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MINI REVIEW

Uncertainty-Aware Machine Learning for Ambient Air-Pollution Exposure Surfaces in Biomedical Research: From Data Fusion to Neuroepidemiology-Ready Inference

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Abstract

Ambient air pollution remains a major, preventable driver of cardio metabolic and neurological disease burden. For biomedical studies, the central methodological bottleneck is not only prediction of pollutant concentrations, but trustworthy exposure assessment: leakage-safe validation, Uncertainty Quantification (UQ), transportable models in low-monitor regions, and transparent propagation of exposure uncertainty into health-effect estimates. This mini-review synthesizes recent advances in global and regional PM_{2.5} mapping, spatiotemporal deep learning, virtual monitoring stations, and gap-filling, and links these developments to the rapidly expanding evidence on dementia risk. We provide a practical checklist and worked calculations that translate modern Machine Learning (ML) exposure products into epidemiology-ready inputs.

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Keywords

- Air pollution
- Exposure modelling
- Machine learning
- Uncertainty quantification
- Spatiotemporal deep learning
- PM_{2.5}
- NO₂
- Dementia
- Epidemiology

Key Points (What Biomedical Reviewers Usually Look for)

- **Exposure surfaces:** ML models must be evaluated with *spatial* and *temporal* cross-validation that matches the target use (e.g., out-of-region prediction), not only random splits [1,2].
- **Uncertainty:** point predictions are insufficient; credible intervals (or full predictive distributions) are needed to propagate exposure error into health-effect inference [3].
- **Transportability:** hybrid “physics + ML” approaches and

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geophysical priors reduce degradation far from monitors.

- **Open data:** harmonized monitoring streams (e.g., OpenAQ) and standardized metadata improve reproducibility, but versioning and API changes must be documented [4].
- **Biomedical relevance:** recent systematic reviews and large cohorts support associations between long-term pollution exposure and incident dementia, motivating higher-resolution and better-validated exposure models [5–9].

Introduction (Why “ML for air quality” is Now a Biomedical Methods Topic)

The 2021 WHO Global Air Quality Guidelines substantially tightened recommended levels for key pollutants, including $PM_{2.5}$ (Annual mean $5\mu g/m^3$; 24-hour $15\mu g/m^3$) [10]. In Europe, updated indicators continue to report a large burden attributable to $PM_{2.5}$ exposures [2]. Regulatory tightening (e.g., the EU recast Ambient Air Quality Directive) and new accountability mechanisms (Including legal avenues for affected citizens) increase demand for transparent, uncertainty-aware evidence [11–15].

For biomedical research, the key deliverable is an exposure surface: a spatial–temporal field $x(s,t)$ that can be linked to participants by location history. Modern surfaces are typically produced by data fusion (Monitors + satellite AOD + chemical transport models + meteorology + land use) and increasingly by spatiotemporal deep learning [16–18]. However, an exposure model that minimizes mean squared error can still be *unsafe* for epidemiology if it leaks information across space/time, fails in low-monitor regions, or provides no UQ.

Core Definitions (Terms Used Consistently in This Paper)

- **Exposure surface $x(s,t)$:** Estimated pollutant concentration at location s and time t , aligned to the health-study time scale (Daily, monthly, annual).
- **Data fusion:** Combining multiple information sources (Monitors, satellites, CTMs, land-use predictors) to estimate $x(s,t)$ [18,19].
- **Spatial cross-validation:** Validation that withholds entire regions (or monitors) to test transportability; contrasts with random splits that can overestimate performance [1,2].
- **Uncertainty quantification (UQ):** Reporting predictive uncertainty (e.g., standard deviation $\sigma(s,t)$ or predictive intervals) and propagating it into downstream analyses [3].

What the Last Wave of Global $PM_{2.5}$ ML Mapping Changed (2019–2025)

Three trends dominate recent high-impact exposure modelling:

Global, long-term $PM_{2.5}$ fields with consistent methodology

High-resolution, long-term global $PM_{2.5}$ products now combine satellites, models, and monitors with statistical/ML layers, enabling decade-scale exposure assessment [16–18]. These surfaces are attractive for cohort studies because they offer wide coverage and consistent back-casting.

“Physics + ML” to improve low-monitor transportability

Purely data-driven models often degrade



far from monitors. Incorporating geophysical *a priori* estimates into deep learning explicitly targets this failure mode [1]. The implication for biomedical studies is straightforward: improved out-of-sample performance reduces differential exposure misclassification between urban (Monitor-rich) and rural (Monitor-sparse) participants.

Epidemiology-facing UQ and reproducibility

Methodological work increasingly emphasizes uncertainty-aware fusion and explicit validation protocols [3]. In parallel, open monitoring infrastructures facilitate reproducible pipelines, but only if API versions, licensing, and provenance are recorded [4,20].

Practical checklist for an epidemiology-ready ML exposure model

Table 1 summarizes failure modes that frequently trigger reviewer pushback.

Worked Examples / Calculations (With Sanity Checks)

Example 1: Exceedance probability using a predictive distribution

Suppose an ML surface provides, for a given day and location, a predictive mean μ and standard deviation σ for daily $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. To

estimate the probability of exceeding the WHO 24-hour guideline $g = 15\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, a simple (Often used) approximation is a normal predictive distribution:

$$P(\text{exceed}), \approx 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{g - \mu}{\sigma}\right) \quad (1)$$

where Φ is the standard normal CDF.

