**ASSOCIATION OF TRAFFIC AND RELATED AIR POLLUTANTS ON CARDIORESPIRATORY RISK FACTORS FROM LOW-INCOME POPULATIONS IN EL PASO, TX**



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Center for Advancing Research in **Transportation Emissions, Energy, and Health A USDOT University Transportation Center** 



Georgia College of<br>Tech Engineering





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## **TECHNICAL REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE**



15. Supplementary Notes

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#### 16. Abstract

The health effects of air pollution from outdoor environments are of great concern due to the high exposure risk even at relatively low concentrations of air pollutants. Traffic emissions from the El Paso–Ciudad Juarez border crossings make up a sizable portion of the mobile vehicle emissions in El Paso, TX. This project aimed to integrate air quality and traffic data with large epidemiological study results conducted in the El Paso region, and to develop associations between cardiorespiratory outcomes and traffic-related data (air quality and traffic-related activities).

The findings showed respiratory functions could be affected by exposures to various pollutants in previous hours regardless of the wide variations in participants' metabolic syndrome (MetS) factors. Short-term average exposures of pollutant concentrations of particulate matter less than 2.5 micrometers in diameter ( $PM_{2,5}$ ) prior to the participants' health monitoring were negatively associated with spirometry measures such as forced expiratory volume. Logistic regression modeling found that  $PM_{2.5}$  increased likelihoods of high waist circumference and high glucose. Also, increasing nitrogen dioxide (NO2) concentration was associated with high waist circumference for all exposure periods and high glucose for 72-hr exposure. The likelihood of having MetS closely correlated with increasing 96-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>, while the odds of having MetS showed associations with decreasing ozone.

Land-use regression models were performed for modeling the spatial variation of MetS based on the significant transportation predictors. The street length within 500 m and vehicle miles traveled have shown to be important traffic predictors to find relationships with lung function. As the total length of street within zones of impact increases, the risks of a high waist circumference, high triglycerides, and low high-density lipoprotein cholesterol were observed. The inverse of the distance to the nearest port of entry was associated with increases in fasting glucose. The increasing likelihood of MetS was also related to the increased street length within 500 m radius zones to each participant's residential address.

The dissemination of these results can lead to decision making and improve policy related to healthy living in communities close to busy roadways.



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## **Executive Summary**

#### **Problem Statement**

People with lower income are more likely to live in communities with higher pollution levels from traffic-related emissions. Traffic-related air emissions have been reported to have strong association with urban air pollution and cause adverse respiratory health effects in near-road communities. Transportation parameters such as traffic density, vehicle miles traveled, and road length, as well as land-use data such as population density, land-use classification, proximity to heavy-traffic roads, distances to major point and area sources, and household income, are important variables for explaining a spatial variation of air quality and health outcomes. However, studies of long-term exposure to traffic-related pollutants with cardiovascular risk factors are less common, and findings remain mixed. None of these studies have been conducted in a border region while considering both cardiovascular and respiratory outcomes.

### **Technical Objectives**

A large health study has been conducted in the El Paso, TX, region in the past five years, collecting data for cardiorespiratory risk from approximately 5,000 participants living in low-income communities. First-year data of health screenings including airway inflammation and lung function measurements were also used to examine the effects of short- and long-term pollution exposure on respiratory health outcomes.

Data extraction and cleanup were performed on participants' home addresses to extract latitude and longitude coordinates. Air quality and meteorological data were acquired from the Texas Commission on Environmental Quality's continuous air monitoring stations including hourly air pollutant data of particulate matter (PM) (including PM less than 2.5 micrometers in diameter  $[PM_{2.5}]$  and PM less than 10 micrometers in diameter  $[PM_{10}]$ ), nitrogen dioxide (NO2), and ozone (O3). Time-integrated air pollutant exposure data of 24-, 48-, 72-, and 96-hr averages were processed for each subject.

The spatially distributed traffic-related and land-use variables were acquired from the El Paso Metropolitan Planning Organization, the U.S. Census Bureau, and the U.S. Geologic Survey. Two impact zones were established to have radii of 500 m and 1,000 m centered at each participant's address. Data were extracted for the two zones based on the latitude and longitude coordinates of the participant's residence using geographic information system (GIS) mapping.

R code was developed to draw the information from short- and long-term pollution datasets and deliver an average value of pollutant exposure relative to a participant's date of assessment. The land-use regression (LUR) technique was applied to explore the associations between a set of spatially distributed metabolic syndrome (MetS) risk factors collected from 5,000 low-income participants and the transportation and land-use predictors.

#### **Key Findings**

Researchers established the following short-term association between cardiorespiratory health outcomes (lung function, inflammation, and MetS risk factors) and traffic-related air pollutants (PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub>) in residents of low-income communities of El Paso, TX:

- The forced expiratory volume during one second (FEV<sub>1</sub>) was negatively correlated with average concentration levels of PM2.5 (24/48/96 hr).
- Negative associations between  $FEV_1/f$ orced vital capacity and 96-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub>/24-hr NO<sub>2</sub>/96-hr NO<sub>2</sub> were also observed.
- MetS risk factors, such as waist circumference, high-density lipoprotein (HDL), and fast blooding glucose, were associated with pollutant measurements.
- Waist circumference, in particular, for females is a significant factor showing strong relationships with PM2.5 and NO<sup>2</sup> for all exposure periods.
- Increasing  $PM_{2.5}$  and NO<sub>2</sub> concentration was also associated with increasing likelihood of a high waist circumference.
- A significant relationship between 96-hr averaged  $O<sub>3</sub>$  and HDL was observed.
- The increase in 24-/48-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> were significantly associated with an increase in the box-cox transformed fasting blood glucose scale. Higher likelihood of having high glucose was associated with increased PM concentrations.
- The MetS classification based on the combination of five risk factors showed significant associations with  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ , NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub>.

Researchers established the following long-term association between cardiorespiratory health outcomes (lung function, inflammation, and MetS risk factors) and spatial transportation data for residents of low-income communities of El Paso, TX:

- The length of the street within the 500-m impact zone has shown to be an important traffic predictor for lung function (peak expiratory flow [PEF] and the best result interpreted by the spirometry software (CareFusion Spirometry PC Software™ 36-SPC1000-STK) for PEF [PEF Best].
- The increase in pulse pressure was associated with the amount of traffic within a 500-m radius and the proximity to the nearest port of entry (POE).
- The increase in the inverse of the distance squared to the POE, which implies a decrease in the distance to the POE, was significantly associated with an increase in fasting glucose.
- The most significant predictor in the LUR models of MetS risk factors was the total length of the street within a 500-m radius.
- The increase in the street length associated with increasing waist circumference and triglycerides and decreasing HDL cholesterol.
- As the total length of the street increases, the risks of a large waist circumference, high triglycerides, and low HDL cholesterol were observed.
- The increasing likelihood of MetS was also related to the increased street length within 500 m.

#### **Project Impacts**

Researchers found associations between cardiorespiratory outcomes and traffic-related data for both air quality and traffic-related activities. Aside from the participants receiving their screening results, this project provides relevant air quality information to the participants. Spatial variations of environmental and traffic-related data were informed for the defined impact zones (500 m and 1,000 m). In parallel, this project integrated health outcome data into a GIS map. A predicted map of MetS was produced to show the prediction of the spatial distribution of MetS outcome in El Paso, TX. The dissemination of results can lead to decision making and improve policy related to healthy living in communities close to busy roadways. The research team envisions providing education regarding the detrimental effects of air pollution, which can be combined with the Healthy Living and Traffic-Related Air Pollution initiative to improve participants' health.

## **Acknowledgments**

This research conducted a secondary data analysis that includes low-income participants from El Paso, TX. The participants were recruited as part of an epidemiological study titled Evidence-Based Screening for Obesity, Cardiorespiratory Disease, and Environmental Exposures in Low-Income El Paso Households, funded by the City of El Paso's Department of Public Health.

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## <span id="page-13-0"></span>**Background and Introduction**

## <span id="page-13-1"></span>**Introduction**

Air pollution is caused by different pollutants in the atmosphere that can harm living organisms and the natural environment. The health effects of air pollution from outdoor environments are of great concern due to the high exposure risk even at relatively low concentrations of air pollutants (Kim et al., 2015). People living in areas with higher exposure to air pollution compared to those in less polluted areas were more likely to die, and stronger associations were found with cardiorespiratory deaths (Dockery et al., 1993; Pope et al., 1995). Several scientific publications have outlined how exposure to these particles is a source of various health problems including heart and lung disease, irregular heartbeat, aggravated asthma, decreased lung function, and increased respiratory symptoms (Atkinson et al., 2010; Cadelis et al., 2014; Correia et al., 2013).

In addition, air pollution may promote the development of several cardiovascular risk factors (e.g., elevated lipids and blood pressure) and lead to type-2 diabetes (Bowe et al., 2018; Pope et al., 2015; Rao et al., 2015). Suggested mechanisms for this interaction include alteration in pathways for control of adipose tissue, the presence of particles in the systemic circulation, release of inflammatory mediators, and the effects on glucose metabolism (Rao et al., 2015; Wellen and Hotamisligil, 2003; Xu et al., 2003). In recent decades, many cardiorespiratory biomarkers have been identified and studied in relation to air pollution exposure (Rom et al., 2013). Even if not all biomarkers are in the causal pathway for development of a disease, they can be considered valuable indices of a change in disease risk of air pollution exposure (Thurston et al., 2017).

Exhaled nitric oxide (eNO) is considered a biomarker of airway/lung inflammation, which is an important determinant of asthma and other lung diseases (Trachsel et al., 2008). eNO measurements have been adopted in large epidemiological studies to elucidate the negative impacts of air pollution on pulmonary inflammation in asthmatic children (Delfino et al., 2006; Holguin et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2009). An elevated eNO value indicates airway inflammation, which translates to an increase in inflammatory processes such as asthma (Holguin et al., 2007; Steerenberg et al., 2003). Lung function measurements are assessed by considering the expiratory flow rate in the amount of time required for a person to exhale. Lung function is usually assessed in terms of forced vital capacity (FVC), forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV<sub>1</sub>), peak expiratory flow (PEF), and forced expiratory flow during the two interior quartiles of exhalation (FEF25-75%) (Hankinson et al., 1999).

Metabolic syndrome (MetS) is a known precursor of cardiovascular disease, hypertension, and type-2 diabetes (Chen and Schwartz, 2008), and consists of a group of five risk factors:

- Excess abdominal fat.
- High blood pressure (BP).
- High triglyceride (TG) levels.
- Low high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol (called good cholesterol) levels.
- High fasting glucose.

Having three or more of these risk factors results in a classification of MetS, which, in itself, is a risk factor for cardiovascular disease, diabetes, hypertension, and dyslipidemia (abnormal lipids). The high prevalence and increasing number of U.S. adults (34 percent) with MetS has become a public health concern that presents a great challenge to health care (Mozumdar and Liguori, 2011).

Traffic-related pollutants include particulate matter (PM) (including PM less than 2.5 micrometers in diameter [PM2.5] and PM less than 10 micrometers in diameter [PM10]), nitrogen dioxide (NO2), and ozone (O3). A recent review indicated air pollution from traffic sources is a major preventable cause of respiratory disease (Laumbach and Kipen, 2012). Previous studies have linked the short-term effects of traffic-related pollutants to respiratory

outcomes such as airway inflammation and decreased lung function (Barraza-Villarreal et al., 2008; Holguin et al., 2007). For example, eNO is an important determinant of respiratory outcomes and disease (Trachsel et al., 2008). Also, lung function can be affected by exposure to air pollutants in healthy adults and those with a preexisting lung disease (Paulin and Hansel, 2016). Moreover, a repeated-measures study found negative associations between daily variations in ambient air pollution and lung function measured by spirometry (Panis et al., 2017).

Furthermore, there is also evidence of a relationship between air pollutant and cardiovascular outcomes. Works by Zanobetti and Schwartz (2005, 2007) showed that yearly average concentrations of PM have been associated with higher hospitalization risks, congestive heart failure, and recurrent heart attack among patients with previous myocardial infarction. Additional studies have looked at the effects of traffic-related air pollutants with components related to MetS, a predictor of cardiovascular disease, which include waist circumference, BP, TG, HDL cholesterol, fasting glucose, and other related factors (low-density lipoproteins [LDL] cholesterol and glycated hemoglobin [HbA1c]) (Clementi et al., 2019).

