638
Duration of residence			
<7.58 (ref.)	1		
7.58–17.58	1.064	1.017-1.114	0.0072
17.58–29.58	1.128	1.077-1.182	<0.0001
≥29.58	1.146	1.092-1.203	<0.0001

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; ref., reference; BMI, body mass index.

former and current smokers who smoked more than ten packs of cigarettes annually (31). In a cross-sectional study involving individuals of Western European ancestry, cigarette smoking was significantly linked to a higher prevalence of MS, regardless of BMI and sex (65). In the DESIR (Données Epidémiologiques sur le Syndrome d'Insulino-Résistance) study (a longitudinal study involving French), male smokers had a significantly higher risk of MS (66). In another longitudinal study in Norway, heavy smoking increased the incidence of MS in both men and women (13). Using the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) data, a study in the US found a lower risk of MS among normal weight and overweight men and women with no history of smoking (67).

The positive association of PM2.5 and MS in the current study is comparable to findings from previous studies (14–23, 31–33, 51). For example, exposure to PM_{2.5} exacerbated the risk of MS among Saudi adults (55) and Korean adults without CVDs (56). Moreover, several original studies found a positive relationship between longterm exposure to PM_{2.5} and MS in adult Chinese (25–27, 53, 54). A meta-analysis of observational studies revealed a borderline positive association between PM25 and MS (49). Exposure to PM25 has also been associated with an elevated risk of MS components, including high abdominal obesity (56), FBG (54-56, 68-70), high BP (55, 56, 71), and dyslipidemia (54, 56, 70). Analyses of data from the Heinz Nixdorf Recall (HNR) cohort study in Germany revealed a borderline positive association between PM_{2.5} and MS (57). A study in the US using data from the Normative Aging study found a significantly increased risk of MS due to increasing PM2.5 concentrations (70). Nonetheless, data from the Adolescent to Adult Health (Add Health) study (a longitudinal study in the US) showed no significant association between long-term PM_{2.5} exposure and MS (72).

In our study, the interaction of $PM_{2.5}$ and cigarette smoking on MS was significant. It is worth noting that the joint role of both exposures in MS pathogenesis has not received considerable attention. However, some studies investigated the joint role of PM and cigarette smoking on cardiovascular and pulmonary morbidity and mortality (59, 73– 75). For instance, Turner and colleagues (59) reported an increased risk of cardiovascular mortality (i.e., about 32 extra deaths per 100,000 person-years) due to smoking- $PM_{2.5}$ interaction. Even though a study on cardiovascular mortality found no interaction between $PM_{2.5}$ and smoking, current smokers with higher exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ had a high relative risk for mortality (76). Exposure to both smoking and $PM_{2.5}$ was associated with a relative excess risk of lung cancer mortality (74). Exposure to particulate matter, especially $PM_{2.5}$, was also significantly associated with a higher risk of cardio-cerebrovascular disease among nonsmokers (73).

The potential mechanisms underpinning the role of smoking and $PM_{2.5}$ on MS are unclear. Nonetheless, the available evidence points toward insulin resistance, induced oxidative stress, inflammation, and endothelial dysfunction. That is, smoking is believed to promote MS by inducing insulin resistance, reducing insulin sensitivity, and causing hyperglycemia, high blood pressure, hyperinsulinemia, oxidative stress, endothelial dysfunction, and systemic inflammation (15, 16, 77, 78). Air pollution, especially $PM_{2.5}$, enhances MS susceptibility by disrupting insulin signaling, inducing inflammation and oxidative stress (73, 79–82). Sung Kyun Park and colleagues (83) found that in MS patients, PM could particularly affect CVDs by causing cardiac autonomic dysfunction.

The current study has some limitations. First, we included only Taiwanese adults aged 30 and 70 who were enrolled in the TWB project. The restriction of enrolment to only Taiwanese within a specific age cohort is a possible source of selection bias. As such, our conclusions may not be generalizable to non-Taiwanese and Taiwanese outside the 30-70 age group. Second, we could not ascertain PM2.5 exposure at individual levels since data were obtained from fixed monitoring stations. The non-definitive ascertainment of smoking and PM_{2.5} exposures could have resulted in measurement error or information bias and consequently, wrong classification. Nonetheless, we believe that the misclassification could be nondifferential as it involved both cases and controls from a community-based cohort. The nondifferential misclassification could have resulted in the underestimation of MS risk. We recommend that the findings from this study should be replicated in other populations. Moreover, studies in Taiwan should consider including adults outside the 30-70 years age group. Furthermore, to get the actual effect of cigarette smoking on MS, future studies should consider the number of cigarettes smoked and determine the levels of cotinine (a biomarker of tobacco consumption).

