

# GIS-Based Retrospective Air Pollution Exposure Estimation and Social-Environmental Interactions in Asthma Etiology

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#### Abstract

Disproportionate life stress and increased susceptibility to pollution has been proposed as a major pathway linking socioeconomic position, environmental exposures, and health disparities. We consider whether a chronic stressor [lifetime exposure to violence (ETV)] may increase susceptibility to traffic-related air pollution, in the etiology of childhood asthma.

GIS-based models were created to estimate residential exposures to traffic-related air pollution (NO<sub>2</sub>) for 413 children in a community-based pregnancy cohort. The model was calibrated using 19 years of monthly NO<sub>2</sub> data from 13 neighborhood sites. Merging pollution estimates with questionnaire data, we explore the independent and multiplicative contributions of social and environmental factors to childhood asthma.

Among children always living in the East Boston area, odds ratios indicate elevated risk of asthma with above-median NO<sub>2</sub> during the year of diagnosis (OR = 2.10 (95% CI = 1.16 to 3.81), which was greater among children with higher ETV (OR = 3.15 (1.69-5.87). Multivariate analyses correcting for maternal asthma, smoking, and education, child's age and sex indicate elevated risk of asthma with increasing NO<sub>2</sub> exposures solely among children with above-median ETV (adj OR = 2.71 (1.67 - 4.39). We find suggestive evidence of greater susceptibility to air pollution among children exposed to violence, with synergistic effects in asthma etiology.

# Introduction

The distinct gradient of socioeconomic position (SEP) on health may be explained, in part, by increased exposure to environmental pollution, and greater susceptibility to its effects. Air pollution, for instance, is higher along major roadways, near power plants and industrial sites, where property values are lower, and lower-income populations reside. In addition, higher life stress has been proposed as a primary pathway through which SEP impacts health. Chronic stress is hypothesized to impact health through two immune-related physiological pathways: (1) dysregulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical (HPA)-axis (and, relatedly, glucocorticoid resistance), and (2) the sympathetic-adrenalmedullary (SAM) axis. Together, these observations suggest that immune-altering social stressors, such as exposure to violence (ETV), may be higher in the same communities where pollution levels are higher, and lower-SEP populations may experience both greater exposures and reater susceptibility.

Social and physical environmental exposures are often spatially collinear, and both may impact the same physiological pathways (HPA-axis, SAM dyregulation, glucocorticoid resistance, oxidative stress) and health outcomes (i.e., respiratory and cardiovascular disease), there is a call for stronger methods to disentangle their effects and investigate synergies. Here, we consider one chronic urban stressor, witnessing violence, and investigate its potential to increase susceptibility to traffic-related air pollution in the etiology of childhood asthma.

# Methods

This paper is developed in two parts:

(1) GIS-based retrospective model to estimate exposures to primary traffic-related ai pollution at cohort homes, using the predictive model:

 $[NO_2]_{ii} = \beta_{1i} Year_i + \beta_2 (traffic_i) + \beta_3 (land use_i) + e_{ii}$ (Equation 1)

Where Year, is sampling year, traffic, is a suite of traffic density characteristics (Table 1), derived from Massachusetts Highway Department (MHD) 1990 traffic data, land use variables from 2000 U.S. Census and aerial photography. Spatial variables were created in ArcGIS 9.1, models in Proc GLM in SAS Version 9.1. Within-site autocorrelation was examined; comparable model results were achieved with random effects.

(2) epidemiologic analyses focusing on multiplicative effects between violence and air pollution exposure in the etiology of asthma.

logit [asthma diagnosis] =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1^*$ age +  $\beta_2^*$ sex +  $\beta_3^*$ maternal smoking +  $\beta_4^*$ maternal education +  $\beta_5^*$ [NO2] +  $\beta_6^*$ [[NO2] \* High RaschETV] + e (Equation 2)

The Rasch ETV score indicates lifetime exposure to violence using the My Child's ETV Scale, which asks, "Has your child witnessed any of the following: Slapping, kicking, punching? A stabling? A shooting? Heard gun shots? Verbal or physical abuse by your partner?" An Empirical Bayesian model weighed events by frequency, severity (i.e., extent of injury), and child's familiarity with victim / perpetrator (Franco Suglia 2006).



Figure 2: Annual averages in NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (ppb) across 13 neighborhood sampling sites.

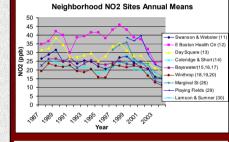


Table 1: Traffic Indicators explored as predictors of monthly NO2 concentrations at sampling sites and cohort homes

Indicator type	Indicator	Units
Cumulative densities:	Unweighted density within: 50, 100, 200, 300, 500m	Vehicle-miles/ day-m <sup>2</sup>
	Kernel-weighted density: 50, 100, 200, 300, 500m	Vehicle-miles/ day-m <sup>2</sup>
	Density of urban roads ( > 8500) within 200m	Vehicle-miles/ day-m <sup>2</sup>
Summary measures:	Total roadway length within: 50, 100, 200, 300, 500m	Miles
	Total ADT*Length (VMT) within 200m	Vehicle- miles/day
Distance-based measures	Distance to nearest urban road (>8500 cars/day)	Meters
	To nearest major road (>13,000 cars/day)	Meters
	To nearest highway (>19,000 cars/day)	Meters
	To nearest MHD-designated truck route	Meters
Characteristics of nearest major road:	Average daily traffic (ADT)	Vehicles/day
	ADT/ Distance to major road	(Vehicles/day) /meter
	Diesel fraction	Percent (%)
	Trucks per day	Vehicles/ day
	Trucks/ Distance to major road	(Vehicles/day) / meter