#### <span id="page-14-0"></span>**Short-Term Air Pollution Exposure Assessments**

Research on the short-term effects of exposure to air pollutants, such as PM,  $O_3$ , and NO<sub>2</sub>, has linked them with cardiorespiratory mortality as well (Rückerl et al., 2011). A recent metanalysis suggested that short-term exposure to some air pollutants may increase the risk of hypertension (Cai et al., 2016). Some studies have used time-series or cross-sectional analyses to report associations between elevated air pollutant concentrations over short periods of time (one day or several days) and increased cardiovascular mortality and morbidity (Pope and Dockery, 2006).

However, the precise window of exposure for some biomarkers is not clearly defined and differs by study. Chuang et al. (2010) applied mixed models to examine the associations between air pollutants, BP, and blood biochemistry markers. The exposure variables included levels of PM,  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , and  $O<sub>3</sub>$  on the same day (24-hr average) and 48- to 144-hr averages before the day of the health measurements, which included systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP), HDL cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, fasting glucose, and HbA1c (Chuang et al. 2010). Bell et al. (2017) estimated exposure of ambient PM2.5 based on the participant's residential address and used short-term averaging periods on the day of blood draw, the day before, and a moving average of the previous five days with HDL cholesterol measures. One study assigned a daily exposure measure from the monitor nearest to the participant's residence with available data for a given day, and constructed five exposure measures: PM2.5 concentration the day before measurement, and average concentrations over the two, seven, 30, and 60 days prior to measurement using MetS as a modifying factor (Park et al., 2010).

Also, the models used to associate air pollution exposure with cardiorespiratory outcomes vary across studies. For example, a study among patients with type-2 diabetes in China considered spline and multiple linear regressions to determine associations between short-term exposure to PM<sub>10</sub>, sulfur dioxide, NO<sub>2</sub> with total cholesterol (TC), TG, LDL cholesterol, and high HDL cholesterol (Wang et al., 2018). A study in Mexican Americans used short-term exposure considering up to 58 days of cumulative daily averages of PM2.5 to find associations with lower insulin sensitivity; HDL-to-LDL ratio; and higher fasting glucose and insulin, TC, and LDL cholesterol using log transformations (Chen et al., 2016).

### <span id="page-14-1"></span>**Long-Term Air Pollution Exposure Assessments**

Over the last three decades, large cohort studies have found associations of long-term exposures to air pollutants with increased mortality (Dockery et al., 1993; Pope et al., 1995). Highways and roadways are major sources of air pollutants because of vehicle traffic, which can negatively affect surrounding communities. People with lower income are more likely to live in communities with higher pollution levels from traffic-related air pollution, which in turn can be considered an environmental justice issue (Brulle and Pellow, 2006; Cushing et al., 2015).

Examples of traffic-related air pollutants include  $PM_{2.5}$  and  $PM_{10}$ , NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub>, which pose a risk for cardiorespiratory diseases. Hoek et al. (2013) summarized the effect of long-term exposure to PM and NO<sub>2</sub> on mortality from cardiovascular and respiratory diseases in epidemiological studies, and concluded participants with lower education and obesity had a larger effect estimate for mortality related to fine PM (Hoek et al., 2013). There is also increasing evidence of associations between increased long-term exposure to traffic-related air pollutants with lung function decline in children (Barone-Adesi et al., 2015) and adults (Rhee et al., 2019), as well as attenuation of this decline with reductions in air pollution exposure (Downs et al., 2007). Therefore, identifying zones of increased air pollution exposure can add knowledge to improve the environmental conditions of those living in at-risk areas.

#### <span id="page-15-0"></span>**Limitations of Continuous Ambient Monitoring Stations**

Located on the U.S.-Mexico border, El Paso, TX, has 12 continuous ambient monitoring stations (CAMSs) monitored by the Texas Commission of Environmental Quality (TCEQ) that measure air pollutants. However, few are equipped to measure all the traffic-related pollutants (PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub>), which limits the quantification of air pollutant concentrations at some near-road communities. While previous studies in the region have focused on areas surrounding major highways in the city (Raysoni et al., 2011, 2013), near-road studies for areas farther north of the border are scarce. Furthermore, TCEQ monitoring sites are limited in offering a deep inquiry of the levels of air pollution in El Paso communities.

Other large studies have established the long-term effects of air pollution exposure with respiratory outcomes considering the effect of PM10, PM2.5, and NO<sup>2</sup> on lung function using spirometry measures (Köpf et al., 2017). However, long-term studies that consider metabolic factors related to cardiovascular health are less common, and findings remain mixed. A study of Mexican Americans was unable to find long-term associations with metabolic outcomes such as glucose and insulin resistance using spatial interpolation from air quality monitors (Chen et al., 2016). However, another study assessed the long-term effects of air pollution using land-use multivariable linear regression models to estimate the effects with glucose, insulin, HbA1c, and C-reactive protein levels (Wolf et al., 2016). The results suggested an association between long-term exposure to air pollution and insulin resistance.

#### <span id="page-15-1"></span>**Incorporation of Geographical Information in Models**

A review of 157 studies using various exposure methods concluded that future research would benefit from hybrid models combining the strengths of air pollution exposure assessments and geographic information system (GIS) technologies (Zou et al., 2009). Some studies have shown consistent associations between near-roadway air pollution and cardiorespiratory diseases using traffic density and proximity to roadways (Gan, Koehoorn, et al., 2010; Gan, Tamburic, et al., 2010; Jiang et al., 2016; Kan et al., 2008). Furthermore, Bell et al. (2017) used a hierarchical spatiotemporal model considering traffic-related air pollutant seasonal trends, long-term pollutant averages, and land-use regression. They estimated average pollutant concentrations at each participant's home location during the year of the baseline exam, as well as three months and two weeks prior to each participant's baseline exam. Furthermore, geographic covariates such as distance to roadway and land-use characteristics were used in the universal models to improve prediction (Bell, 2017).

However, none of these studies have been conducted in a border region while considering both cardiovascular and respiratory outcomes. Data modeling of traffic and air quality data associated with the cardiorespiratory factors would allow a better understanding of the impact of these environmental factors on cardiorespiratory health. Therefore, researchers used spatial traffic-related variables to explore the relationship with cardiorespiratory health measures collected in the community.

#### <span id="page-15-2"></span>**Pollution Exposure and Health Outcomes in El Paso, TX**

El Paso, TX, meets National Ambient Air Quality Standards for  $NO_2$ ,  $PM_{2.5}$ , and  $O_3$ ; the 2015  $O_3$  standard is currently pending. However, El Paso's desert setting makes attainment of PM<sub>10</sub> standards difficult and has led to its

nonattainment classification. The Paso del Norte air basin is shared by El Paso, TX; Ciudad Juarez, Chihuahua; and Las Cruces, NM. Traffic emissions from the El Paso–Ciudad Juarez border crossings make up a sizable portion of the mobile vehicle emissions in El Paso.

Previous studies have attempted to characterize the air pollution trends in the Paso del Norte air basin. Industrial sources, meteorological conditions, and topography were determined to cause variation in the concentration of air pollutants in the region (Noble et al., 2003). Li et al. (2001) characterized the temporal and spatial variations, along with the composition of PM. PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> were found to increase during the winter months. A study conducted in 2010 across four schools found that PM<sub>10</sub> was greater in the area near I-10 and the El Paso–Ciudad Juarez border highway (Raysoni et al., 2011). Also, NO<sub>2</sub> has been found to be predominate in central El Paso with lower values in east and west. A winter pilot study showed significant variability in NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations across El Paso where NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations decreased as elevation increased (Gonzalez et al., 2005).

A large health effect study has been under way in the El Paso region for the past five years that has involved collecting data for cardiorespiratory risk factors in almost 5,000 participants from low-income communities. Overall, the Evidence-Based Screening for Obesity, Cardiorespiratory Disease, and Environmental Exposures in Low-Income El Paso Households project aims to evaluate the overall health status of participants who are of uninsured/low-income status and to provide health vouchers for further examination for those who qualify. Individuals who want to participate in the study, which is available to all ages, need to be uninsured/low income and live within El Paso County.

Health screenings conducted include BP, anthropometric measurements (height, weight, and waist), eNO, spirometry, fasting glucose, and a lipid profile (TC, TG, HDL, and LDL). The results are given and interpreted with participants on site. Low-income/free health clinic referrals are given to those with abnormal results. The health professionals who conducted the health assessments and provided the surveys throughout the study consisted of physicians, nurses, graduate and undergraduate students from The University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP), and volunteers. Prevalence rates of each factor have been reported for the first year of the study (N=657) with an overall prevalence of 53 percent in the selected population (Aguilera, 2016).

Modeling of traffic and air quality data association with the MetS factors allows a better understanding of the impact of these environmental factors on cardio-metabolic health. This project aims to integrate air quality and traffic data with large epidemiological study results conducted in the El Paso, TX, region. The main research question is whether there is an association between the concentration levels of traffic-related air pollutants and cardiorespiratory-related risk factors. Air quality and meteorological data were acquired from the centralized TCEQ-operated CAMSs, and the spatial traffic-related variables (e.g., traffic roads, traffic counts, and distances to ports of entry [POE]) were acquired from the El Paso Metropolitan Planning Organization. The dissemination of results can lead to decision making and improve policy related to healthy living in communities close to busy roadways.

## <span id="page-17-0"></span>**Approach**

This project integrated air quality and traffic-related data with a large epidemiological study conducted in the El Paso, TX, region, and established a continued partnership for future data collection efforts. The Evidence-Based Screening for Obesity, Cardiorespiratory Disease, and Environmental Exposures in Low-Income El Paso Households project is a large, ongoing study that collects data from low-income participants in El Paso, TX. A team of health professionals conducts a sociodemographic survey and collects health data on site at convenient locations for the participants. The locations include housing authority communities, faith-based organizations, food distribution events by local food banks, community health fairs, Mexican Consulate clinic days, and grocery stores, among others. Data collected include a predictor of cardiovascular risk, MetS, which includes measures of waist circumference, BP, TG, HDL cholesterol, and fasting glucose. During the baseline year of the study, data collected also included respiratory measures of airway inflammation (measured by an eNO test) and lung function (measured by spirometry).

This study conducted a secondary data analysis using health data collected between 2014 and 2020 from the mentioned large study. The larger study protocol and the amendment for conducting this study have been approved by the UTEP Institutional Review Board under study numbers 590300-4 and 1249235-3 with a separate Institutional Review Board review for the secondary analysis under study number 1611345-1

### <span id="page-17-1"></span>**Respiratory Health Measures**

The study included measures for height, weight (to calculate body mass index [BMI]), waist circumference, BP, a lipid profile (TG, TC, HDL, and LDL), and fasting glucose. These measures were used to determine the rate of MetS of the participants. Also, a subset of participants were measured for airway inflammation using a NIOX device to determine eNO and lung function measured by spirometry (FVC, FEV<sub>1</sub>, and PEF). Participants included in the study were residents living within El Paso County recruited in low-income communities.

Air pollutants that were continuously measured throughout the study in an outdoor environment included measurements for PM10, PM2.5, NO2, and O3. The data were extracted using publicly available datasets from CAMSs maintained by TCEQ. Each participant was assigned to the most representative CAMS based on residential address [\(Figure 1\)](#page-18-0). Short-term exposures considered the one-hour average concentration over 24, 48, 72, and 96 hours before the date of examination for each air pollutant.

### <span id="page-17-2"></span>**Traffic-Related Measures**

El Paso, TX, is located in the southwest area of the state and borders with Ciudad Juarez, Mexico, to the south and Sunland Park, NM, to the west. For this study, researchers considered data from the participant's home address to extract latitude and longitude coordinates and create a layer using GIS software [\(Figure 2\)](#page-18-1).



**Figure 1. Location of CAMSs in El Paso, TX, for selected air pollutants.**

<span id="page-18-0"></span>

<span id="page-18-1"></span>**Figure 2. Residential addresses of low-income participants from El Paso, TX.**

Researchers used mapping tools (ArcGIS Pro 2.5) to calculate the distance to the nearest major arterial traffic road using a GIS layer developed by the Department of Civil Engineering at UTEP in collaboration with the City of El Paso, TX (available at the PdnMapa website, [http://gis.elpasotexas.gov/pdnmapajs/\)](http://gis.elpasotexas.gov/pdnmapajs/) [\(Figure 3\)](#page-19-0).



**Figure 3. Major arterial roads layer.**

<span id="page-19-0"></span>Given its border with Mexico, El Paso has three international bridges, which constitute ports of vehicle and pedestrian entry into the United States. Due to the amount of daily traffic and car idling that occur at these points of entry, researchers considered the distance from the participants' home address to the nearest international POE as a layer of interest to explore the association of traffic-related air pollution with cardiorespiratory health outcomes [\(Figure 4\)](#page-19-1).

