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Maternal exposure to aircraft emitted ultrafine particles during pregnancy and likelihood of ASD in children

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Abstract

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Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2023.108061>.

Background: There is increasing evidence for adverse health effects associated with aircraft-emitted particulate matter (PM) exposures, which are largely in the ultrafine (PM_{0.1}) size fraction, but no previous study has examined neurodevelopmental outcomes.

Objective: To assess associations between maternal exposure to aircraft ultrafine particles (UFP) during pregnancy and offspring autism spectrum disorder (ASD) diagnosis.

Methods: This large, representative cohort study included 370,723 singletons born in a single healthcare system. Demographic data, maternal health information, and child's ASD diagnosis by age 5 were extracted from electronic medical records. Aircraft exposure estimates for PM_{0.1} were generated by the University of California Davis/California Institute of Technology Source Oriented Chemical Transport model. Cox proportional hazard models were used to assess associations between maternal exposure to aircraft PM_{0.1} in pregnancy and ASD diagnosis, controlling for covariates.

Results: Over the course of follow-up, 4,554 children (1.4 %) were diagnosed with ASD. Increased risk of ASD was associated with maternal exposure to aircraft PM_{0.1} [hazard ratio, HR: 1.02, (95 % confidence interval (CI): 1.01–1.03) per IQR = 0.02 µg/m³ increase during pregnancy. Associations were robust to adjustment for total PM_{0.1} and fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}), near-roadway air pollution, and other covariates. Noise adjustment modestly attenuated estimates of UFP effects, which remained statistically significant.

Discussion: The results strengthen the emerging evidence that maternal particulate matter exposure during pregnancy is associated with offspring ASD diagnosis and identify aircraft-derived PM_{0.1} as novel targets for further study and potential regulation.

Keywords

Air pollution; Aircraft emissions; Childhood neurodevelopment; Autism spectrum disorders

1. Introduction

Emerging epidemiological evidence has shown that exposure to ultrafine particles (UFP) is associated with adverse health effects (Bendtsen et al., 2021), including respiratory illness (Habre et al., 2018; Kunzli et al., 2009), cardiovascular disease (Pope et al., 2015), and brain cancer (Wu et al., 2021). UFP are less than 100 nm in diameter and are of particular concern because their size allows them to penetrate tissues and translocate from the lungs to the blood and up the olfactory nerve to the brain (Kumar et al., 2013). Along with traffic, aircraft are a major source of UFP in urban areas (Hudda and Fruin, 2016), as high temperatures in jet engines nucleate particulate matter (PM), generating very small particles (Stacey and Pope, 2020).

Few studies have examined associations between aircraft PM and child health. In a study of mothers living within 15 km of Los Angeles International Airport, exposure to UFP from aircraft during pregnancy was associated with increased risk of preterm birth, associations that remained after adjustment for noise pollution and traffic-related emissions (Wing et al., 2020). Recent epidemiological research reported that UFP exposure during pregnancy was associated with changes in neurodevelopment in young children (Guxens

et al., 2018; Klocke et al., 2018). The associations reported with preterm birth (Wing et al., 2020) are also relevant to studies of aircraft PM exposure during pregnancy and child neurodevelopment, as preterm birth has been established as a risk factor for autism spectrum disorder (ASD) (Crump et al., 2021). ASD is a neurodevelopmental condition characterized by communication difficulties, repetitive behaviors, and deficits in social behavior (Maenner et al., 2016). ASD etiology is multifactorial and includes genetic, environmental, and perinatal factors (Hallmayer et al., 2011; Geschwind, 2011; Wang et al., 2017), including PM exposure (Jo et al., 2019; Rahman et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2022; Yu, 2019).