Numerical example (units and sanity check). Let $\mu = 12\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $\sigma = 4\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Then

$$z = \frac{g - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{15 - 12}{4} = 0.75, \quad P$$

(Exceed) $\approx 1 - \Phi(0.75) \approx 1 - 0.773 = 0.227$.

Sanity check: since $\mu < g$, exceedance probability should be < 0.5 ; 22.7% is plausible.

Example 2: Attenuation of a health-effect estimate by classical exposure error

Let the (Unobserved) true long-term exposure be X^* and the estimated exposure be $X = X^* + \varepsilon$ with independent noise ε . In classical measurement error, regression coefficients are attenuated approximately by

$$\lambda = \frac{\text{Var}(X^*)}{\text{Var}(X^*) + \text{Var}(\varepsilon)} \quad (2)$$

Thus, a “true” association β^* may be observed as $\beta \approx \lambda\beta^*$. This is a central motivation for UQ and transportability-focused modelling.

Numerical example. Assume between-person

Table 1: Epidemiology-ready checklist for ML exposure surfaces.

Item	What to report / do
Target time scale	Define t (daily / monthly / annual) and justify for disease latency (e.g., dementia: multi-year means) [5,6]
Spatial CV	Report region-holdout / monitor-holdout performance (Not only random CV) [1,2]
Uncertainty	Provide predictive intervals or distributions; show calibration (Coverage) [3]
Data provenance	Document monitoring sources and versions (e.g., OpenAQ v3; retired v1/v2 endpoints) [4]
Missingness	Describe gap-filling strategy for monitors/time series if used [25]
Non-stationarity	Address trend/drift (Policy changes, emissions shifts) in training/validation [18]
Leakage controls	Ensure no future data inform past predictions; avoid spatial “bleed” from nearby monitors in random splits [2]



long-term exposure variability $SD(X^*) = 6\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, so $\text{Var}(X^*) = 36$. If the exposure model has $\text{RMSE} \approx 3\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, a rough proxy is $\text{Var}(\varepsilon) \approx 9$. Then

$$\lambda = \frac{36}{36 + 9} = 0.80$$

Sanity check: better models (Smaller RMSE) increase λ toward 1, reducing attenuation.

Example 3: Monte Carlo propagation of exposure uncertainty into a Cox model

When an exposure surface provides (μ_p, σ_i) for participant i , a simple uncertainty-propagation workflow is:

1. For $m = 1, \dots, M$ draws, sample $X_i^{(m)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ (or use the model's predictive distribution).
2. Fit the health model (e.g., Cox) to each draw to obtain $\beta^{(m)}$.
3. Report the distribution of $\beta^{(m)}$ (mean, CI), separating *statistical* uncertainty from *exposure* uncertainty.

Why Dementia is a Compelling “biomedical endpoint” for ML Exposure Methods

The evidence base linking long-term ambient pollution to incident dementia has expanded rapidly in recent years. A 2025 systematic review and meta-analysis synthesized the growing observational literature [21], complementing earlier broad syntheses. Large cohort studies report associations between long-term $\text{PM}_{2.5}/\text{NO}_2$ exposure and dementia/Alzheimer's disease incidence. Mechanistically adjacent neurodegenerative outcomes are also being investigated; for example, a 2025 *Science* study reported links between long-term $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ exposures and Lewy body dementia.

For such endpoints, the methodological requirement is stronger than for short-latency outcomes: multi-year averaging, sensitivity

analyses to mobility, and robust out-of-region exposure prediction become essential. Hence, “physics + ML” transportability gains and UQ are not cosmetic features; they directly affect bias and interpretability.

Emerging Methods That Reviewers Now Expect You to Cite

Beyond global mapping, biomedical submissions increasingly cite:

- **Forecasting architectures** that couple decomposition + graph learning + sequence models (Useful for short-term health endpoints and operational warnings).
- **Virtual monitoring stations** that estimate concentrations in unmonitored locations using ML (Relevant when residential geocoding is fine-grained).
- **Gap-filling benchmarks** for incomplete monitoring time series (Important if you build local fusion models from raw monitors).
- **Map recovery / sparse sensing** concepts that formalize reconstruction from limited sensors.
- **Policy context** that motivates thresholds and public-health interpretation (WHO guidelines; EU Directive 2024/2881) [22–31].

Conclusion

Machine learning has shifted ambient air-pollution exposure assessment from coarse averages to high-resolution, global and regional surfaces. For biomedical research, the next bar is *trust*: spatially honest validation, calibrated uncertainty, and transparent propagation of exposure error into health models. These requirements align with regulatory tightening and a rapidly growing neuroepidemiology literature on dementia risk. A pragmatic path for



submissions in ML-focused biomedical journals is to present exposure modelling as an *inference pipeline* rather than a pure prediction task: data provenance (e.g., OpenAQ), transportability (Physics + ML), UQ, and sensitivity analyses that match the disease time scale.

Data Availability Statement

This mini-review used publicly accessible documentation and published literature. No new human subject data were collected.

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