<span id="page-19-1"></span>

**Figure 4. Ports of entry in El Paso, TX.**

To explore the effects of vehicle traffic using GIS tools, researchers defined zones of impact (500 m and 1,000 m) relative to a participant's residential address. Researchers used a GIS layer developed by the El Paso Metropolitan Planning Organization that included traffic counts from the city's major and minor roads address ([Figure 5\)](#page-20-0). This layer allowed calculation of the sum of the yearly vehicles miles traveled (VMT) relative to a participant's residential address.



**Figure 5. Metropolitan planning organization traffic layer and zoomed version.**

<span id="page-20-0"></span>Lastly, researchers used a GIS layer available at the Census.gov website that includes all available streets and roads within El Paso County. This layer allowed summarization of the length of roads within 500-m and 1,000-m zones for every participant relative to their residential address [\(Figure 6\)](#page-20-1). Land-use regression (LUR) was used to explore associations between the mentioned traffic-related variables with the cardiorespiratory outcomes measured for each participant as part of the larger epidemiological study.



**Figure 6. Census.gov street layer and zoomed version.**

<span id="page-20-1"></span>The analysis established associations between cardiovascular outcome measures using linear models for continuous variables (BMI, waist circumference, BP, TG, HDL cholesterol, and glucose) and logistic models for categorical outcomes (MetS) with spatial transportation data while controlling for known sociodemographic factors.

Researchers also used a subset of participants who had respiratory health outcomes (only available for the first year of the larger study) to establish associations between respiratory health outcome measures using hierarchical models for continuous variables (eNO, FVC, FEV<sub>1</sub>, and PEF) with spatial transportation data while controlling for known sociodemographic factors. Furthermore, researchers considered the distribution of the participants that were classified with MetS using the traffic-related variables to determine the geographical areas of higher probability of this diagnosis/classification.

## <span id="page-21-0"></span>**Methodology**

### <span id="page-21-1"></span>**GIS Mapping**

The use of GIS mapping allowed generation of traffic-related data for every participant as a proxy for traffic-related air pollution exposure. [Figure 7](#page-21-2) illustrates a subset of distances to the nearest major arterial traffic road relative to participants' GIS coordinates. In a similar way, researchers determined distances to the nearest international POE for each participant.



**Figure 7. Distance to the nearest major arterial (majart) road and majart layer zoom.**

<span id="page-21-2"></span>The use of impact zones within 500 m and 1,000 m of each participant's residential address was a key component of the analysis. Researchers used these zones to determine the length of the streets and the amount of VMT by using GIS layers from Census.gov and the El Paso Metropolitan Planning Organization, respectively. [Figure 8](#page-21-3) and [Figure 9](#page-22-1) illustrate the calculation of the VMT and the length of the streets within the 500-m impact zone. In a similar way, the variables within a 1,000-m zone were calculated.



<span id="page-21-3"></span>**Figure 8. Summary of street length within 500 m using the Census.gov layer.**



**Figure 9. Summary of street length within 500 m using the metropolitan planning organization layer.**

#### <span id="page-22-1"></span><span id="page-22-0"></span>**Statistical Methods**

The continuous variables in this study include waist circumference, SBP, DBP, TG, HDL cholesterol, and fasting blood glucose (FBG). Also, eNO, FVC, FEV<sub>1</sub>, and PEF were collected as a subset for those who were measured during the first year of the study (2014–2015).

For further statistical analysis, waist circumference, SBP, DBP, TG, HDL cholesterol, and FBG were coded as binary variables (yes and no) to determine whether a participant has a risk factor for MetS. The recoded variables followed the diagnostic criteria defined by the National Institutes of Health, and the categorical variable "Metabolic Syndrome (MetS)" was constructed by computing the presence of three or more of the previously mentioned risk factors.

Initially, summary statistics of subject demographic information and characteristics were calculated. Correlation analyses using Pearson correlation were conducted to explore relationships between outcome variables and outdoor pollutant concentrations. The associations between pollutant metrics and various health outcomes were analyzed using a linear regression model. Before the correlation and regression analyses, box-cox transformation was applied to the variables to account for the skewness in the distribution, and different power exponents were selected to transform the data. For example, researchers used the log-transformation for the eNO and percent predicted FVC and the exponent of −0.1 for the percent predicted FEV1 values. The square root transformation was applied to the percent predicted PEF to improve the distribution of the right-skewed PEF data. The power coefficient of −2 was used to transform the glucose value.

Logistic regression analyses were used to examine the relationship between categorical variables for a specified outcome (presence or absence of MetS risk factors and MetS classification) and concentration levels of pollutant variables. Regression models were conducted separately for each pollutant of interest.

To examine the effects of long-term traffic-related pollutions exposures, regression models were conducted separately for each independent variable. Linear regression considered the respiratory and cardiovascular outcomes. Logistic regression analyses were also used to examine the relationship between categorical variables for a specified outcome (the presence or absence of cardiovascular risk factors and MetS classification) and trafficrelated measurements. Researchers applied the LUR technique to explore the associations between a set of spatially distributed respiratory factors from 600 participants and MetS risk factors from 5,000 low-income participants with the traffic and land-use predictors. The level of statistical significance was set at a p-value of <0.05 for all tests. The statistical software R (version 3.6.2) was used to perform the statistical analysis portion of the study.

## <span id="page-23-0"></span>**Results**

### <span id="page-23-1"></span>**Short-Term Effects of Traffic-Related Air Pollution on Cardiorespiratory Outcomes**

#### <span id="page-23-2"></span>Demographics

[Table 1](#page-23-3) summarizes subject demographic information and health characteristics. A total of 662 subjects participated in the study from September 2014 to May 2015. Most of the participants were female (84.4 percent) and Hispanic (98.2 percent), and subjects have a mean age of 47.8 years with a range of 6–89 years of age (see also [Table 2\)](#page-24-1). BMI was an average of 30.56, which ranges from 12.66 to 67.65; 81.1 percent of participants were overweight (35.2 percent) or obese (45.9 percent), and 100 participants (15.1 percent) were normal.

<span id="page-23-3"></span>





#### **Table 2. Summary Statistics of Participant Characteristics (N=662)**

<span id="page-24-1"></span>

Note: Q1 means quartile 1, Q3 means quartile 3, SD mean standard deviation, and IQR means interquartile range.

#### <span id="page-24-0"></span>Air Pollution Measurements

Hourly concentrations at the nearest CAMS to the subject's residential address ([Table 3\)](#page-25-0) were averaged over 24-, 48-, 72-, and 96-hr exposure windows for comparisons. The Chamizal station had the highest frequency as the nearest CAMS relative to subjects' residential address. Other stations were also available for  $O_3$  measurements with valid data during the study period. The averages were aggregated to represent prior pollutant exposure until 10 a.m. during the day when health outcomes were measured[. Table 4](#page-25-1) summarizes the descriptive statistics for the pollutant measurements for study subjects. [Figure 10](#page-26-1) shows the boxplots of each pollutant measurement.

<b>Pollutant</b>	<b>Nearest</b> <b>CAMS</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	Percent	
PM <sub>25</sub>	Chamizal	298	45.0	
	Ascarate	136	20.5	
	<b>UTEP</b>	121	18.3	
	Socorro	107	16.2	
$PM_{10}$	Chamizal	391	59.1	
	Socorro	147	22.2	
	UTEP	124	18.7	
NO <sub>2</sub>	Chamizal	296	44.7	
	Ascarate	242	36.6	
	<b>UTEP</b>	124	18.7	
O <sub>3</sub>	Chamizal	194	29.3	
	<b>UTEP</b>	115	17.4	
	Skyline	111	16.8	
	Ascarate	87	13.1	
	Socorro	82	12.4	
	Ivanhoe	73	11.0	

<span id="page-25-0"></span>**Table 3. Spatial Distribution of Subjects to the Nearest CAMS (N=662)**

**Table 4. Summary Statistics for Pollutant Measurements over Various Window Exposures (N=662)**

<span id="page-25-1"></span>



**Figure 10. Summary boxplots of air pollution concentrations.**

#### <span id="page-26-1"></span><span id="page-26-0"></span>Respiratory Associations

[Table 5](#page-26-2) summarizes descriptive statistics for eNO and spirometry measurements. The range for eNO was from 4.9 to 113 ppb with a mean average of 21.37 ppb. The FEV<sub>1</sub> ranged from 0.76 to 4.86 L with an average of 2.4 L, the FVC ranged from 0.82 to 6 L with an average of 2.65 L, and the PEF ranged from 1.59 to 11.48 L/minute with an average of 5.29 L/minute.

<span id="page-26-2"></span>

<b>Metric</b>	Min.	Q1	<b>Median</b>	<b>Mean</b>	Q <sub>3</sub>	Max.	<b>SD</b>	<b>IQR</b>	<b>NA</b>
eNO (ppb)	4.900	13.000	18.000	21.369	24.000	113.000	14.006	11.000	121
FEV <sub>1</sub> (L)	0.755	2.005	2.340	2.399	2.747	4.863	0.623	0.742	163
FVC(L)	0.820	2.179	2.553	2.646	3.023	6.020	0.732	0.844	163
PEF (L/min)	1.590	4.181	5.128	5.290	6.230	11.477	1.688	2.049	163
FEV <sub>1</sub> %Pred	18.00	83.000	92.000	95.872	101.000	360.000	30.532	18.000	163
<b>FVC %Pred</b>	16.000	73.000	82.000	84.645	91.000	266.000	24.289	18.000	163
PEF%Pred	14.000	80.500	95.000	95.786	109.500	267.000	26.984	29.000	163
FEV <sub>1</sub> /FVC	0.570	0.880	0.920	0.914	0.970	1.000	0.070	0.090	163
FEV <sub>0.5</sub> Best (L)	0.290	1.720	1.940	1.993	2.260	3.940	0.502	0.540	163
$FEV_1Best (L)$	0.420	2.130	2.440	2.509	2.820	5.060	0.640	0.690	163
FVCBest (L)	0.450	2.285	2.680	2.768	3.185	6.020	0.770	0.900	163
PEFBest (L/min)	0.800	5.070	6.050	6.107	7.075	12.230	1.732	2.005	163

**Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for eNO, FEV1, FVC, and PEF Metrics (N=662)**

[Table 6](#page-27-0) presents pollutant effect estimates on respiratory outcomes using linear regression models and corresponding p-values. Regression analysis showed that short-term pollutant concentrations of PM2.5 were negatively associated with spirometry measures such as FEV<sub>1</sub>:  $β_1$  = −0.011 for 24-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub> (p-value = 0.038),  $β_1$  = −0.014 for 48-hr PM2.5 (p-value = 0.018), and *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.017 for 96-hr PM2.5 (p-value = 0.032). FEV1Best value showed similar associations with 24- and 48-hr PM2.5\_z  $β_1$  = −0.011 for 24-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub> (p-value = 0.043), and  $β_1$  = −0.013 for 48-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub> (p-value = 0.034). Negative PM<sub>2.5</sub>-FEV<sub>0.5</sub>Best associations were also significant for the 24-, 48-, and 96-hr window exposure (p-values < 0.05).

The PEF was also negatively correlated with PM<sub>2.5</sub> for all time exposure periods:  $β_1 = −0.048$  for 24-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub>,  $β_1 =$ −0.058 for 48-hr PM2.5, *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.054 for 72-hr PM2.5, and *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.068 for 96-hr PM2.5; p-values < 0.01. Researchers found that the relatively longer the participants were exposed to PM2.5 concentrations, the more lung function decreased, represented by PEF. The 24-, 48-, and 96-hr averaged NO<sup>2</sup> had negative association with PEF: *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.023 for 24-hr NO<sup>2</sup> (p-value = 0.013), *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.028 for 48-hr NO<sup>2</sup> (p-value = 0.011), and *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.028 for 96-hr NO<sup>2</sup> (p-value = 0.047). Only 48-hr PM<sup>10</sup> particle showed relevance to the PEF Best value with *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.008 (p-value = 0.043). The log-transformed eNO, FVC, percent predicted values in FEV<sub>1</sub>, FVC, and PEF did not show any significant relationship with pollutant measurements.