Despite existing literature concerning health risks associated with aircraft emissions in children and adults, to our knowledge, no previous study has assessed the relationship between maternal exposure to aircraft PM during pregnancy and likelihood of offspring ASD. Additionally, there may be differences in health outcomes related to exposure to commercial or military aircraft emissions. These forms of aviation may differ by flight paths, number of flights or fuel type. Southern California has several military bases, many of which fly military aircraft. Epidemiological evidence of the health effects of traffic related air pollution has resulted in regulation to reduce vehicular emissions (EPA, 2023). Aircraft emissions are weakly regulated under the United Nations' International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) in 2017 and 2020. Understanding associations between aircraft emissions and health is an important public health question. Examining associations between exposure to aircraft emissions during pregnancy and child ASD risk will help provide evidence to inform public health policy aiming to reduce the exposure and risk.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study population

This is a population-based retrospective pregnancy cohort study that included mother–child pairs of singleton deliveries between January 1, 2001 and December 31, 2014 at Kaiser Permanente Southern California (KPSC) hospitals. Follow-up was through December 31, 2019. KPSC is a large integrated healthcare system with over 4.5 million members in Kern, Los Angeles, Orange, Riverside, San Diego, San Bernardino, and Ventura counties. KPSC membership is diverse and similar in socioeconomic characteristics to the region's census demographics (Koebnick et al., 2012). Maternal social and demographic characteristics, pregnancy health information, and maternal residential address history were extracted from KPSC's well-established, integrated electronic medical records (EMR) system. Addresses based only on street name, 5-digit postal code, locality, or administrative unit were considered too uncertain to be used for air pollution exposure assignments and were excluded.

Singleton births with KPSC membership at age 1 ($n = 370,723$) were included in the analytical data set. A total of 52,645 births was excluded due to missing sex, maternal race/ethnicity and age at delivery, implausible age of delivery or birth weight ($n = 666$); or maternal age under 15 years or over 55 years ($n = 159$); and/or incomplete maternal residential address history in pregnancy; or addresses deemed too uncertain for accurate exposure assignment ($n = 51,820$). Participants' addresses were geocoded using ArcGIS, which was used to assess the suitability of the air pollution exposure assignments (Desktop,

2020). Geocodes with SCORE of 90–100 and ADDRESS TYPE of point address or street address were considered suitable, based on analyses designed to include only mothers who could be geocoded to 1 km² spatial resolution (a more rigorous spatial resolution than the 4 km² spatial resolution of the aircraft source exposure, described below) as previously described (Rahman et al., 2022). Addresses based only on street name, postal zip code, administrative unit (city or town) usually had SCORES < 90; ArcGIS generally geocodes these to the zip code or administrative unit centroid; these were excluded from the analytic dataset. However, these less certain addresses were assigned exposures for use in sensitivity analyses. The final data analysis included 318,078 mother–child pairs with complete data on residential estimates of aircraft-related particulate air pollution exposures. Derivation of study sample size is shown in eFigure 1 in the supplement.

Both KPSC and University of Southern California Institutional Review Boards approved this study with waiver of individual subject consent.

2.2. ASD ascertainment

The outcome was ASD diagnosis before age 5. Children were followed from birth through EMR until clinical diagnosis of ASD, loss to follow-up, or age 5, whichever came first. Children were routinely screened for potential likelihood of ASD starting at age 18 months during regular well-child visits at KPSC. The presence or absence of an ASD diagnosis during the follow-up period was identified by ICD-9 codes 299.0, 299.1, 299.8, 299.9 for EMR records before October 1, 2015 (date of KPSC implementation of ICD-10 codes) and subsequently ICD-10 codes F84.0, F84.3, F84.5, F84.8, F84.9. Codes from at least two separate visits were required for a verified ASD diagnosis, as previously described (Jo et al., 2019; Coleman et al., 2015; Xiang et al., 2015; Xiang et al., 2018).