Conclusion

Summarily, $PM_{2.5}$ and smoking were independently and interactively associated with a higher risk of MS. Stratified analyses revealed that cigarette smoking might have a much higher effect on MS than $PM_{2.5}$. After integrating smoking and $PM_{2.5}$ exposure in the same model, the risk of MS was highest among current cigarette smokers exposed to the highest level of $PM_{2.5}$. Quitting smoking could reduce the incidence of MS in individuals exposed to $PM_{2.5}$. As $PM_{2.5}$ could affect nonsmokers, targeting it could also be very beneficial in reducing the risk of MS in these individuals. To curb smoking, $PM_{2.5}$, and their adverse effects, the government could enforce stronger and more sustainable policies such as funding mass media campaigns on the dangers of environmental factors. The government could also provide incentives for smoking cessation treatments.

Data availability statement

The data analyzed in this study is subject to the following licenses/ restrictions: the data that support the findings of this study are available from Taiwan Biobank but restrictions apply to the availability of these data, which were used under license for the current study, and so are not publicly available. Data are, however available from the corresponding author, Y-PL upon reasonable request and with permission of Taiwan Biobank. Requests to access these datasets should be directed to Y-PL, Liawyp@csmu.edu.tw.

Ethics statement

The studies involving humans were approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the Chung Shan Medical University Hospital granted ethical approval for this study (IRB: CS1-20009). The studies were conducted in accordance with the local legislation and institutional requirements. The participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study.

Author contributions

H-HT, DT, WL, C-YC, and Y-PL did the literature search, conceived, and designed the study. WL and Y-PL analyzed the data. H-HT, DT, and C-YC drafted the manuscript. DT edited the paper. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

Funding

The Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST), Taiwan, funded this study (MOST 111-2121-M-040-002).

Acknowledgments

We gratefully acknowledge Chih-Da Wu for generously providing air pollution data, which significantly contributed to the research and findings presented in this paper. This collaboration was invaluable to the successful completion of our study. We are grateful to the professionals and students who provided enormous support in the recruitment and data collection

References

1. Rochlani Y, Pothineni NV, Kovelamudi S, Mehta JL. Metabolic syndrome: pathophysiology, management, and modulation by natural compounds. *Ther Adv Cardiovasc Dis.* (2017) 11:215–25. doi: 10.1177/1753944717711379

2. Huang PL. A comprehensive definition for metabolic syndrome. *Dis Model Mech.* (2009) 2:231–7. doi: 10.1242/dmm.001180

3. Alberti KG, Eckel RH, Grundy SM, Zimmet PZ, Cleeman JI, Donato KA, et al. Harmonizing the metabolic syndrome: a joint interim statement of the international diabetes federation task force on epidemiology and prevention; national heart, lung, and blood institute; American heart association; world heart federation; international atherosclerosis society; and international association for the study of obesity. *Circulation.* (2009) 120:1640–5. doi: 10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.109.192644

4. Eckel RH, Grundy SM, Zimmet PZ. The metabolic syndrome. Lancet. (2005) 365:1415-28. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(05)66378-7

5. Lee JA, Yoo JE, Park HS. Metabolic syndrome and incidence of breast cancer in middle-aged Korean women: a nationwide cohort study. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*. (2017) 162:389–93. doi: 10.1007/s10549-017-4131-x

6. Battelli MG, Bortolotti M, Polito L, Bolognesi A. Metabolic syndrome and cancer risk: the role of xanthine oxidoreductase. *Redox Biol.* (2019) 21:101070. doi: 10.1016/j. redox.2018.101070

7. O'Neill S, O'Driscoll L. Metabolic syndrome: a closer look at the growing epidemic and its associated pathologies. *Obes Rev.* (2015) 16:1–12. doi: 10.1111/obr.12229

8. Forouzanfar MH, Afshin A, Alexander LT, Anderson HR, Bhutta ZA, Biryukov S, et al. Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 79 behavioural, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks, 1990–2015: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease study 2015. *Lancet.* (2016) 388:1659–724. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(16)31679-8