The negative relationships were also found between FEV1/FVC and pollutant measurements. Using generalized linear regression modeling, researchers observed a negative association between FEV<sub>1</sub>/FVC and 96-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub> (*β*<sub>1</sub> = −0.023, p-value = 0.040). The ratio was also negatively associated with 24-hr NO<sup>2</sup> (*β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.011, p-value = 0.020) and 96-hr NO<sub>2</sub> (*β*<sub>1</sub> = −0.019, p-value = 0.011). However, 24-hr O<sub>3</sub> data showed a positive correlation with the sFEV<sub>1</sub>/FVC value ( $\beta_1$  = 0.008, p-value = 0.040).

<span id="page-27-0"></span>

<b>Respiratory Outcome</b>	<b>Pollutant</b>	<b>Window</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	Std. Error	t value	$\overline{p}$ -value
log(eNO)	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	24 hr	$-0.003$	0.004	$-0.678$	0.498
		48 hr	$-0.002$	0.005	$-0.382$	0.702
		72 hr	$-0.001$	0.006	$-0.216$	0.829
		96 hr	0.001	0.007	0.159	0.873
	$PM_{10}$	24 hr	0.000	0.001	$-0.100$	0.920
		48 hr	0.001	0.001	0.485	0.628
		72 hr	0.001	0.001	0.920	0.358
		96 hr	0.002	0.002	1.165	0.244
	NO <sub>2</sub>	24 hr	$-0.005$	0.003	$-1.693$	0.091
		48 hr	$-0.003$	0.003	$-0.879$	0.380
		72 hr	$-0.002$	0.004	$-0.502$	0.616
		96 hr	$-0.001$	0.004	$-0.339$	0.735
	O <sub>3</sub>	24 hr	0.002	0.002	0.937	0.349
		48 hr	0.001	0.002	0.294	0.769
		72 hr	0.000	0.002	0.031	0.975
		96 hr	0.000	0.002	0.021	0.983

**Table 6. Association between Respiratory Outcome and Pollutant Metrics (N=662)**









\*All significant pollutant time exposures and corresponding p-values are expressed in bold.

## <span id="page-31-0"></span>Cardiovascular Associations

[Table 7](#page-32-0) presents descriptive statistics for cardiovascular measurements. The mean average for BMI was 30.56 and for waist circumference was 95.45 cm. Waist circumference ranged from 49 to 151 cm with an average of 95 cm. Blood pressure (SBP/DBP) measurements ranged from 74/35 to 211/128 with an average of 127/76 mmHg. TG levels ranged from 45 to 650 mg/dL with an average of 186 mg/dL. HDL cholesterol ranged from 15 to 100 mg/dL with an average of 49 mg/dL. Glucose levels ranged from 50 to 477 mg/dL with an average of 109 mg/dL. Other variables of interest of cardiovascular risk that are not components of MetS but could potentially offer more information related to cardiovascular risk included BMI, pulse blood pressure (PBP), TC, and LDL cholesterol. The lipid profile measures indicated an average total cholesterol of 190 mg/dL and a fasting glucose average of 108.7 mg/dL.

<span id="page-32-0"></span>

<b>Risk Factor</b>	Min.	Q1	<b>Median</b>	<b>Mean</b>	Q <sub>3</sub>	Max.	<b>SD</b>	<b>IQR</b>	<b>NA</b>
BMI ( $\text{kg/m}^2$ )	12.660	26.520	29.690	30.560	34.560	67.650	6.580	8.040	11
Waist	49.000	86.000	94.000	95.456	104.000	151.000	14.414	18.000	7
SBP (mmHg)	74.000	113.000	125.000	127.772	140.250	211.000	20.626	27.250	22
DBP (mmHg)	35.000	69.000	75.000	76.178	82.000	128.000	11.409	13.000	22
PBP (mmHg)	6.000	42.000	49.000	51.594	59.000	107.000	14.476	17.000	22
$TC$ (mg/dL)	99.900	161.000	187.500	189.952	215.000	350.000	38.774	54.000	8
TG (mg/dL)	44.900	107.250	161.000	186.043	224.000	650.100	114.664	116.750	8
$HDL$ (mg/dL)	14.900	40.000	48.000	49.714	58.000	100.100	14.583	18.000	18
LDL (mg/dL)	12.000	84.000	102.000	106.088	127.000	220,000	31.896	43.000	63
TC/HDL	1.400	3.100	3.800	4.169	4.800	22.000	1.709	1.700	31
FBG (mg/dL)	49.900	86.250	94.500	108.682	108.000	477.000	46.478	21.750	8

**Table 7. Descriptive Statistics for MetS Risk Factors (N=662)**

Correlation and regression analyses showed that the continuous types of MetS risk factors, such as waist circumference, HDL, and fast blooding glucose, were associated with pollutant measurements. [Table 8](#page-32-1) and [Table](#page-34-0) 9 show detailed results of the correlation and regression analyses, respectively. Waist circumference, in particular for females, is a significant factor showing strong relationships with most of the pollutants: positive correlation with PM<sub>2.5</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> for all exposure periods (p-values < 0.005), and negative correlation with all O<sub>3</sub> measurement (p-values < 0.050). The relationship between waist circumference and PM2.5 may be due to a strong correlation observed between BMI and waist circumference with a high correlation coefficient of 0.856 (0.870 for females and 0.893 for males). The 72-hr PM2.5 concentration was found to be positively associated with BMI (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.132, p-value  $= 0.042$ ).

A significant relationship was found between 96-hr averaged O<sub>3</sub> and HDL, showing positive correlation with  $β_1 =$ 0.136 (p-value = 0.028). The increase in 24- and 48-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> were significantly associated with an increase in the box-cox transformed FBG scale (p-values < 0.05) but not for the original scale of FBG. The transformation of FBG was suitable to find linear relationships with air pollution measurement.

<span id="page-32-1"></span>

<b>Risk Factor</b>	<b>Pollutant</b>	24 hr	48 hr	72 hr	96 hr
BMI	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	0.070	0.064	$0.080*$	0.069
	$PM_{10}$	0.022	0.018	0.017	0.009
	NO <sub>2</sub>	0.048	0.065	0.065	0.052
	O <sub>3</sub>	$-0.010$	$-0.018$	$-0.024$	$-0.015$
Waist (overall)	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	$0.113*$	$0.121*$	$0.134*$	$0.129*$
	$PM_{10}$	0.031	0.043	0.045	0.045
	NO <sub>2</sub>	$0.126*$	$0.149*$	$0.158*$	$0.142*$
	O <sub>3</sub>	$-0.098*$	$-0.112*$	$-0.117*$	$-0.107*$
• Waist (female, N=559)	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	$0.148*$	$0.161*$	$0.179*$	$0.171*$
	$PM_{10}$	0.050	0.068	0.076	0.077
	NO <sub>2</sub>	$0.126*$	$0.157*$	$0.164*$	$0.141*$
	$O_3$	$-0.100*$	$-0.118*$	$-0.123*$	$-0.108*$
• Waist (male, $N=103$ )	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	$-0.036$	$-0.060$	$-0.084$	$-0.063$
	$PM_{10}$	$-0.056$	$-0.086$	$-0.127$	$-0.124$
	NO <sub>2</sub>	0.150	0.126	0.130	0.155
	O <sub>3</sub>	$-0.118$	$-0.109$	$-0.112$	$-0.128$

**Table 8. Correlation Analysis (N=662)**





\* All significant correlations are expressed in bold.

1. Box-cox transformation: bc.TC/HDL = [(TC/HDL)^(−0.5)−1]/(−0.5).

2. Box-cox transformation: bc.FBG = [FBG^(−2)−1]/(−2).

<span id="page-34-0"></span>
















\*All significant pollutant time exposures and corresponding p-values are expressed in bold.

[Table 10](#page-42-0) shows the classification of MetS risk factors (binary outcomes) based on current guidelines. [Table 11](#page-42-1) summarizes the associations between classification of MetS factors and pollutant metrics. [Table 11](#page-42-1) also shows effect estimates using logistic regression models, corresponding p-values, odds ratios, and 95 percent confidence intervals of the odds ratio. In logistic regression modeling, increasing PM<sub>2.5</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were associated with increasing likelihoods of a high waist circumference (p-values < 0.05 for 48-, 72-, and 96-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub>; p-values < 0.01 for all windows of NO<sup>2</sup> concentration). However, the odds of having a high waist circumference decrease as the O<sup>3</sup> level increases (p-values < 0.05 for 24-, 48-, 72-, and 96-hr O3). The O<sup>3</sup> increase was also associated with less likelihood of having low HDL status (p-values < 0.05 for 24-, 48-, 72-, and 96-hr O<sub>3</sub>), and more exposures to O<sub>3</sub> led to a lower odds ratio of having low HDL (0.983 for 24-hr O<sub>3</sub>, 0.980 for 48- and 72-hr O<sub>3</sub>, and 0.976 for 96-hr O3).

<b>Variable</b>	Value	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
HighWaist	1	411	62.1
	0	244	36.9
	NA	7	1.1
HighBP	0	363	54.8
	$\mathbf{1}$	277	41.8
	NA	22	3.3
HighTC	0	410	61.9
	$\mathbf{1}$	244	36.9
	<b>NA</b>	8	1.2
HighTG	1	363	54.8
	0	291	44.0
	NA	8	1.2
LowHDL	1	329	49.7
	0	315	47.6
	NA	18	2.7
HighFBG	0	423	63.9
	$\mathbf{1}$	231	34.9
	NA	8	1.2
MetS	$\mathbf{1}$	336	50.8
	0	307	46.4
	<b>NA</b>	19	2.9

<span id="page-42-0"></span>**Table 10. Summary of MetS Risk Factors (N=662)**

<span id="page-42-1"></span>







\*All significant pollutant time exposures and corresponding p-values are expressed in bold.

Note: CI means confidence interval.

The likelihood of having high glucose was associated with increased PM concentrations: 1.034 and 1.037 times higher odds of having high glucose per a one-unit increase in 24- and 48-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub>, respectively (p-values < 0.05). A one-unit increase in both 24- and 48-hr PM<sub>10</sub> results in 1.008 times higher odds of being high glucose (p-values < 0.05). The 72-hr NO<sub>2</sub> concentration was also a significant factor in prediction of the high-glucose status, showing an increased likelihood of having high glucose as  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  increases (odds ratio = 1.027; p-value = 0.048).

The MetS classification based on the combination of five risk factors showed significant associations with  $PM_{2.5}$ , NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub>. More precisely, the odds of having MetS is 1.051 times higher with a unit increase in 96-hr PM<sub>2.5</sub> (p-value = 0.043). The associations of MetS classification with NO<sup>2</sup> concentrations are also positive, showing the increased odds ratio of 1.027 (p-value = 0.021), 1.040 (p-value = 0.004), and 1.056 (p-value = 0.001) for 48-, 72-, and 96-hr exposure windows, respectively. However, the increased  $O<sub>3</sub>$  was correlated with a decreased likelihood of having MetS (p-values < 0.05 for all time exposures).

# **Long-Term Effects of Transportation Data on Cardiorespiratory Outcomes**

#### Demographics

Using the full dataset, which contains data from participants from the last five and a half years (September 2014 to January 2020), researchers identified 4,959 participants with an age range of 18 to 94 years old (an average of 45.5 years old). Most of the participants were female (79.5 percent) and Hispanic (95.5 percent), and 54.8 percent of participants were overweight (23.9 percent) or obese (30.9 percent), whereas 13.7 percent of participants were not overweight. [Table 12](#page-45-0) shows summary statistics of subject demographic information and health characteristics.

<span id="page-45-0"></span>

#### **Table 12. Demographic Information for Subjects (N=4,959)**



# Traffic-Related Measurements

[Table 13](#page-47-0) summarizes the descriptive statistics of traffic-related measurements using the first-year subset of data (N=662). Distance to the nearest major arterial road (Dist\_nearest\_Majart), street length within the 500-m and 1,000-m impact zones (Street\_Length\_500m and Street\_Length\_1000m), and distance to the nearest POE (Distance\_nearest\_POE) are measured in kilometers. Due to the exponential decay of distance measurements, researchers also considered the inverse of distance to the nearest POE (InvDist\_POE) and the inverse of the

distance squared (InvSqDis\_POE) as alternatives. Traffic counts were calculated from the average daily amount of VMT within the 500-m and 1,000-m zones of impact (Traffic\_VMT\_500m and Traffic\_VMT\_1000m) and converted to the unit in thousands.