2.3. Aircraft PM, near-roadway air pollution, and noise exposure assessment

This analysis used aircraft exposure estimates for PM_{0.1} (ultrafine) and PM_{2.5} generated by the UCD/CIT (University of California Davis/California Institute of Technology) Source Oriented Chemical Transport model (CTM). In addition to aircraft PM, the UCD/CIT SO-CTM model developed exposure estimates for PM_{0.1} and PM_{2.5} from other emission sources, such as on-road traffic and off-road traffic, which were utilized in this study to control for confounding. The UCD/CIT SO-CTM uses meteorological estimates generated by the Weather Research and Forecast (WRF) model and geographically resolved emissions estimates from the California Air Resources Board (CARB), the Global Fire Emissions Database (GFED), and the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) to predict airborne PM concentrations. All airports in California are included in CARB's aircraft emission inventory. This study utilizes CARB data from all airports present in Southern California counties covered by KPSC. CARB's aircraft emissions inventory accounts for typical flight path information including both take-off and landing, and for changes in the number of flights over time, all of which affect predicted exposure fields for aircraft particles. The regional signal of aircraft contributions to ambient UFP concentrations reported by CARB's inventory is consistent with past measurements downwind of major airports like Los Angeles International (Yu, 2019). The model calculations track the mass and number concentrations of the PM constituents in particle diameters ranging from 0.01

to 10 μm through calculations that describe emissions, transport, diffusion, deposition, coagulation, gas- and particle phase chemistry, and gas-to-particle conversion (Hu et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2015). This modelling takes into consideration the dominant regional gradients of isolated airports separated by large distances (Yu, 2019). The aircraft PM exposure fields tracked by the model represent the primary PM emissions from aircraft and do not include the secondary PM formed from gaseous NO_x and VOC aircraft emissions.

The UCD/CIT model was applied to estimate ground-level concentrations of 50 PM constituents over the major population regions in California using a 4-km grid resolution for the period from 2000 through 2016 (Hu et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2019). Model predictions were saved at hourly time resolution and averaged to longer times as needed. Predicted concentrations were evaluated against ambient measurements at all available locations and times. Bias corrections were applied using a regression model based on PM source contributions and chemical composition. The bias in CTM predictions at each monitoring location was combined with the CTM predicted concentrations of primary particles emitted from nine different source categories and the concentrations of secondary nitrate and sulfate particulate matter to form a time-series that was analyzed using multi-linear regression (MLR). Good correlations between final predictions and measurements ($r > 0.8$) were demonstrated for many of the PM_{2.5} species at most of the monitoring stations, particularly for the monthly, seasonal, and annual averages (Yu et al., 2019). For example, monthly PM_{2.5} elemental carbon was correlated with measurements with $r = 0.94$ (8 sites). Model estimated source-specific PM has been applied in several prior epidemiological studies of health effects (Laurent et al., 2014; Laurent et al., 2016; Laurent et al., 2016; Ostro et al., 2010; Ostro et al., 2015).

Average exposures to aircraft PM_{0.1} and PM_{2.5} mass were assigned to maternal addresses during the entire pregnancy. Exposures were time-weighted to account for changes of subject addresses during pregnancy. However, PM_{0.1} and PM_{2.5} were highly correlated ($r = 1.0$). Because the primary particle mass derived from aircraft emissions was in the UFP fraction or just slightly larger size, only results for UFP are presented (see Discussion Section for further details).

Exposures to average near-roadway air pollution from freeway and nonfreeway sources during pregnancy were estimated at maternal residential addresses using the California Line Source Dispersion Model (CALINE4) (Pe, 1992), which was associated with ASD in this cohort (Carter et al., 2022).

Noise exposure data were obtained from a geospatial model (Mennitt, 2016). This model provided predictions of time-integrated sound levels during 2000–2014 from anthropogenic sources, including aircraft, at 270-m spatial resolution across the contiguous United States. The estimates of sound levels are available separately from daytime (7am–7pm) and nighttime (7pm–7am). We used median A-weighting sound pressure (L50) for daytime and nighttime as metrics of noise exposure, assigned to maternal addresses during pregnancy.