9. Aguilar M, Bhuket T, Torres S, Liu B, Wong RJ. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in the United States, 2003-2012. *JAMA*. (2015) 313:1973–4. doi: 10.1001/jama.2015.4260

10. Guo H, Gao X, Ma R, Liu J, Ding Y, Zhang M, et al. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome and its associated factors among multi-ethnic adults in rural areas in Xinjiang, China. *Sci Rep.* (2017) 7:1–9. doi: 10.1038/s41598-017-17870-5

11. Kaur J. Assessment and screening of the risk factors in metabolic syndrome. *Med Sci.* (2014) 2:140–52. doi: 10.3390/medsci2030140

12. Baik I, Shin C. Prospective study of alcohol consumption and metabolic syndrome. *Am J Clin Nutr.* (2008) 87:1455–63. doi: 10.1093/ajcn/87.5.1455

of this study, and the participants who took the time to cooperate with the survey.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Publisher's note

All claims expressed in this article are solely those of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of their affiliated organizations, or those of the publisher, the editors and the reviewers. Any product that may be evaluated in this article, or claim that may be made by its manufacturer, is not guaranteed or endorsed by the publisher.

Supplementary material

The Supplementary material for this article can be found online at: https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpubh.2023.1234799/ full#supplementary-material

13. Wilsgaard T, Jacobsen BK. Lifestyle factors and incident metabolic syndrome: the Tromsø Study 1979–2001. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* (2007) 78:217–24. doi: 10.1016/j. diabres.2007.03.006

14. Wang J, Bai Y, Zeng Z, Wang J, Wang P, Zhao Y, et al. Association between lifecourse cigarette smoking and metabolic syndrome: a discovery-replication strategy. *Diabetol Metab Syndr*. (2022) 14:1–11. doi: 10.1186/s13098-022-00784-2

15. Reaven G, Tsao PS. Insulin resistance and compensatory hyperinsulinemia: the key player between cigarette smoking and cardiovascular disease? *J Am Coll Cardiol.* (2003) 41:1044–7. doi: 10.1016/S0735-1097(02)02982-0

16. Frati AC, Iniestra F, Ariza CR. Acute effect of cigarette smoking on glucose tolerance and other cardiovascular risk factors. *Diabetes Care*. (1996) 19:112–8. doi: 10.2337/diacare.19.2.112

17. Razay G, Heaton K. Smoking habits and lipoproteins in British women. QIM. (1995) 88:503-8. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.qjmed.a069093

18. Wada T, Urashima M, Fukumoto T. Risk of metabolic syndrome persists twenty years after the cessation of smoking. *Intern Med.* (2007) 46:1079–82. doi: 10.2169/ internalmedicine.46.0026

19. Kawada T, Otsuka T, Inagaki H, Wakayama Y, Li Q, Li YJ, et al. Association of smoking status, insulin resistance, body mass index, and metabolic syndrome in workers: a 1-year follow-up study. *Obes Res Clin Pract.* (2010) 4:e163–9. doi: 10.1016/j. orcp.2009.12.004

20. Nakanishi N, Takatorige T, Suzuki K. Cigarette smoking and the risk of the metabolic syndrome in middle-aged Japanese male office workers. *Ind Health.* (2005) 43:295–301. doi: 10.2486/indhealth.43.295

21. Miyatake N, Wada J, Kawasaki Y, Nishii K, Makino H, Numata T. Relationship between metabolic syndrome and cigarette smoking in the Japanese population. *Intern Med.* (2006) 45:1039–43. doi: 10.2169/internalmedicine.45.1850

22. Chen C-C, Li T-C, Chang P-C, Liu CS, Lin WY, Wu MT, et al. Association among cigarette smoking, metabolic syndrome, and its individual components: the metabolic syndrome study in Taiwan. *Metabolism.* (2008) 57:544–8. doi: 10.1016/j. metabol.2007.11.018

23. Ishizaka N, Ishizaka Y, Toda E-I, Hashimoto H, Nagai R, Yamakado M. Association between cigarette smoking, metabolic syndrome, and carotid arteriosclerosis in Japanese individuals. *Atherosclerosis*. (2005) 181:381–8. doi: 10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2005.01.026