<span id="page-47-0"></span>

<b>Variable</b>	Min.	Q <sub>1</sub>	<b>Median</b>	<b>Mean</b>	Q <sub>3</sub>	Max.	<b>SD</b>	<b>IQR</b>	<b>NA</b>
Distance nearest Majart	0.00	0.09	0.20	0.24	0.32	2.26	0.22	0.23	3
Street_Length_500m	3.04	8.46	10.96	11.48	14.16	24.85	3.97	5.70	4
Street Length 1000m	14.09	34.32	44.42	43.60	50.36	81.15	12.76	16.04	4
Distance nearest POE	0.25	2.16	6.60	6.85	11.15	25.36	5.12	8.99	3
InvDist POE	0.04	0.09	0.15	0.35	0.46	4.05	0.42	0.37	3
InvSqDist POE	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.29	0.21	16.44	1.09	0.21	3
Traffic VMT 500m	0.00	13.82	21.98	26.56	33.57	152.94	21.99	19.75	3
Traffic VMT 1000m	0.31	61.73	110.53	126.45	164.79	412.10	85.01	103.06	3

**Table 13. Descriptive Statistics of Traffic Variables (N=662; Unit: km, in Thousands)**

[Figure 11](#page-47-1) shows the scatterplot matrix for the pairs of traffic variables to explore the distribution of each variable and collinearity between variables. Based on the scatterplot, researchers decided to choose the impact zone with a 500-m radius to use multivariate regression models.



**Figure 11. Scatterplot matrix of pairs of eight traffic variables (N=662).**

<span id="page-47-1"></span>[Table 14](#page-48-0) summarizes the descriptive statistics of traffic-related measurements for the whole study period (N=4,959). [Figure 12](#page-48-1) presents the scatterplot matrix for the pairs of traffic variables to explore the distribution of each variable and collinearity between variables. Based on the scatterplot, researchers decided to choose the impact zone with a 500-m radius to use in multivariate regression models.

<span id="page-48-0"></span>

Variable	Min.	Q1	<b>Median</b>	<b>Mean</b>	Q <sub>3</sub>	Max.	<b>SD</b>	<b>IQR</b>	<b>NA</b>
Distance nearest Majart	0.00	0.10	0.22	0.33	0.43	3.35	0.34	0.32	152
Street Length 500m	0.28	7.84	10.23	10.73	13.18	25.51	4.23	5.34	174
Street Length 1000m	0.20	28.88	36.95	39.20	48.29	83.04	15.40	19.41	168
Distance nearest POE	0.16	3.39	8.62	9.48	13.81	37.58	7.00	10.42	152
InvDist POE.km	0.03	0.07	0.12	0.28	0.29	6.15	0.46	0.22	152
InvSqDist POE.km	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.29	0.09	37.78	1.70	0.08	152
Traffic VMT 500m	0.00	6.92	15.49	23.34	27.69	178.54	27.47	20.77	319
Traffic VMT 1000m	0.17	33.96	65.65	102.38	136.48	437.44	100.86	102.52	176

**Table 14. Descriptive Statistics of Traffic Variables (N=4,959; Unit: km, in Thousands)**



**Figure 12. Scatterplot matrix of pairs of eight traffic variables (N=4,959).**

# <span id="page-48-1"></span>Respiratory Associations Using First-Year Subset of Data

In the correlation analysis and univariate linear regression modeling, the length of the street and VMT have shown to be important traffic predictors to find relationships with lung function (see [Table 15\)](#page-49-0). Increases in the length of the street within the 500-m radius zone were associated with decreased lung function: *β*<sub>1</sub> = −0.017 for FEV<sub>1</sub> (p-value = 0.016), *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.017 for FVC (p-value = 0.045), *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.049 for PEF (p-value = 0.011), and *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.046 for PEF Best (p-value = 0.021). The founding was similar in the relationships between FEV<sub>1</sub>/FVC/PEF/PEF Best and street length within a bigger zone of a 1,000-m radius.

<span id="page-49-0"></span>

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Distance</b> nearest <b>Majart</b>	<b>Street</b> Length_ 500m	<b>Street</b> Length_ 1000m	Distance_ nearest <b>POE</b>	InvDist_ <b>POE</b>	<b>InvSqDist</b> $\_POE$	<b>Traffic</b> $VMT_{-}$ 500m	$\mathsf{Traffic}_-$ VMT 1000m
log(eNO)	0.008	0.036	0.003	$-0.052$	0.025	$-0.007$	0.034	0.013
FEV <sub>1</sub>	0.071	$-0.108*$	$-0.108*$	0.021	0.010	0.055	$-0.125*$	$-0.048$
<b>FVC</b>	0.072	$-0.090*$	$-0.091*$	0.047	$-0.014$	0.032	$-0.116*$	$-0.051$
<b>PEF</b>	$0.090*$	$-0.114*$	$-0.141*$	$-0.006$	$-0.006$	0.027	$-0.097*$	$-0.017$
FEV <sub>1</sub> %Pred	0.031	0.010	0.009	$-0.105*$	$0.134*$	$0.118*$	$-0.054$	0.001
bc.FEV %Pred <sup>1</sup>	0.040	0.010	0.006	$-0.115*$	$0.118*$	$0.095*$	$-0.052$	0.006
<b>FVC %Pred</b>	0.041	0.007	0.013	$-0.077$	$0.101*$	$0.093*$	$-0.066$	$-0.009$
log.FVC %Pred	0.038	0.006	0.012	$-0.082$	$0.088*$	0.069	$-0.062$	$-0.002$
PEF %Pred	0.047	$-0.046$	$-0.063$	$-0.108*$	0.075	0.065	$-0.060$	0.013
sart.PEF %Pred	0.053	$-0.050$	$-0.066$	$-0.112*$	0.072	0.063	$-0.053$	0.024
FEV <sub>1</sub> /FVC	$-0.001$	$-0.024$	$-0.033$	$-0.086$	0.066	0.061	$-0.019$	$-0.001$
FEV <sub>0.5</sub> Best	0.054	$-0.079$	$-0.086$	$-0.014$	0.041	0.070	$-0.116*$	$-0.037$
FEV <sub>1</sub> Best	0.048	$-0.079$	$-0.075$	0.005	0.025	0.055	$-0.116*$	$-0.046$
<b>FVC Best</b>	0.051	$-0.068$	$-0.060$	0.039	$-0.006$	0.027	$-0.100*$	$-0.043$
PEF Best	0.064	$-0.103*$	$-0.127*$	$-0.016$	0.010	0.045	$-0.096*$	$-0.015$

**Table 15. Correlation Analysis between Respiratory Outcome and Traffic Variables (N=662)**

\* All significant correlations are expressed in bold.

1. Box-cox transformation: bc.FEV1.%Pred = [(FEV1.%Pred)^(−0.1)−1]/(−0.1)

Traffic density within the 500-m impact zone was also negatively correlated with most of the spirometry measures:  $β1 = -0.004$  for FEV<sub>1</sub> (p-value = 0.005),  $β1 = -0.004$  for FVC (p-value = 0.010),  $β1 = -0.008$  for PEF (p-value = 0.031),  $β1 = -0.003$  for FEV<sub>0.5</sub> Best and FEV<sub>1</sub> Best (p-values = 0.010),  $β1 = -0.004$  for FVC Best (p-value = 0.026), and  $β1 =$ −0.008 for PEF Best (p-value = 0.033). The traffic amount within the 1,000-m zone, in contrast, did not correlate with any respiratory measures. In addition to street length and VMT variables, distance to the nearest major road was another significant predictor, showing a positive correlation with PEF ( $\rho$ = 0.09,  $\beta$ 1 = 0.663; p-value = 0.045).

For the LUR modeling as shown in [Table 16,](#page-50-0) researchers applied multivariate linear regression including five traffic variables: distance to the nearest major arterial road, street length within the 500-m impact zone, distance to the nearest POE, inverse of the distance to the POE squared, and traffic VMT within the 500-m zone. As with findings from the univariate regression, street length within the 500-m zone was a significant traffic variable in modeling of PEF (β1 = −0.056, p-value = 0.026) and PEF Best (β1 = −0.057, p-value = 0.025). A measure of traffic volume (Traffic VMT 500m) had negative associations with FEV<sub>0.5</sub> Best and FEV<sub>1</sub> Best, though it reported insignificant p-values < 0.1.

Y	<b>Traffic Variable</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	Std. Error	t value	$Pr(>\vert t \vert)$
log.eNO	(Intercept)	2.913	0.023	128.220	0.000
	Distance_nearest_Majart	0.043	0.139	0.308	0.758
	Street_Length_500m	0.003	0.008	0.368	0.713
	Distance nearest POE	$-0.005$	0.005	$-1.124$	0.261
	InvSqDist_POE	$-0.014$	0.022	$-0.645$	0.519
	Traffic VMT 500m	0.001	0.001	0.525	0.599
FEV <sub>1</sub>	(Intercept)	2.396	0.028	86.197	0.000
	Distance_nearest_Majart	0.110	0.134	0.820	0.413
	Street_Length_500m	$-0.017$	0.009	$-1.843$	0.066
	Distance_nearest_POE	0.000	0.006	$-0.014$	0.989
	InvSqDist_POE	0.059	0.026	2.302	$0.022*$
	Traffic VMT 500m	$-0.002$	0.001	$-1.584$	0.114
<b>FVC</b>	(Intercept)	2.642	0.033	80.533	0.000
	Distance_nearest_Majart	0.147	0.158	0.926	0.355
	Street_Length_500m	$-0.012$	0.011	$-1.074$	0.283
	Distance_nearest_POE	0.004	0.007	0.614	0.540
	InvSqDist_POE	0.050	0.030	1.665	0.097
	Traffic_VMT_500m	$-0.003$	0.002	$-1.633$	0.103
PEF	(Intercept)	5.279	0.075	69.972	0.000
	Distance_nearest_Majart	0.399	0.364	1.096	0.274
	Street_Length_500m	$-0.056$	0.025	$-2.235$	$0.026*$
	Distance_nearest_POE	$-0.015$	0.016	$-0.914$	0.361
	InvSqDist_POE	0.113	0.070	1.623	0.105
	Traffic VMT 500m	$-0.003$	0.004	$-0.724$	0.470
FEV <sub>1</sub> %Pred	(Intercept)	96.021	1.370	70.071	0.000
	Distance_nearest_Majart	6.931	6.617	1.048	0.295
	Street_Length_500m	$-0.250$	0.452	$-0.553$	0.580
	Distance_nearest_POE	$-0.611$	0.290	$-2.103$	$0.036*$
	InvSqDist_POE	2.997	1.265	2.369	$0.018*$
	Traffic VMT 500m	$-0.076$	0.072	$-1.044$	0.297
bc.FEV <sub>1</sub> %Pred	(Intercept)	3.641	0.007	510.238	0.000
	Distance_nearest_Majart	0.044	0.034	1.285	0.199
	Street_Length_500m	$-0.001$	0.002	$-0.394$	0.693
	Distance_nearest_POE	$-0.004$	0.002	$-2.476$	$0.014*$
	InvSqDist_POE	0.012	0.007	1.749	0.081
	Traffic_VMT_500m	0.000	0.000	$-0.976$	0.330
FVC %Pred	(Intercept)	84.733	1.093	77.489	0.000
	Distance nearest Majart	6.554	5.280	1.241	0.215
	Street Length 500m	$-0.034$	0.361	$-0.094$	0.925
	Distance_nearest_POE	$-0.362$	0.232	$-1.561$	0.119
	InvSqDist POE	1.869	1.009	1.852	0.065
	Traffic_VMT_500m	$-0.078$	0.058	$-1.348$	0.178

<span id="page-50-0"></span>**Table 16. Summary and Parameter Estimates of Multivariate Regression Models for Respiratory Outcomes (N=662)**



\*All significant predictors and corresponding p-values are expressed in bold.

#### Cardiovascular Associations Using First-Year Subset of Data

Correlation and univariate regression analyses showed that a few MetS risk factors were associated with the inverse distance and inverse squared distance to the nearest POE (se[e Table 17\)](#page-52-0). The inverse of the distance to the nearest POE was associated with increases in fasting glucose and TG ( $ρ = 0.153$ ,  $β<sub>1</sub> = 17.124$ , p-value < 0.001;  $ρ =$ 0.081, *β*<sup>1</sup> = 22.351, p-value = 0.039, respectively). The inverse of the distance squared to the POE also showed positive correlations with fasting glucose and TG (ρ = 0.217, *β*<sup>1</sup> = 9.209, p-value < 0.001; ρ = 0.134, *β*<sup>1</sup> = 14.086, p-value = 0.001, respectively), implying that the metabolic risk related to fasting glucose and TG decreases as subjects live farther away from the POE. BMI calculation and waist circumference are also health outcomes correlated with inverse squared distance to the POE (ρ = 0.077, *β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.462, p-value = 0.050; ρ = 0.095, *β*<sup>1</sup> = 1.251, p-value = 0.015, respectively). In particular, female waist circumference was associated with the street length for both impact zones (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.313, p-value = 0.047 for the 500-m zone; *β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.108, p-value = 0.024 for the 1,000-m zone), as well as the inverse squared distance to the POE ( $\beta_1$  = 2.187, p-value = 0.007).