2.4. Covariates

We selected covariates a priori based on existing knowledge and past literature on air pollution exposures and ASD (Jo et al., 2019; Carter et al., 2022; Pagalan et al., 2019; Ritz et al., 2018). Covariates included were child sex, maternal race/ethnicity, maternal age at delivery (ages 15 through 55), parity, maternal education, maternal history of comorbidity [≥ 1 diagnosis of heart, lung, kidney, or liver disease; cancer], median family household income in census tract of residence, birth year, and an indicator variable for season (dry from April-October; wet from November-March)]. Models were adjusted for birth year as a potential confounder because of known time trends in ASD incidence and aircraft air pollution concentration levels. Birth year was included as a non-linear term with a penalized spline of 4 degrees of freedom based on Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). Further adjustments were made for maternal pre-pregnancy diabetes mellitus and obesity (BMI ≥ 30 kg/m²), as both were shown to be risk factors for ASD in this cohort (Xiang et al., 2015). Gestational age at delivery, preterm birth and birth weight were not considered as covariates, because they may be on the casual pathway between prenatal air pollution and ASD (Bekkar et al., 2020; Gardener and Buka, 2011).

2.5. Statistical analyses

We fitted Cox proportional hazards models to estimate hazard ratios (HRs) and 95 % confidence intervals (CIs) for ASD risk associated with exposure to aircraft PM_{0.1} during pregnancy. Linearity of association of ASD risk with aircraft PM_{0.1} was examined using general additive Cox models with a smoothing spline (with 3 degrees of freedom). No significant deviations from linearity were found. We also fitted several two-pollutant models to assess whether the ASD association with aircraft PM_{0.1} remained after controlling for total PM_{0.1} (Rahman et al., 2022) and PM_{2.5} mass, non-freeway and freeway dispersion-modeled near-roadway air pollution exposures, which we have shown previously to be associated with ASD in this cohort (Carter et al., 2022), and UCD/CIT SO-CTM developed on-road traffic PM_{0.1} estimates. We also adjusted for both daytime and nighttime noise. Additional analyses tested for interactions of aircraft PM_{0.1} exposure with child's sex. Sensitivity analyses investigated the influence of PM_{0.1} from military aircraft on associations with ASD by excluding mothers living within 20 km of a military base. In further sensitivity analyses, we added mothers excluded from the analytical sample due largely to addresses not meeting the quality standard to geocode to the household, and we repeated selected key analyses to see if the estimates of effect were changed.

HRs and 95 % CIs were scaled to the interquartile range (IQR) increase in concentration of aircraft PM_{0.1} during pregnancy. All analyses were performed using R Statistical Software (v3.5.2; R Core Team 2021).

2.6. Role of the funding source

The funding agencies had no role in the design of the study, the analysis or interpretation of data, or the preparation or approval of the manuscript.

3. Results

Participant demographics and residential information are displayed in Table 1. Over the course of follow-up, 4,554 children (1.4 %) were diagnosed with ASD. Among children with ASD diagnoses, 3,700 (81 %) were males. Compared to children without ASD, children with ASD had greater proportions of older, nulliparous mothers with maternal comorbidities, pre-pregnancy diabetes, and pre-pregnancy obesity. Children with ASD were more likely to have mothers reporting Asian/Pacific Islander and non-Hispanic Black ethnicity and some college or higher educational qualifications.

Levels of aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ had no discernable time trend across the study period; levels were slightly lower between 2005 and 2009 before increasing again by 2014 (eFigure 2); Median estimated average aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ exposure during pregnancy (based on maternal residence) was $0.04 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (1st, 3rd quartiles: 0.03, 0.05 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

Aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ exposure was associated with ASD diagnosis in children (HR: 1.016; 95 % CI: 1.007–1.026). Correlations between aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ and on-road traffic $PM_{0.1}$, and nonfreeway and freeway CALINE dispersion-modeled near-roadway air pollution were ($r = -0.01$), ($r = -0.04$), and ($r = 0.08$), respectively. Adjustments for total $PM_{0.1}$ or $PM_{2.5}$ mass, $PM_{0.1}$ from on-road traffic, and for nonfreeway and freeway near-roadway air pollution in two-pollutant models did not change the magnitude or direction of the association between aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ and offspring ASD diagnosis (Table 2).

Aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ was positively correlated with daytime ($r = 0.17$) and nighttime ($r = 0.05$) noise. The adjustment for nighttime noise did not change the associations of aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ with ASD, but the adjustment for daytime noise attenuated associations (Table 2); however, the associations remained significant (HR: 1.011; 95 % CI: 1.001–1.022). When mothers living within 20 km of a military base were excluded, the magnitude of association between aircraft emissions and likelihood of ASD in children was increased (HR: 1.037; 95 % CI: 1.014–1.061). There was no significant interaction between sex of the child and aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ exposure ($p = 0.99$).

To assess the potential for selection bias due to exclusion of mothers, largely due to addresses not meeting quality standards for parcel level geocoding, sensitivity analyses were conducted. The estimated pregnancy average aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ -associated ASD risk in the analytic dataset and in a dataset including in addition the mothers excluded from the main analysis were almost identical; this was the case in models with and without adjustment for total $PM_{0.1}$ and for total $PM_{2.5}$ (eTable 1). The mothers excluded and included in the analysis had almost identical median exposure across all years of the study to aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ ($0.037 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ [interquartile range 0.025, 0.051]). These analyses suggest that the exclusion based on geocoding quality did not introduce appreciable selection bias.

4. Discussion

Using a large representative pregnancy cohort of 318,078 mother–child pairs and novel aircraft PM exposure data at 4 km resolution, this study found small but statistically significant associations between maternal exposure to aircraft $PM_{0.1}$ during pregnancy and

likelihood of ASD diagnoses in children. These associations were robust to adjustment for total $PM_{0.1}/PM_{2.5}$ mass and for on-road traffic emissions, indicating that the influence of maternal exposure to aircraft emissions on likelihood of offspring ASD was independent of the effect of regional total particulate matter and road traffic air pollutants. These associations were also independent of residential noise levels.

Primary particulate matter emissions from aircraft engines are dominated by high concentrations of UFP (Mazaheri et al., 2009). Primary particles emitted from jet engines have a bimodal size distribution, with the first mass mode located at approximately 0.02 μm and the second mass mode peaking between 0.60 and 0.10 μm (see eFigure 3). The $PM_{0.1}$ size fraction is a subset of the $PM_{2.5}$ size fraction, and so the exposure patterns for aircraft primary $PM_{0.1}$ and $PM_{2.5}$ are highly correlated. The predicted concentrations of metal and other components, primary organics, elemental carbon, primary nitrate and sulfate are similar in each particle size bin. The PM sulfate is produced by the oxidation of sulfur contained in the jet fuel. This hygroscopic component will cause the aircraft particles to grow due to water condensation as they age in the atmosphere. The concentration of primary aircraft particles reported here does not include secondary particulate matter produced by atmospheric chemistry. These secondary concentrations are tracked in the exposure calculations, but they are included as part of other exposure variables such as total $PM_{0.1}$ mass, or $PM_{2.5}$ nitrate, etc.