24. Zhang J-S, Gui Z-H, Zou Z-Y, Yang BY, Ma J, Jing J, et al. Long-term exposure to ambient air pollution and metabolic syndrome in children and adolescents: a national

cross-sectional study in China. Environ Int. (2021) 148:106383. doi: 10.1016/j. envint.2021.106383

25. Yang B-Y, Qian ZM, Li S, Fan S, Chen G, Syberg KM, et al. Long-term exposure to ambient air pollution (including PM1) and metabolic syndrome: the 33 Communities Chinese Health Study (33CCHS). *Environ Res.* (2018) 164:204–11. doi: 10.1016/j. envres.2018.02.029

26. Wang Y, Liu F, Yao Y, Chen M, Wu C, Yan Y, et al. Associations of long-term exposure to ambient air pollutants with metabolic syndrome: the Wuhan Chronic Disease Cohort Study (WCDCS). *Environ Res.* (2022) 206:112549. doi: 10.1016/j. envres.2021.112549

27. Hou J, Liu X, Tu R, Dong X, Zhai Z, Mao Z, et al. Long-term exposure to ambient air pollution attenuated the association of physical activity with metabolic syndrome in rural Chinese adults: a cross-sectional study. *Environ Int.* (2020) 136:105459. doi: 10.1016/j.envint.2020.105459

28. Ezzati M, Lopez AD. Regional, disease specific patterns of smoking-attributable mortality in 2000. *Tob Control.* (2004) 13:388–95. doi: 10.1136/tc.2003.005215

29. Pan A, Wang Y, Talaei M, Hu FB. Relation of smoking with total mortality and cardiovascular events among patients with diabetes mellitus: a meta-analysis and systematic review. *Circulation.* (2015) 132:1795–804. doi: 10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.115.017926

30. Wang S, Chen J, Wang Y, Yang Y, Zhang D, Liu C, et al. Cigarette smoking is negatively associated with the prevalence of type 2 diabetes in middle-aged men with normal weight but positively associated with stroke in men. *J Diabetes Res.* (2019) 2019:1-8. doi: 10.1155/2019/1853018

31. Oh JE. Association between smoking status and metabolic syndrome in men. *Korean J Obes.* (2014) 23:99–105. doi: 10.7570/kjo.2014.23.2.99

32. Youn JA, Lee YH, Noh MS. Relationship between smoking duration and metabolic syndrome in Korean former smokers. *J Korean Soc Res Nicotine Tob*. (2018) 9:18–25. doi: 10.25055/JKSRNT.2018.9.1.18

33. Kim SW, Kim HJ, Min K, Lee H, Lee SH, Kim S, et al. The relationship between smoking cigarettes and metabolic syndrome: a cross-sectional study with non-single residents of Seoul under 40 years old. *PLoS One.* (2021) 16:e0256257. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0256257

34. Katano S, Nakamura Y, Nakamura A, Murakami Y, Tanaka T, Nakagawa H, et al. Relationship among physical activity, smoking, drinking and clustering of the metabolic syndrome diagnostic components. *J Atheroscler Thromb*. (2010) 17:644–50. doi: 10.5551/jat.3699

35. Yu S, Guo X, Yang H, Zheng L, Sun Y. An update on the prevalence of metabolic syndrome and its associated factors in rural Northeast China. *BMC Public Health*. (2014) 14:1–9. doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-14-877

36. Onat A, Özhan H, Esen AM, Albayrak S, Karabulut A, Can G, et al. Prospective epidemiologic evidence of a "protective" effect of smoking on metabolic syndrome and diabetes among Turkish women—without associated overall health benefit. *Atherosclerosis.* (2007) 193:380–8. doi: 10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2006.07.002

37. Borsi SH, Goudarzi G, Sarizadeh G, Dastoorpoor M, Geravandi S, Shahriyari HA, et al. Health endpoint of exposure to criteria air pollutants in ambient air of on a populated in Ahvaz City, Iran. *Front Public Health.* (2022) 10:869656. doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2022.869656

38. Abbasi-Kangevari M, Malekpour M-R, Masinaei M, Moghaddam SS, Ghamari SH, Abbasi-Kangevari Z, et al. Effect of air pollution on disease burden, mortality, and life expectancy in North Africa and the Middle East: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease study 2019. *Lancet Planet Health*. (2023) 7:e358–69. doi: 10.1016/ S2542-5196(23)00053-0