<span id="page-52-0"></span>



\* All significant correlations are expressed in bold.

1. Box-cox transformation: bc.TC/HDL = [(TC/HDL)^(−0.5) −1]/( −0.5).

2. Box-cox transformation: bc.FBG = [FBG^(−2) −1]/( −2).

Separate logistic regression models were run for each traffic variable of interest to evaluate the binary outcome of the MetS factors[. Table 18](#page-53-0) summarizes the associations between the classification of MetS factors and traffic variables. The logistic regression models showed that the street length within the 1,000-m impact zone was also a significant factor related to a higher risk of high BP (odds ratio = 1.013, p-value = 0.048). The increase in the length of the street within the 1,000-m zone was also associated with the risk of high SBP<sub>1</sub> (odds ratio = 1.014,  $p$ -value = 0.030), and the high value in SBP<sub>1</sub> may play a role in determining high BP.



#### <span id="page-53-0"></span>**Table 18. Univariate Associations between MetS Risk Factors and MetS Classification and Traffic Variables (N=662)**



\* All significant correlations are expressed in bold.

The LUR model included the five traffic-related variables within the 500-m impact zone in a multivariate regression model. The most significant predictor in the LUR models of MetS risk factors was the inverse squared distance to the nearest POE (see [Table 19\)](#page-54-0). The increase in the inverse of the distance squared to the POE, implying a decrease in the distance to the POE, was significantly associated with increases in waist circumference ( $\beta_1$  = 1.216, p-value = 0.037; *β*<sup>1</sup> = 2.116, p-value = 0.026 for female), total cholesterol (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 3.689, p-value = 0.019), TG (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 15.063, p-value = 0.001), and fasting glucose (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 9.805, p-value < 0.001).



#### <span id="page-54-0"></span>**Table 19. Summary and Parameter Estimates of Multivariate Regression Models for Continuous MetS Risk Factors (N=662)**







\* All significant predictors and corresponding p-values are expressed in bold.

In logistic regression modeling, researchers also found that increasing the inverse distance squared to the POE was associated with an increased likelihood of high TC (odds ratio = 1.221; p-value = 0.055) (se[e Table 20\)](#page-57-0). The LUR model was found to have a weak correlation between MetS classification and street length within the 500-m zone, which implies more likelihood of having MetS with increased street length around the residential area (odds ratio = 1.050, p-value = 0.082). However, as shown in the previous univariate models, the larger impact zone within the 1,000-m distance may be more appropriate than the 500-m zone when modeling the binary risk factors of MetS.



<span id="page-57-0"></span>



\* All significant predictors and corresponding p-values are expressed in bold.

# Cardiovascular Associations Using Five-Year Data

[Table 21](#page-59-0) summarizes descriptive statistics for cardiovascular risk measurements (MetS) using the five-year dataset (N=4.959). Waist circumference ranged from 56 to 154 cm with an average of 95 cm. Blood pressure (SBP/DBP) measurements ranged from 71/35 to 232/151 mmHg with an average of 123/76 mmHg. TG levels ranged from 45 to 650 mg/dL with an average of 186 mg/dL. HDL cholesterol ranged from 15 to 100 mg/dL with an average of 48.5 mg/dL. Glucose levels ranged from 50 to 500 mg/dL with an average of 113 mg/dL. Other variables of interest of cardiovascular risk that are not a component of MetS but could potentially offer more information related to cardiovascular risk included BMI, PBP, TC, and LDL cholesterol.

<span id="page-59-0"></span>

<b>Characteristic</b>	Min.	Q1	<b>Median</b>	<b>Mean</b>	Q <sub>3</sub>	Max.	<b>SD</b>	<b>IQR</b>	<b>NA</b>
BMI ( $\text{kg/m}^2$ )	15.318	25.748	29.149	29.942	33.218	67.650	6.136	7.470	1,538
Waist (cm)	56.000	84.000	93.000	93.953	103.000	154.000	14.559	19.000	1038
SBP (mmHg)	71.000	110.000	121.000	123.183	134.000	232.000	19.266	24.000	776
DBP (mmHg)	35.000	69.000	75.000	76.400	83.000	151.000	11.438	14.000	776
PBP (mmHg)	3.000	37.000	45.000	46.783	54.000	133.000	14.103	17.000	776
TC (mg/dL)	100.000	160.000	186.000	189.646	214.000	500.010	41.868	54.000	1,349
TG (mg/dL)	44.900	110.000	164.000	186.642	233.000	650.100	108.203	123.000	1,324
HDL (mg/dL)	14.900	38.000	47.000	48.555	57.000	100.100	15.319	19.000	1,365
LDL (mg/dL)	14.000	81.000	102.000	105.278	127.000	314.000	34.746	46.000	1,621
TC/HDL	1.400	3.100	3.900	4.254	5.000	15.500	1.647	1.900	1,441
FBG (mg/dL)	49.900	90.000	99.000	113.795	116.000	500.010	48.971	26,000	1,336

**Table 21. Descriptive Statistics for MetS Risk Factors (N=4,959)**

As [Table 22](#page-60-0) shows, linear relationships were found between traffic variables and a few MetS risk factors. Waist measurement significantly correlated with the street length within the 500-m area (ρ = 0.045, *β*<sub>1</sub> = 0.155), inverse of the distance to the nearest POE (ρ = 0.046, *β*<sup>1</sup> = 1.426), and inverse squared distance (ρ = 0.033, *β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.270). BP monitoring showed that traffic variables were more associated with PBP, rather than SBP or DBP. The PBP increases related to an increase in street length within the 500- and 1,000-m zones ( $ρ = 0.035$ ,  $β_1 = 0.115$ ;  $ρ =$ 0.050, *β*<sub>1</sub> = 0.046, respectively), decrease in the distance to the nearest POE (ρ = −0.059, *β*<sub>1</sub> = −0.118), rise in the inverse of the distance to the POE (ρ = 0.040, *β*<sup>1</sup> = 1.227), and increase in traffic amount within 500 and 1,000 m (ρ = 0.051, *β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.026; ρ = 0.055, *β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.008, respectively). Log-transformed and box-cox transformed glucose levels showed similar correlation results.

Log-transformed TG was significantly associated with the street length within the 500-m zone ( $\beta_1$  = 0.005, p-value = 0.036). The fasting glucose showed significant relationships with the POE-related distance variables: negative association with the distance to the nearest POE (ρ = −0.036, *β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.257), and positive associations with the inverse of the distance (ρ = 0.064, *β*<sub>1</sub> = 6.723) and the inverse of the distance squared (ρ = 0.051, *β*<sub>1</sub> = 1.380).

[Table 23](#page-60-1) summarizes the frequency of the five MetS risk factors (binary outcomes) and the MetS classification. Researchers also included the classification of high cholesterol. The univariate associations between the binary classification of MetS risk factors and traffic variables were examined using logistic regression modeling (see [Table](#page-61-0) 24). The risk of low HDL cholesterol was found to be higher as the street length within the impact zone (odds ratio = 1.023, p-value = 0.006 for the 500-m zone) and the inverse distance to the POE increase (odds ratio = 1.212, p-value = 0.012) get larger. The effect of street length is more substantial for the smaller region, that is, the 500-m zone, than for the 1,000-m zone. The street length within the 500-m impact zone was also an important factor correlated with a higher risk of MetS (odds ratio = 1.020, 95% CI = [1.003, 1.037]). Increase in the inverse distance to the nearest POE, implying a decrease in the distance to the POE, related to the higher risk in MetS (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.192, p-value = 0.012).

<span id="page-60-0"></span>

<b>Characteristic</b>	Distance_ nearest <b>Majart</b>	Street_ Length_ 500m	Street_ Length_ 1000m	Distance_ nearest <b>POE</b>	InvDist_ <b>POE</b>	<b>InvSqDist</b> $\_POE$	Traffic_ VMT_ 500m	Traffic_ VMT 1000m
<b>BMI</b>	0.022	0.005	$-0.010$	$0.039*$	$-0.002$	0.000	$-0.043*$	$-0.042*$
Waist	$-0.001$	$0.045*$	0.031	$-0.002$	$0.046*$	$0.033*$	0.002	0.006
• Female	$-0.004$	$0.059*$	$0.046*$	$-0.009$	$0.054*$	0.024	0.013	0.017
$\bullet$ Male	0.045	$-0.018$	$-0.054$	0.065	$-0.001$	0.028	$-0.050$	$-0.062$
<b>SBP</b>	0.012	0.008	0.018	$-0.031*$	0.018	0.013	0.028	0.021
$\bullet$ SBP < 130	$0.041*$	$-0.021$	$-0.015$	0.029	$-0.011$	0.012	0.006	$-0.007$
• SBP $\geq$ 130	0.031	$-0.001$	$-0.001$	$-0.022$	0.033	0.031	0.041	0.020
<b>DBP</b>	0.022	$-0.029$	$-0.032*$	0.020	$-0.020$	$-0.006$	$-0.016$	$-0.033*$
$\bullet$ DBP < 85	0.021	$-0.025$	$-0.025$	0.027	$-0.040*$	$-0.022$	0.010	$-0.020$
$\bullet$ DBP $\geq$ 85	$-0.033$	0.030	0.009	0.008	0.013	$-0.010$	$-0.004$	$-0.018$
PBP	$-0.002$	$0.035*$	$0.050*$	$-0.059*$	$0.040*$	0.023	$0.051*$	$0.055*$
TC	$0.036*$	$-0.026$	$-0.040*$	0.022	$-0.015$	0.002	$-0.012$	$-0.031$
TG	0.012	0.028	0.006	$-0.010$	0.023	0.017	0.014	$-0.019$
log.TG	0.013	$0.035*$	0.009	$-0.007$	0.025	0.019	0.011	$-0.027$
<b>HDL</b>	0.016	$-0.046*$	$-0.046*$	0.001	$-0.041*$	$-0.027$	$-0.025$	$-0.021$
<b>LDL</b>	0.023	$-0.026$	$-0.032$	0.026	$-0.024$	$-0.007$	$-0.011$	$-0.020$
TC/HDL	0.013	0.011	0.000	0.012	0.013	0.018	0.021	$-0.003$
log.TC/HDL	0.011	0.019	0.009	0.010	0.020	0.024	0.021	$-0.003$
bc.TC/HDL <sup>1</sup>	0.010	0.021	0.013	0.010	0.022	0.025	0.020	$-0.004$
FBG	0.003	0.032	0.021	$-0.036*$	$0.064*$	$0.051*$	0.018	0.006
log.FBG	0.001	$0.037*$	0.023	$-0.035*$	$0.066*$	$0.049*$	0.017	0.004
bc.FBG <sup>2</sup>	0.001	$0.043*$	0.025	$-0.031$	$0.061*$	$0.040*$	0.016	0.001

**Table 22. Correlation Analysis (N=4,959)**

\* All significant correlations are expressed in bold.

1. Box-cox transformation: bc.TC/HDL = [(TC/HDL)^(−0.5)−1]/(−0.5).

<span id="page-60-1"></span>2. Box-cox transformation: bc.FBG = [FBG^(−2)−1]/(−2).

#### **Table 23. Summary of MetS Risk Factors (N=4,959)**





<span id="page-61-0"></span>





\* All significant correlations are expressed in bold.

Five traffic variables (i.e., distance to the nearest major arterial road, street length within the 500-m impact zone, distance to the nearest POE, inverse of the distance to the POE squared, and traffic VMT within the 500-m zone) were included in LUR modeling for multivariate analyses of the five-year data. As [Table 25](#page-63-0) shows, the most significant predictor in the LUR models was the total length of the street within a 500-m radius. The increase in the street length associated with increasing MetS factors, in particular BMI (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.110, p-value = 0.002), waist circumference (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.294, p-value < 0.001), log-transformed TG (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.007, p-value = 0.025), and box-cox transformed fasting glucose (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 2.218e-07, p-value = 0.049). However, the fasting glucose and log-transformed glucose showed positive relationships with the inverse squared distance to the POE (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 1.156, p-value = 0.015; *β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.007, p-value = 0.023, respectively). In the modeling of PBP, the increase in PBP was associated with an increase in the amount of traffic within a 500-m radius (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.021, p-value = 0.048) and the proximity to the nearest POE (*β*<sup>1</sup> = −0.095, p-value = 0.013). Researchers also found the effect of traffic volume within the 500-m zone on the DBP measurement for the participants whose DBP was less than 85 mmHg.