While there have been limited epidemiological investigations on the health effects of aircraft emissions during pregnancy, previous literature has reported associations between maternal exposure to aircraft emissions during pregnancy and preterm births (Wing et al., 2020; Wing et al., 2022). Aircraft particles are enriched in redox-active poly aromatic hydrocarbons and metals (Bendtsen et al., 2021). These nanosized particles are inhaled into the lower respiratory tract, cross the alveolar barrier, and translocate into the systemic circulation (Bendtsen et al., 2021). A short-term health effects study conducted in the Los Angeles area reported that airport-related UFPs were associated with higher systemic inflammation in adults with asthma (Habre et al., 2018). Animal models have shown that exposure to airport pollutants increases inflammation and genotoxicity (Bendtsen et al., 2019). Particulate matter can cross the placental barrier (Chen et al., 2021). Since aircraft PM is dominated by ultrafine particles, it is possible that they cross the placental barrier and induce oxidative stress and inflammation in fetal tissues (Bongaerts et al., 2020; Morales-Rubio et al., 2019; Calderon-Garciduenas et al., 2022; Cory-Slechta et al., 2019). Oxidative stress in pregnancy may also impair placental function, compromising the transfer of oxygen and nutrients to the fetus (Schoots et al., 2018); this pathway has been linked to fetal growth restriction, low birthweight, and the fetal programming of chronic diseases (Rodriguez-Rodriguez et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2015; Arogbokun et al., 2021). Additionally, several studies have reported associations between $PM_{2.5}$ exposure during pregnancy and systemic inflammation, which may impact fetal neurodevelopment (Wei et al., 2016; Saghazadeh et al., 2019; Campbell et al., 2009; Kleinman et al., 2008).

We tested the independence of the aircraft PM association with ASD by adjusting for several metrics of traffic related air pollution. The strength of associations did not change after adjustment for roadway traffic air pollutants in two-pollutant models. Unlike near-roadway

air pollution which has steep gradients near roadways, aircraft emissions result in broad exposures over residences on flight paths and have relatively high concentrations of UFP present in areas near landing aircraft (Hudda and Fruin, 2016; Austin et al., 2021; Hudda et al., 2014).

Noise level is relatively high near airports so the observed effects of aircraft PM could be confounded by noise; we adjusted our models for estimated daytime and nighttime noise levels to assess the independence of the aircraft PM association. Daytime (but not nighttime) noise attenuated HRs of the significant association slightly, suggesting that part of the association with aircraft PMs may have been due to residential noise exposure during pregnancy.

Previous research has identified exposure to military aircraft fuel and emissions, which is distinct from those of commercial aircraft, as potential threats to long term health (Smith et al., 2010; Buja et al., 2005). Southern California has several military bases, many of which fly military aircraft. CTM calculations predict significantly higher concentrations of aircraft particles around military airbases compared to civilian airports due to higher concentrations of sulfur in military aircraft fuel. Ambient measurements to confirm these enhanced concentrations are not available. In this study, the exclusion of pregnant women living near military bases strengthened the associations between aircraft emissions and offspring ASD. It may be that the fewer number of departures and landings at military bases meant that people living close to these locations were exposed to less aircraft emissions in general than those living in closer proximity to commercial airports (Waitz and Lee, 2005). No previous study has considered whether associations between PM exposure and ASD differ by household proximity to military aircraft bases. Further research into differences between commercial and military aircraft emission exposures and their effects is warranted.

This study utilized a large, diverse longitudinal cohort, which provided health and residential EMR data for mother–child pairs across Southern California, as well as information concerning relevant confounders. The KPSC cohort is representative of the study population, allowing results to be broadly generalized at least to Southern California. This study was also strengthened by the consideration of PM mass in ultrafine size fraction, on-road traffic emissions, and noise, several other neurotoxic exposures common to urban environments. While detailed information about aircraft on military bases, such as number of flights or type of fuel used, was not available, maternal residential data allowed for sensitivity analyses concerning the influence of proximity to military bases during pregnancy on ASD diagnoses in children. This study has some limitations. Paternal information was unavailable; therefore, we were unable to control for paternal contributions to ASD risk. Information on mothers' time-activity during pregnancy (time spent by mothers at work, in transit, or leisure) were not included in these models but could have affected aircraft PM exposures estimated only at home. Although we adjusted for noise exposure, noise specific to aircraft was not available to us and could be more relevant to this analysis.