39. Faraji Ghasemi F, Dobaradaran S, Saeedi R, Nabipour I, Nazmara S, Ranjbar Vakil Abadi D, et al. Levels and ecological and health risk assessment of PM 2.5-bound heavy metals in the northern part of the Persian Gulf. *Environ Sci Pollut Res.* (2020) 27:5305–13. doi: 10.1007/s11356-019-07272-7

40. Moradi M, Mokhtari A, Mohammadi MJ, Hadei M, Vosoughi M. Estimation of long-term and short-term health effects attributed to PM 2.5 standard pollutants in the air of Ardabil (using air Q+ model). *Environ Sci Pollut Res.* (2022) 29:21508–16. doi: 10.1007/s11356-021-17303-x

41. Momtazan M, Geravandi S, Rastegarimehr B, Valipour A, Ranjbarzadeh A, Yari AR, et al. An investigation of particulate matter and relevant cardiovascular risks in Abadan and Khorramshahr in 2014–2016. *Toxin Rev.* (2018) 38:290–7. doi: 10.1080/15569543.2018.1463266

42. Khaefi M, Geravandi S, Hassani G, Yari AR, Soltani F, Dobaradaran S, et al. Association of particulate matter impact on prevalence of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in Ahvaz, Southwest Iran during 2009-2013. *Aerosol Air Qual Res.* (2017) 17:230–7. doi: 10.4209/aaqr.2015.11.0628

43. Tahery N, Zarea K, Cheraghi M, Hatamzadeh N, Farhadi M, Dobaradarn S, et al. Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and air pollution: a review. *Jundishapur J Chronic Dis Care*. (2021) 10:10. doi: 10.5812/jjcdc.110273

44. Effatpanah M, Effatpanah H, Jalali S, Parseh I, Goudarzi G, Barzegar G, et al. Hospital admission of exposure to air pollution in Ahvaz megacity during 2010–2013. *Clin Epidemiol Global Health*. (2020) 8:550–6. doi: 10.1016/j.cegh.2019.12.001 45. Dastoorpoor M, Sekhavatpour Z, Masoumi K, Mohammadi MJ, Aghababaeian H, Khanjani N, et al. Air pollution and hospital admissions for cardiovascular diseases in Ahvaz, Iran. *Sci Total Environ*. (2019) 652:1318–30. doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.10.285

46. Idani E, Geravandi S, Akhzari M, Goudarzi G, Alavi N, Yari AR, et al. Characteristics, sources, and health risks of atmospheric PM10-bound heavy metals in a populated middle eastern city. *Toxin Rev.* (2020) 39:266–74. doi: 10.1080/15569543.2018.1513034

47. Kioumourtzoglou M-A, Schwartz JD, Weisskopf MG, et al. Long-term PM2.5 exposure and neurological hospital admissions in the northeastern United States. *Environ Health Perspect.* (2016) 124:23–9. doi: 10.1289/ehp.1408973

48. Brook RD, Rajagopalan S, Pope CA III, Brook JR, Bhatnagar A, Diez-Roux AV, et al. Particulate matter air pollution and cardiovascular disease: an update to the scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. (2010) 121:2331–78. doi: 10.1161/CIR.0b013e3181dbece1

49. Zang S-T, Luan J, Li L, Wu QJ, Chang Q, Dai HX, et al. Air pollution and metabolic syndrome risk: evidence from nine observational studies. *Environ Res.* (2021) 202:111546. doi: 10.1016/j.envres.2021.111546

50. Woo KS, Kwok TCY, Chook P, Hu YJ, Yin YH, Lin C, et al. Independent effects of metabolic syndrome and air pollution (PM2. 5) on atherosclerosis in modernizing China. *AustinJPublicHealthEpidemiol.*(2021)doi:10.26420/austinjpublichealthepidemiol.2021.1097

51. Sun K, Liu J, Ning G. Active smoking and risk of metabolic syndrome: a metaanalysis of prospective studies. *PLoS One.* (2012) 7:e47791. doi: 10.1371/journal. pone.0047791

52. Ning J, Zhang Y, Hu H, Hu W, Li L, Pang Y, et al. Association between ambient particulate matter exposure and metabolic syndrome risk: a systematic review and metaanalysis. *Sci Total Environ*. (2021) 782:146855. doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.146855