Logistic regression models, including the five traffic predictors, also showed the significance of the length of the street within the 500-m impact zone (se[e Table 26\)](#page-66-0). As the total length of the street increases, the risks of a large waist circumference (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.034, p-value = 0.002), high TG (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.024, p-value = 0.034), and low HDL cholesterol (*β*<sup>1</sup> = 0.032, p-value = 0.004) were observed. The significance of the street length variable in predicting three MetS risk components may have influenced the prediction of MetS classification. The increasing likelihood of MetS was related to the increased street length within the impact zone  $(\beta_1 = 0.038, p$ -value = 0.001, odds ratio = 1.039 [1.016, 1.062]).

Y	<b>Traffic Variable</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	Std. <b>Error</b>	t value	$Pr(>\vert t \vert)$
<b>BMI</b>	(Intercept)	29.961	0.108	277.530	0.000
	Distance_nearest_Majart	0.562	0.394	1.426	0.154
	Street_Length_500m	0.110	0.035	3.122	$0.002*$
	Distance_nearest_POE	0.044	0.018	2.382	$0.017*$
	InvSqDist POE.km	0.002	0.061	0.040	0.968
	Traffic_VMT_500m	$-0.013$	0.005	$-2.647$	$0.008*$
Waist	(Intercept)	93.875	0.241	389.725	0.000
	Distance_nearest_Majart	0.462	0.878	0.526	0.599
	Street Length 500m	0.294	0.077	3.793	0.000
	Distance nearest POE	0.054	0.041	1.329	0.184
	InvSqDist_POE.km	0.176	0.140	1.255	0.210
	Traffic VMT 500m	$-0.020$	0.011	$-1.801$	0.072
· Waist (female,	(Intercept)	92.889	0.267	347.822	0.000
$N = 3941$	Distance_nearest_Majart	0.322	0.953	0.338	0.736
	Street_Length_500m	0.351	0.086	4.097	$0.000*$
	Distance nearest POE	0.049	0.045	1.099	0.272
	InvSqDist_POE.km	0.053	0.196	0.269	0.788
	Traffic VMT 500m	$-0.019$	0.012	$-1.548$	0.122
· Waist (male,	(Intercept)	97.755	0.536	182.392	0.000
$N = 954$	Distance_nearest_Majart	2.616	2.139	1.223	0.222
	Street Length 500m	0.190	0.178	1.065	0.287
	Distance_nearest_POE	0.173	0.098	1.762	0.079
	InvSqDist POE.km	0.231	0.202	1.145	0.253
	Traffic VMT 500m	$-0.022$	0.025	$-0.886$	0.376
SBP	(Intercept)	123.202	0.308	399.361	0.000
	Distance_nearest_Majart	1.804	1.122	1.608	0.108
	Street Length 500m	$-0.054$	0.099	$-0.542$	0.588
	Distance_nearest_POE	$-0.084$	0.052	$-1.610$	0.107
	InvSqDist_POE.km	0.110	0.183	0.600	0.549
	Traffic_VMT_500m	0.021	0.014	1.518	0.129
• SBP $( < 130, $	(Intercept)	112.606	0.207	542.694	0.000
$N = 2801$	Distance_nearest_Majart	1.764	0.754	2.340	$0.019*$
	Street_Length_500m	$-0.027$	0.066	$-0.402$	0.688
	Distance_nearest_POE	0.044	0.034	1.285	0.199
	InvSqDist_POE.km	0.131	0.119	1.094	0.274
	Traffic VMT 500m	0.015	0.010	1.509	0.131
$\bullet$ SBP ( $\geq$ 130,	(Intercept)	144.678	0.396	365.337	0.000
$N = 1382$	Distance_nearest_Majart	1.123	1.449	0.775	0.438
	Street_Length_500m	$-0.143$	0.130	$-1.102$	0.271
	Distance nearest POE	$-0.069$	0.071	$-0.979$	0.328
	InvSqDist_POE.km	0.294	0.253	1.162	0.246
	Traffic_VMT_500m	0.029	0.018	1.648	0.100

<span id="page-63-0"></span>**Table 25. Summary and Parameter Estimates of Multivariate Regression Models for Continuous MetS Risk Factors (N=4,959)**





\*All significant predictors and corresponding p-values are expressed in bold.



#### <span id="page-66-0"></span>**Table 26. Summary and Parameter Estimates of Multivariate Logistic Regression Model for Binary MetS Factors (N=4,959)**

\* All significant predictors and corresponding p-values are expressed in bold.

# Predictive Probability Model

The multivariate regression analysis quantified the relationships between different types of traffic variables and risk factors for MetS. Using a stepwise selection technique, researchers built a multivariate logistic regression model that showed the best performance in estimating the likelihood of MetS. Based on the modeling, the selected variables were the length of street in the 500-m zone, distance to the nearest POE, and traffic VMT in the 500-m zone (see [Table](#page-67-0) 27).



<span id="page-67-0"></span>

\* All significant predictors and corresponding *p* are expressed in bold.

1. Traffic variable units: km, in thousands

The multivariate regression model estimated the coefficients of the selected traffic variables that were used to predict the probabilities of occurring in El Paso, TX, for MetS. The length of street within 500 m was positively associated with the likelihood of having MetS (p-value = 0.001). The distance to the nearest POE was positively associated with the likelihood of MetS, while traffic VTM within 500 m was negatively correlated with MetS; both were not significant. Using these estimates, a land-use map was made for each traffic variable. The land-use maps show the length of streets within 500 m, distance to the nearest POE, and traffic VMT within 500 m with the values grouped into different areas for visual interpretation [\(Figure 13\)](#page-68-0).

The maps show that the areas with the highest street length are located in the central part of the city, while the areas with the most traffic are located in the vicinity of the major freeways. The distance to the POE is associated with the outer west and northeast and the far east of the city. Each map provides spatial variations, especially with regard to spatial patterns of street length and traffic.

Lastly, researchers used the coefficient estimates from the multivariate logistic regression modeling to calculate a predicted probability for MetS. The predicted probability can be obtained from the following equation:

 $\hat{p}$  =

exp {0.126 + 0.038(Strlength<sub>500m</sub>  $-$  10.731) + 0.009(Dist<sub>POE</sub>  $-$  9.482)  $-$  0.003(TrafVMT<sub>500m</sub>  $-$  23.337)}  $1 + \exp \left\{0.126 + 0.038(Strlength_{500m} - 10.731) + 0.009(Dist_{POE} - 9.482) - 0.003(TrafVMT_{500m} - 23.337)\right\}$ 

The predicted values were applied to a gridded map representative of areas in El Paso, TX, in which the resulting layer [\(Figure 14\)](#page-69-0) shows areas of higher and lower probability of MetS.



<span id="page-68-0"></span>**Figure 13. Traffic-related variables applied to a city grid for (A) street length within 500 m, (B) distance to the nearest port of entry, and (C) VMT within 500 m.**



<span id="page-69-0"></span>**Figure 14. Predictive model of higher risk of MetS based on the land-use regression model.**

# **Conclusions and Recommendations**

# **Short-Term Effects of Traffic-Related Air Pollution on Cardiorespiratory Outcomes**

This study examined the short-term associations (24-, 48-, 72-, and 96-hr averages) of traffic-related air pollutants (PM2.5, PM10, NO2, and O3) with biomarkers of respiratory and cardiovascular disease in a group of uninsured participants from low-income communities in El Paso, TX. Researchers found associations of short-term air pollutant concentrations with respiratory outcomes, which was expected. However, researchers also found associations with metabolic risk factors such as BMI, waist circumference, and fasting glucose.

FEV<sub>1</sub> was negatively correlated with average concentration levels of PM<sub>2.5</sub> (24, 48, and 96 hr), indicating a relationship between lung function and ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> before the measurement. Specifically, this respiratory indicator represents an increase of risk to developing chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). Furthermore, PEF, which is also an indicator of the respiratory risk of COPD, was negatively correlated not only with PM<sub>2.5</sub> but also NO<sub>2</sub>. However, researchers did not see an influence by coarse particles (PM<sub>10</sub>), which might indicate the significant effects came from smaller particles, which affect the lower respiratory tract and can further cause obstructive disease. Further analysis using the best results available for respiratory indicators (FEV<sub>1</sub>, FVC, and PEF), as interpreted by the spirometry software (CareFusion Spirometry PC Software™ [36-SPC1000-STK]), further confirmed the associations with PM2.5 air pollutants and NO2.

eNO is a measure of airway inflammation and useful in the treatment and adherence of asthma treatment but was not correlated with concentration levels of air pollutants in the selected population. Given that the inclusion methods do not ask if a participant has asthma, researchers cannot subset the data to explore if a relationship exists in this subgroup. Also, based on the lung function parameter and related associations with air pollutants, researchers can infer the patterns align more with an obstructive respiratory disease (like COPD) than restrictive respiratory diseases like asthma.

Researchers also considered the percent predicted values of lung function. However, the analyses did not show any significant correlation with air pollutant concentration levels; however, there were associations with the FEV1/FVC ratio, which is a clinical marker that can differentiate lung obstruction from restriction. A ratio of 0.7 is indicative of lung obstruction. Given the negative correlations found with PM<sub>2.5</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> in different time windows, lung obstruction seems to be more prevalent in the selected population.

The short-term associations with risk factors related to obesity (BMI and waist circumference) both in linear and logistic models were not expected as part of this study. Moreover, the relationship was present across a majority of average air pollution average values before the date of examination. Researchers do not assume a causal effect between a short-term exposure to air pollution and obesity but do theorize this is due to the lack of variation of air pollution exposure in the short term. This could be reflective of the medium to long exposure, which can be also representative of the environmental conditions, neighborhoods where participants live, and locations of the CAMSs assigned to them.

Researchers did not find associations with other metabolic outcomes such as high BP or an altered lipid profile but did find associations with FBG. In linear models, researchers normalized the values and further confirmed this relationship in logistic models by looking into participants with high glucose levels. Possible reasons for this increase include oxidative stress and inflammation cause by air pollution exposure (Bowe et al., 2018; Eze et al., 2015; Wolf et al., 2016). Also, it is possible that measures related to obesity such as waist circumference can be considered better predictors of air pollution exposure since a unit change in waist (cm) is metabolically more important than unit changes in lipid profile and glucose (mg/dl).

# Strengths and Limitations

The present study considered measures of ambient air pollution at nearby CAMSs. However, there could be some variation in the participants' indoor environment. It is beyond the scope of this research to consider measurements of indoor air pollution; however, from pilot data, there is a direct relationship between ambient and indoor air pollution, which is further confirmed by the literature (Andersen, 1972; Raysoni et al., 2013; Zora et al., 2013).

The measurements of air pollution exposure rely on CAMSs with available data. In some cases, the stations were far from certain areas in El Paso County, which led to exclusion of some participants from the analysis. Furthermore, not all CAMSs had measurements available for every traffic-related pollutant. However, the number of CAMSs that measured  $O_3$  was at least two times more than those that measured the other pollutants, and researchers still observed associations similar to those for the other pollutants.

#### Comparison with Other Studies

Respiratory outcomes have been associated with air pollution exposure in other epidemiological studies. The Framingham study found that moderate exposure measured by the Environmental Protection Agency's Air Quality Index for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub> was associated with lower FEV<sub>1</sub> considering 24- and 48-hr pollutant concentration averages before the measurement (Rice et al., 2013). A study among 1,694 female non-smokers from Wuhan-Zhuhai, China, found that in a city with high pollutant levels, the moving average of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub> exposures were significantly associated with FEV<sub>1</sub> reductions. Also, in a low-level air pollution city,  $PM_{10}$  (72-, 96-, and 120-hr), O<sub>3</sub> (72-hr), and PM<sub>2.5</sub> (96- and 144-hr) exposures were significantly associated with reduced FEV<sub>1</sub> (Zhou et al., 2016). The Zhou et al. study also found associations with FVC. However, in the current study, the relatively low levels of exposure in this study could be the reason why these associations were not found.