5. Conclusion

Maternal exposure to aircraft PM_{0.1} during pregnancy was associated with increased risk of ASD diagnoses in children. Associations remained after adjusting for total PM and on-road traffic emissions; they were attenuated yet remained significant after adjusting for daytime noise. The results of this study suggest that the risk of offspring ASD after maternal exposure to aircraft emissions during pregnancy is independent of the effect of total PM mass, road traffic air pollutants, and noise. Aircraft emissions are an important source of PM and a potential target of regulation to better protect public health.

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Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Data availability

The data that has been used is confidential.

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Table 1

Cohort characteristics and comparison between children without and with ASD.

	No ASD, N = 313,524	ASD, N = 4,554
Maternal Age at Delivery in years, Median (IQR)	30.4 (26.2, 34.3)	31.3 (27.5, 35.3)
Parity, N (%)		
0	109,889 (35 %)	1,843 (40 %)
1	102,843 (33 %)	1,493 (33 %)
2	83,074 (26 %)	901 (20 %)
Unknown	17,718 (5.7 %)	317 (7.0 %)
Maternal Race/Ethnicity, N (%)		
White	79,879 (25 %)	953 (21 %)
Black	29,212 (9.3 %)	446 (9.8 %)
Hispanic	158,848 (51 %)	2,299 (50 %)
Other	6,416 (2.0 %)	112 (2.5 %)
Asian/Pacific Islander	39,169 (12 %)	744 (16 %)
Maternal Education, N (%)		
High School	110,512 (35 %)	1,334 (29 %)
Some College	92,826 (30 %)	1,473 (32 %)
College & Post	107,180 (34 %)	1,713 (38 %)
Unknown	3,006 (1.0 %)	34 (0.7 %)
Census tract household annual income (thousands of US dollars), Median (IQR)	56 (42, 75)	56 (42, 75)
History of Comorbidity, N (%)	45,801 (15 %)	838 (18 %)
Maternal diabetes, N (%)	20,026 (6.4 %)	449 (9.9 %)
Maternal obesity (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²), N (%)		
No	146,961 (47 %)	2,304 (51 %)
Yes	52,299 (17 %)	1,049 (23 %)
Unknown*	114,264 (36 %)	1,201 (26 %)
Sex		
Male	159,143 (51 %)	3,700 (81 %)
Birth address within 20 km of military base	22,243 (7.1 %)	300 (6.6 %)

* Height and weight at each clinical visit were not recorded in KPSC EMR until late 2006; maternal BMI data were missing for children born between 2001 and 2006.

Table 2

Adjusted Hazard ratios (HR) of ASD in children associated with maternal exposure to aircraft PM_{0,1} during pregnancy.

	HR (95 % CI) for Aircraft PM _{0,1}
<i>Adjustment for other ambient pollution</i>	
None ^a	1.016 (1.007–1.026)
Adjusted for total PM _{0,1}	1.016 (1.007–1.026)
Adjusted for total PM _{2,5}	1.017 (1.007–1.027)
Adjusted for on-road traffic PM _{0,1}	1.017 (1.007–1.027)
Adjusted for non-freeway near-roadway air pollution *	1.017 (1.008–1.027)
Adjusted for freeway near-roadway air pollution *	1.019 (1.009–1.028)
Adjusted for nighttime noise	1.016 (1.006–1.025)
Adjusted for daytime noise	1.011 (1.001–1.022)
<i>Excluding mothers living within 20 km of military base</i> ^b	1.037 (1.014–1.061)

All models were adjusted for birth year, medical center, maternal age, maternal ethnicity, maternal education, parity, history of comorbidity, income at age one, season of conception, pre-pregnancy diabetes mellitus, pre-pregnancy obesity, and child's sex.

* CALINE dispersion-modeled near-roadway air pollution.

^aSingle-pollutant model results.

^bThis analysis included 295,535 mothers-child pairs, excluding 22,543 pairs living within 20 km of the military bases.