53. Guo Q, Zhao Y, Xue T, Zhang J, Duan X. Association of PM2.5 and its chemical compositions with metabolic syndrome: a nationwide study in middle-aged and older Chinese adults. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* (2022) 19:14671. doi: 10.3390/ ijerph192214671

54. Zheng X-y, Tang S-l, Liu T, Wang Y, Xu XJ. Effects of long-term PM2.5 exposure on metabolic syndrome among adults and elderly in Guangdong, China. *Environ Health.* (2022) 21:1–11. doi: 10.1186/s12940-022-00888-2

55. Shamy M, Alghamdi M, Khoder MI, Mohorjy A, Alkhatim A, Alkhalaf A, et al. Association between exposure to ambient air particulates and metabolic syndrome components in a Saudi Arabian population. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. (2018) 15:27. doi: 10.3390/ijerph15010027

56. Lee S, Park H, Kim S, Lee EK, Lee J, Hong YS, et al. Fine particulate matter and incidence of metabolic syndrome in non-CVD patients: a nationwide population-based cohort study. *Int J Hyg Environ Health.* (2019) 222:533–40. doi: 10.1016/j. ijheh.2019.01.010

57. Matthiessen C, Lucht S, Hennig F, Ohlwein S, Jakobs H, Jöckel KH, et al. Longterm exposure to airborne particulate matter and NO2 and prevalent and incident metabolic syndrome-results from the Heinz Nixdorf recall study. *Environ Int.* (2018) 116:74–82. doi: 10.1016/j.envint.2018.02.035

58. Sheppard L, Burnett RT, Szpiro AA, Kim SY, Jerrett M, Pope CA III, et al. Confounding and exposure measurement error in air pollution epidemiology. *Air Qual Atmos Health*. (2012) 5:203–16. doi: 10.1007/s11869-011-0140-9

59. Turner MC, Cohen A, Burnett RT, Jerrett M, Diver WR, Gapstur SM, et al. Interactions between cigarette smoking and ambient PM2. 5 for cardiovascular mortality. *Environ Res.* (2017) 154:304–10. doi: 10.1016/j.envres.2017.01.024

60. Chen Q, Ma X, Geng Y, Liao J, Ma L. Association between smoking and hypertension under different PM2.5 and green space exposure: a nationwide cross-sectional study. *Front Public Health*. (2022) 10:1026648. doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2022.1026648

61. Purpose of Taiwan BioBank 2014 (2023). Available at: https://taiwanview.twbiobank.org.tw/index.)

62. Feng Y-CA, Chen C-Y, Chen T-T, Kuo PH, Hsu YH, Yang HI, et al. Taiwan biobank: a rich biomedical research database of the Taiwanese population. Cell. *Genomics*. (2022) 2:100197. doi: 10.1016/j.xgen.2022.100197

63. Fan C-T, Lin J-C, Lee C-H. Taiwan biobank: a project aiming to aid Taiwan's transition into a biomedical island. *Pharmacogenomics*. (2008) 9:235–46. doi: 10.2217/14622416.9.2.235

64. Wong P-Y, Su H-J, Lee H-Y, Chen YC, Hsiao YP, Huang JW, et al. Using land-use machine learning models to estimate daily NO2 concentration variations in Taiwan. *J Clean Prod.* (2021) 317:128411. doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.128411

65. Slagter SN, van Vliet-Ostaptchouk JV, Vonk JM, Boezen HM, Dullaart RPF, Kobold ACM, et al. Associations between smoking, components of metabolic syndrome and lipoprotein particle size. *BMC Med.* (2013) 11:1–15. doi: 10.1186/1741-7015-11-195

66. Geslain-Biquez C, Vol S, Tichet J, Caradec A, D'Hour A, Balkau B. The metabolic syndrome in smokers. The D.E.S.I.R. Study. *Diabetes Metab.* (2003) 29:226–34. doi: 10.1016/S1262-3636(07)70031-9

67. Zhu S, St-Onge M-P, Heshka S, Heymsfield SB. Lifestyle behaviors associated with lower risk of having the metabolic syndrome. *Metabolism*. (2004) 53:1503–11. doi: 10.1016/j.metabol.2004.04.017

68. Mazidi M, Speakman JR. Ambient particulate air pollution (PM2.5) is associated with the ratio of type 2 diabetes to obesity. *Sci Rep.* (2017) 7:9144. doi: 10.1038/ s41598-017-08287-1