Furthermore, a repeated measures study from Belgium found that an increase in PM<sub>10</sub> on the day of the clinical examination was associated with lower FVC, FEV<sub>1</sub>, and PEF. Also, an increase of NO<sub>2</sub> was associated with a reduction in PEF on the day of the examination (Panis et al., 2017). A study of ambient air pollution with lung function in adults at very low levels in Europe did not observe an association of air pollution with longitudinal change in lung function but did observe that an increase in  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  exposure was associated with lower levels of FEV<sub>1</sub> and FVC (Adam et al., 2015). Also, an increase of PM<sub>10</sub>, but not other PM metrics (PM<sub>2.5</sub>, the coarse fraction of PM, and PM absorbance), was associated with a lower level of  $FEV_1$ . The associations were particularly strong in obese persons.

Regarding metabolic outcomes, Chuang et al. (2010) observed increased PM<sub>10</sub> was marginally ( $p < 0.10$ ) associated with elevated SBP (24 hr) and TG (24 to 120 hr), and statistically associated with hemoglobin A1c (72 hr) and reduced HDL (24 hr). Also, O<sup>3</sup> was associated with DBP (72 and 120 hr) and hemoglobin A1C (24, 72, and 120 hr) and marginally associated with TG and fasting glucose (Chuang et al., 2010). Unfortunately, this study did not consider PM2.5 measurements, which further showed some associations in the current study. Also, a study conducted in China showed a positive correlation between PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub> and BMI (Li et al., 2015), which further aligns with some of the associations from the current study, although the time window Li et al. considered for the association was based on the medium term instead of short term. Furthermore, a 2014 review by Weichenthal el al. (2014), which considered 14 studies of short-term effects, suggested that "the consistent pattern of stronger associations among obese subjects suggests that obesity may modify the impact of PM2.5 on cardiovascular health."

# **Long-Term Effects of Transportation Data on Cardiorespiratory Outcomes**

Researchers examined the association of respiratory and cardiovascular risk factors with the long-term effects of air pollution related to vehicle traffic (VMT and street length) and distance to air pollution sources (major arterial roads and international POEs) using LUR models and GIS measures, in a large dataset of adults residing in low-
income in El Paso, TX. This study found expected associations with respiratory outcomes caused by long-term exposure using the available data subset from the first year of the larger health study. Researchers found correlations of length of street within the 500-m and 1000-m impact zone as well as the VMT with measures of lung function (FEV<sub>1</sub>, FVC, and PEF). Furthermore, multivariate models showed the length of street within 500 m was an important traffic predictor for lung function based on the peak expiratory flow (PEF and PEF Best).

Regarding the cardiovascular outcomes, the most significant predictor in the LUR models of MetS risk factors was the total length of the street within a 500-m radius. The increase in the street length was associated with increasing waist circumference and TG and decreasing HDL in multivariate models. Furthermore, the increase in the inverse of the distance squared to the POE (which implies a decrease in the distance to the POE) was significantly associated with an increase in glucose levels. The modeling also considered the PBP, a measure of the difference between SBP and DBP, which showed that an increase in PBP was associated with the increase in the amount of traffic within a 500-m radius and the proximity to the nearest POE.

These results were further confirmed in logistic regression models, which found that as the total length of the street increases, the risks of a large waist circumference, high TG, and low HDL cholesterol were observed. Finally, models considering those participants with MetS (three or more risk factors) showed an increasing likelihood of MetS was also related to the increased street length within 500 m.

### Strengths and Limitations

This study provides a large sample of low-income participants from El Paso, TX, representing the population distribution living all over the county. Also, the use of LUR models allowed further exploration considering measures of vehicle traffic, which complements other studies that have relied on concentration levels of air pollutants from CAMSs, which are not always available or are located far from the participants' neighborhoods.

However, this study has limitations. Variations are assumed between the indoor environment and the ambient air pollution exposure. It is beyond the scope of this research to consider measurements of indoor air pollution; however, other studies in the region have shown there is a direct relationship between ambient and indoor air pollution.

Also, the measurements of traffic rely on GIS layers from the El Paso Metropolitan Planning Organization, Census, and PdnMapa. However, data from participants that lived farther from certain areas in El Paso County were not covered by the layers, and researchers excluded them from the analysis. Furthermore, for participants living less than 1000 m from the border area, this analysis did not include the traffic variables or GIS layers from Ciudad Juarez in Mexico. Researchers expect the lack of information did not have much influence since not many participants lived close to neighborhoods in Ciudad Juarez; however, future studies would benefit from including information from GIS layers with data from Mexico.

#### Comparison with Other Studies

Studies about the impact of long-term exposure to outdoor air pollution on health outcomes have played a crucial role in recent decades (Amini et al., 2017; Hoek et al., 2008). Other studies have used LUR to factor exposure of traffic-related air pollution. In 1999, an LUR model was developed to predict concentrations of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and other related pollutants; the study found the most useful variables were elevation, population density, distance to an international POE, and distance to a petroleum facility considering two monitoring sites (Smith et al., 2006). This was further evaluated in 2006–2007 using a series of mixed model LURs, which confirmed the mentioned variables as useful predictors of NO<sub>2</sub> even when considering seasonal variation (Gonzales et al., 2012).

A study modeling the PM concentrations along I-10 in El Paso, TX, considered dispersion and LUR models that considered wind speed and daily traffic counts, which suggested particle concentrations impact within a 1,000-m buffer along the interstate (Olvera et al., 2014). A further study focusing on PM2.5 considered surrogate variables of traffic emission at four monitoring sites such as land use, traffic intensity, population density, and property value to estimate pollutant concentrations; however, results were heavily influenced by climate-specific meteorological events (Alvarez et al., 2018). Furthermore, a PM2.5 LUR study incorporated a principal component analysis to optimize the model, which found a combination of traffic variables (VMT, speed, traffic demand, road length, and time) to be a good predictor (Olvera et al., 2012).

However, few studies have correlated the use of LUR with air pollution and health outcomes. A 2015 study tested relationships for residential pest and PM2.5 exposures with children's self-reported wheezing severity based on socioeconomic factors and a previously developed LUR model (Grineski et al., 2015).

# **Outputs, Outcomes, and Impacts**

Short-term exposure to traffic-related pollutants was correlated with respiratory outcomes related to pulmonary obstruction, which could be explain by inflammation of the respiratory tract. Future studies should consider clinical classifications of obstructive respiratory outcomes such as COPD and consider the effects on FEV<sub>1</sub> and PEF. Researchers also found relationships of fasting glucose levels with short-term effects of air pollution exposure. Researchers further recommend studies that not only look at high levels of fasting glucose but also expand on levels of glycated hemoglobin and diabetes diagnosis.

This study might be the first to find associations of short-term exposure to air pollutants with obesity, which might be more related to the neighborhood locations of participants and socioenvironmental conditions. In future studies, it is recommended to consider obesity as an outcome for air pollution exposure and consider extended windows of time to assess long-term exposure. Furthermore, the use of LUR models can further elucidate this relationship with the characteristics of the neighborhoods surrounding the participants.

The long-term effects of traffic-related air pollution were found to be associated with respiratory and cardiovascular health outcomes. The length of the streets within the 500-m radius was the most significant predictor for lung function measurements (PEF and PEF Best). The LUR models showed the total length of the street within the 500-m impact zone was also an important traffic-related variable to predict MetS risk factors (waist circumference, TG, and HDL cholesterol). The final selected model for MetS classification produced a predicted probability map showing El Paso areas of higher and lower probability of MetS.

The dissemination of results can lead to decision making and improve policy related to healthy living in communities close to busy roadways. Furthermore, the use of predictive models based on LUR can allow further identification of communities at risk for cardiorespiratory health outcomes. Future studies should focus on models that integrate LUR with other types of data in the region to complement existing studies, which can further allow more accurate predictors of cardiorespiratory disease. Furthermore, the use of such models can be paired with clinical health outcomes to improve strategies aimed to reduce the effects of air pollution exposure on health and associated diseases.

### **Research Outputs, Outcomes, and Impacts**

Peer-reviewed publications include:

- Aguilera, J., Jeon, S., Raysoni, A., Rangel, A., Li, W. W., and Whigham, L. (2020). Moderate to vigorous physical activity levels negatively correlate with traffic related air pollutants in children with asthma attending a school near a freeway. (Manuscript in preparation.)
- Aguilera, J., Jeon, S., Chavez, M. C., Ibarra-Mejia, G., Ferreira-Pinto, J., Whigham, L., and Li, W. W. (2020). Land use regression of long-term transportation data on metabolic syndrome risk factors in low-income communities. (Manuscript submitted to the Transportation Research Board.)

Conference papers submitted include:

- Aguilera, J., Jeon, S., Chavez, M. C., Ibarra-Mejia, G., Ferreira-Pinto, J., Li, W. W., and Whigham, L. D. (2020). Associations of traffic and related air pollutants with obesity in low-income populations in El Paso, TX. (Abstract submitted to the Obesity Society's Annual Conference: ObesityWeek, Atlanta, GA, November 2020.)
- Aguilera, J., Jeon, S., Chavez, M. C., Ibarra-Mejia, G., Ferreira-Pinto, J., Whigham, L., and Li, W. W. (2020). Short-term associations of traffic-related air pollutants on cardiorespiratory risk factors from low-Income

populations in El Paso, TX. (Abstract submitted to the Transportation, Environment, and Energy: An Integrated Research Symposium, Transportation Research Board, Denver, CO, July 2020.)

- Aguilera, J., Jeon, S., Chavez, M. C., Ibarra-Mejia, G., Ferreira-Pinto, J., Whigham, L., and Li, W. W. (2020). Land use regression modeling to assess effects of long-term transportation data on metabolic syndrome risk factors of low-income communities, TX. (Abstract submitted to the Transportation, Environment, and Energy: An Integrated Research Symposium, Transportation Research Board, Denver, CO, July 2020.)
- Aguilera, J., Jeon, S., Chavez, M. C., Ibarra-Mejia, G., Ferreira-Pinto, J., Whigham, L., and Li, W. W. (2020). Short-term associations of traffic-related air pollutants on cardiorespiratory risk factors from low-income populations in El Paso, TX. (Abstract submitted to and accepted by the second Transportation, Air Quality, and Health Symposium, Riverside, CA, May 2020.)

Presentations at conferences and technical meetings include:

- Aguilera, J. (October 2019). Moderate to vigorous physical activity levels negatively correlate with traffic related air pollutants in children with asthma attending a school near a freeway. Stanford Postdoctoral Recruitment Initiative in Sciences and Medicine presentation, Stanford, CA.
- Aguilera, J. Association of traffic and related air pollutants on cardiorespiratory risk factors from lowincome populations in El Paso. The University of Texas at El Paso, El Paso, TX.
- Aguilera, J. (March 2020). General aspects of COVID-19: Airborne transmission, immune response, and chronic disease risk. Health Clinic Day, Consulate General of Mexico in El Paso, El Paso, TX.
- Aguilera, J. (July 2020). Short-term effects of traffic related air pollution on cardiorespiratory outcomes among low-income residents from El Paso, TX. Joint Advisory Committee for the Improvement of Air Quality in the Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua/El Paso, Texas/Doña Ana County, New México Air Basin (virtual).
- Jeon, S. (July 2020). Land use regression modeling to assess effects of long-term transportation data on metabolic syndrome risk factors of low-income communities in El Paso, TX. Joint Advisory Committee for the Improvement of Air Quality in the Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua/El Paso, Texas/Doña Ana County, New México Air Basin (virtual).
- Aguilera, J. (August 2020). Land use regression of long-term transportation data on metabolic syndrome risk factors in low-income communities. Fundación Best monthly seminar in Ciudad Juarez.
- Results and main findings (the predicted probability map for MetS) were shared with the public in a virtual Joint Advisory Committee meeting.

### **Technology Transfer Outputs, Outcomes, and Impacts**

This project had the following technology transfer outputs, outcomes, and impacts:

- Air quality data were acquired from TCEQ's CAMSs, including hourly air pollutant data.
- Time-integrated air pollutant data of 24-, 48-, 72-, and 96-hr averages were processed for each subject.
- Short-term pollution exposures and long-term transportation data were extracted using GIS mapping.
- GIS layers from Census.gov and the El Paso Metropolitan Planning Organization were used.
- Statistical code for LUR modeling was developed.
- The interpolation technique was applied to produce a predicted probability map.
- Software was used as part of this study including R and ArcGIS Pro.

### **Education and Workforce Development Outputs, Outcomes, and Impacts**

This project had the following education and workforce development outputs, outcomes, and impacts:

• This project supported a doctoral student from Health Science at UTEP as a research associate.

- The project was conducted as part of a doctoral dissertation in the Interdisciplinary Health Sciences program at UTEP.
- An undergraduate student from the Department of Civil Engineering at UTEP was involved in the project.
- Training and education in application of GIS information to transportation data were conducted.

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