Table 2: NO <sub>2</sub> model for annual average concentration (ppb at 13 sampling sites. Reference year is 2004.				
	Overall (R <sup>2</sup> = 0.83) Estimate (p-value)			
Intercept	10.64 (<.0001)			
Year (categorical) 1990  1997	(<.0001) 13.48  12.01			
Distance to Major Road (>13,000 cars/day)	-1.27*10 <sup>-3</sup> (<.0001)			
Kernel traffic density within 500m (VMT/day)	0.0434 (<.0001)			
Population Density (persons/ km <sup>2</sup> )	1.086*10 <sup>-4</sup> (<.0001)			

#### Figure 3: NO<sub>2</sub> Estimates at cohort homes



Table 3: NO<sub>2</sub> on Asthma diagnosis, by exposure period

Measure for

Asthmatic

child

ear of birth

to diagnosis

First 5 years of

Mean exposure

Year of ETV, to

diagnosis

diagnosis

One year prior to

diagnosis

Year of birth

life

1997

lear of

Measure for

Year of birth

(same)

(same)

(same)

non-asthmatic

through follow-up

Year of ETV to

end of follow-up

One year prior to

(yr of birth + 5 yr)

Year of birth + 5 yr 1.10

Odds Ratio

1.06

0.98

0 99

1.004

1.08

(median diag age) (1.02, 1.18) (.01)

1 06

(95% CI) (p-val)

(.96, 1.17) (.24)

(.90, 1.07) (.65)

(.91, 1.08) (.80)

(.93, 1.09) (.92)

(.98, 1.18) (.11

(.96, 1.16) (.25)

Period of

Lifecourse,

Interest

to Diagnosis

Year of birth

First 5 vears

Date of ETV

questionnair

Retween FTV

& diagnosis

Year of

diagnosis

One year prior

to diagnosis

# Results

Univariate analyses for the full cohort show elevated odds of asthma with abovemedian NO<sub>2</sub> exposures, but no independent effect of ETV. Both exposures metrics are likely more accurate for children always living in the East Boston area; among these children, we find an independent effect of NO<sub>2</sub> on diagnosis, which was greater with above-median ETV. Multivariate logistic regression accounting for confounders indicates elevated odds of asthma with increasing NO<sub>2</sub> only among children with high ETV, with a significant difference in slopes by ETV (p=.03). For lifetime residents, odds of developing asthma increased with NO<sub>2</sub> only among those with high ETV, also a significant difference.

	Low NO <sub>2</sub>	High NO <sub>2</sub>		dds of asthma TV, entire coh	a diagnosis by lort (n=413)	
Low ETV	22/ 69 = <b>0.32</b>	29/ 80 = <b>0.36</b>	$ \begin{array}{l} \text{OR} \mbox{ (High ETV)} &= 1.04 \mbox{ (0.67, 1.61)} \mbox{ (p=.87)} \\ \text{OR} \mbox{ (High NO_2)} &= 1.71 \mbox{ (1.09, 2.68)} \mbox{ (p=.02)} \\ \text{OR} \mbox{ (High NO_2, High ETV)} &= 1.84 \mbox{ (1.12, 3.01)} \mbox{ (p=.02)} \\ \end{array} $			
High ETV	19/ 93 = <b>0.20</b>	34/ 64 = <b>0.53</b>				
Table 5: Odds of asthma diagnosis by NO₂ and ETV, among 258 children		У	Low NO <sub>2</sub>	High NO <sub>2</sub>		
always living in East Boston/ Winthro OR (High ETV) = 1.35 (0.76, 2.40) (p=.31)		PP Low ETV	12/ 42 = <b>0.29</b>	15/ 57 = <b>0.26</b>		
OR (High NO2) = 2.10 (1.16, 3.81) (p=.01) OR (High NO2, High ETV) = 3.15 (1.69, 5.87) (p=.0003)			High ETV	8/ 58 = <b>0.14</b>	26/ 33 = <b>0.79</b>	
Table 6: Odds ratios from multivariate analysis in Proc Logistic. $NO_2$ during year of diagnosis is a continuous centered predictor, with SD = 1.0.						
		Full cohort (413 children (26% prev)) Adj OR (95% Cl) (p-val)		Lifetime residents (255 children (25% prev)) Adj OR (95% Cl) (p-val)		
Matern Asth		1.26 (.59, 2.84)	p = .58	0.80 (.25, 1.6	69) p = .70	
In-utero tobac	-	1.04 (.43, 2.53)	p = .93	1.79 (.51, 6.3	33) p = .36	
Matern smok		1.15 (.73, 1.80)	p = .56	0.88 (.46, 1.6	69) p = .69	
Educat (Less	ion than HS)	1.11 (.70, 1.77)	p = .66	1.14 (.61, 2.1	14) p = .67	
Child's (ferr		0.87 (.56, 1.38)	p = .56	0.62 (.34, 1.1	14) p = .11	
Child's (7+ ye	•	1.23 (.77, 1.98)	p = .38	1.10 (.57, 2.1	10) p = .78	
NO <sub>2</sub> : Low		1.08 (.79, 1.47)		0.92 (0.62, 1	· ·	
NO <sub>2</sub> :		1.82 (1.27, 2.61)	p = .62	2.71 (1.67, 4	p = .68	
	ETV	,	p =.001	2.71 (1.07, 4	.39) p< .0001	

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