69. Ma R, Zhang Y, Sun Z, Xu D, Li T. Effects of ambient particulate matter on fasting blood glucose: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Environ Pollut*. (2020) 258:113589. doi: 10.1016/j.envpol.2019.113589

70. Wallwork RS, Colicino E, Zhong J, Kloog I, Coull BA, Vokonas P, et al. Ambient fine particulate matter, outdoor temperature, and risk of metabolic syndrome. *Am J Epidemiol.* (2017) 185:30–9. doi: 10.1093/aje/kww157

71. Yang B-Y, Qian Z, Howard SW, Vaughn MG, Fan SJ, Liu KK, et al. Global association between ambient air pollution and blood pressure: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Environ Pollut*. (2018) 235:576–88. doi: 10.1016/j.envpol.2018.01.001

72. Bravo MA, Fang F, Hancock DB, Johnson EO, Harris KM. Long-term air pollution exposure and markers of cardiometabolic health in the National Longitudinal Study of adolescent to adult health (add health). *Environ Int*. (2023) 177:107987. doi: 10.1016/j. envint.2023.107987

73. Fiorito G, Vlaanderen J, Polidoro S, Gulliver J, Galassi C, Ranzi A, et al. Oxidative stress and inflammation mediate the effect of air pollution on cardio-and cerebrovascular disease: a prospective study in nonsmokers. *Environ Mol Mutagen*. (2018) 59:234–46. doi: 10.1002/em.22153

74. Turner MC, Cohen A, Jerrett M, Gapstur SM, Diver WR, Pope CA III, et al. Interactions between cigarette smoking and fine particulate matter in the risk of lung cancer mortality in Cancer prevention study II. *Am J Epidemiol.* (2014) 180:1145–9. doi: 10.1093/aje/kwu275

75. Puett RC, Schwartz J, Hart JE, Yanosky JD, Speizer FE, Suh H, et al. Chronic particulate exposure, mortality, and coronary heart disease in the nurses' health study. *Am J Epidemiol.* (2008) 168:1161–8. doi: 10.1093/aje/kwn232

76. Lepeule J, Laden F, Dockery D, Schwartz J. Chronic exposure to fine particles and mortality: an extended follow-up of the Harvard six cities study from 1974 to 2009. *Environ Health Perspect.* (2012) 120:965–70. doi: 10.1289/ehp.1104660

77. Rönnemaa T, Rönnemaa EM, Puukka P, Pyörälä K, Laakso M. Smoking is independently associated with high plasma insulin levels in nondiabetic men. *Diabetes Care.* (1996) 19:1229–32. doi: 10.2337/diacare.19.11.1229

78. Akter S, Goto A, Mizoue T. Smoking and the risk of type 2 diabetes in Japan: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Epidemiol.* (2017) 27:553–61. doi: 10.1016/j. je.2016.12.017

79. Haberzettl P, O'Toole TE, Bhatnagar A, Conklin DJ. Exposure to fine particulate air pollution causes vascular insulin resistance by inducing pulmonary oxidative stress. *Environ Health Perspect.* (2016) 124:1830–9. doi: 10.1289/EHP212

80. Miller MR. The role of oxidative stress in the cardiovascular actions of particulate air pollution. *Biochem Soc Trans.* (2014) 42:1006–11. doi: 10.1042/BST20140090

81. Wolf K, Popp A, Schneider A, Breitner S, Hampel R, Rathmann W, et al. Association between long-term exposure to air pollution and biomarkers related to insulin resistance, subclinical inflammation, and adipokines. *Diabetes.* (2016) 65:3314–26. doi: 10.2337/db15-1567

82. Xu M-X, Ge C-X, Qin Y-T, et al. 5 exposure elevates risk of oxidative stress-driven nonalcoholic fatty liver disease by triggering increase of dyslipidemia. *Free Radic Biol Med.* (2019) 130:542–56. doi: 10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2018.11.016

83. Park SK, Auchincloss AH, O'Neill MS, Prineas R, Correa JC, Keeler J, et al. Particulate air pollution, metabolic syndrome, and heart rate variability: the multiethnic study of atherosclerosis (MESA). *Environ Health Perspect*. (2010) 118:1406–11. doi: 10.1289/ehp.0901778