Contents lists available at ScienceDirect





Environment International

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/envint

Impacts of air pollution and noise on risk of preterm birth and stillbirth in London



Rachel B. Smith^{a,b}, Sean D. Beevers^c, John Gulliver^{a,d}, David Dajnak^c, Daniela Fecht^e, Marta Blangiardo^a, Margaret Douglass^e, Anna L. Hansell^{b,d,e}, H. Ross Anderson^{c,f}, Frank J. Kelly^{b,c}, Mireille B. Toledano^{a,b,*}

^a MRC-PHE Centre for Environment and Health, Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Imperial College London, St Mary's Campus, Norfolk Place, London W2 1PG, UK

^b NIHR HPRU in Health Impact of Environmental Hazards, King's College London, Franklin-Wilkins Building, 150 Stamford Street, London SE1 9NH, UK

^c MRC-PHE Centre for Environment and Health, Environmental Research Group, Faculty of Life Sciences & Medicine, King's College London, Franklin-Wilkins Building, 150 Stamford Street, London SE1 9NH, UK

^d Centre for Environmental Health and Sustainability, University of Leicester, Leicester, UK

^e UK Small Area Health Statistics Unit, MRC-PHE Centre for Environment and Health, Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Imperial College London. W2 1PG, UK

^f Population Health Research Institute, St George's, University of London, Cranmer Terrace, London SW17 ORE, UK

ARTICLE INFO

Handling Editor: Hanna Boogaard Keywords: Particulate matter Nitrogen dioxide Nitrogen oxides Ozone Vehicle exhaust Traffic Pregnancy

ABSTRACT

Background: Evidence for associations between ambient air pollution and preterm birth and stillbirth is inconsistent. Road traffic produces both air pollutants and noise, but few studies have examined these co-exposures together and none to date with all-cause or cause-specific stillbirths. Objectives: To analyse the relationship between long-term exposure to air pollution and noise at address level during pregnancy and risk of preterm birth and stillbirth. Methods: The study population comprised 581,774 live and still births in the Greater London area, 2006-2010. Outcomes were preterm birth (< 37 completed weeks gestation), all-cause stillbirth and cause-specific stillbirth. Exposures during pregnancy to particulate matter with diameter $< 2.5 \,\mu m$ (PM_{2.5}) and $< 10 \,\mu m$ (PM₁₀), ozone (O₃), primary traffic air pollutants (nitrogen dioxide, nitrogen oxides, PM_{2.5} from traffic exhaust and traffic nonexhaust), and road traffic noise were estimated based on maternal address at birth. Results: An interquartile range increase in O₃ exposure was associated with elevated risk of preterm birth (OR 1.15 95% CI: 1.11, 1.18, for both Trimester 1 and 2), all-cause stillbirth (Trimester 1 OR 1.17 95% CI: 1.07, 1.27; Trimester 2 OR 1.20 95% CI: 1.09, 1.32) and asphyxia-related stillbirth (Trimester 1 OR 1.22 95% CI: 1.01, 1.49). Odds ratios with the other air pollutant exposures examined were null or < 1, except for primary traffic non-exhaust related PM2.5, which was associated with 3% increased odds of preterm birth (Trimester 1) and 7% increased odds stillbirth (Trimester 1 and 2) when adjusted for O3. Elevated risk of preterm birth was associated with increasing road traffic noise, but only after adjustment for certain air pollutant exposures. Discussion: Our findings suggest that exposure to higher levels of O₃ and primary traffic non-exhaust related

Discussion: Our findings suggest that exposure to higher levels of O_3 and primary traffic non-exhaust related $PM_{2.5}$ during pregnancy may increase risk of preterm birth and stillbirth; and a possible relationship between long-term traffic-related noise and risk of preterm birth. These findings extend and strengthen the evidence base for important public health impacts of ambient ozone, particulate matter and noise in early life.

1. Introduction

There is strong evidence that exposure to ambient air pollution during pregnancy is associated with increased risk of infant mortality and reduced birth weight (Lacasana et al., 2005; Sun et al., 2016), but evidence for associations with preterm birth (PTB) and stillbirth is less consistent (Klepac et al., 2018; Siddika et al., 2016). Road traffic is a major contributor to air pollution, especially in urban areas, but it is

E-mail address: m.toledano@imperial.ac.uk (M.B. Toledano).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2019.105290

Received 3 May 2019; Received in revised form 14 October 2019; Accepted 25 October 2019

0160-4120/ \odot 2019 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/BY/4.0/).

^{*} Corresponding author at: MRC-PHE Centre for Environment and Health, Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Imperial College London, St Mary's Campus, Norfolk Place, London W2 1PG, UK.

also a source of noise. Adverse health effects associated with road traffic noise, independent of air pollution, include hypertension and cardio-vascular outcomes (Kempen et al., 2018; Stansfeld, 2015), thus noise could plausibly affect PTB and stillbirth. Potential biological mechanistic pathways are oxidative stress and systemic inflammatory responses for air pollution (Kelly, 2003; Vadillo-Ortega et al., 2014), and stress responses for noise (Nieuwenhuijsen et al., 2017), leading to e.g. disrupted placental function, and thus adverse birth outcomes. Ozone (O_3) is a secondary toxic air pollutant, the distribution of which is highly influenced by traffic-related air pollution in urban areas, because close to nitrogen oxide (NO_X) sources such as road traffic, O_3 is titrated out by NO_X and thus decreased.

In England and Wales in 2016, 8.1% of all births were preterm and the stillbirth rate was 4.4 per 1000 total births (ONS, 2017). PTB is a leading direct cause of neonatal death, and is associated with increased morbidity and long-term sequelae (Lawn et al., 2010). Failure to account for road traffic noise co-exposures could contribute to heterogeneity of findings for air pollution in relation to PTB and stillbirth in previous research (Klepac et al., 2018; Siddika et al., 2016). Air pollution and noise have been investigated jointly in relation to PTB in four study populations with conflicting results (Arroyo et al., 2016; Barba-Vasseur et al., 2017; Dzhambov et al., 2019; Gehring et al., 2014), but not in relation to stillbirth. This study investigates long-term exposure to traffic-related air pollution and noise, and O_3 during pregnancy and risk of PTB and, for the first time also, all-cause and cause-specific stillbirth.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Births data

All births (N = 687,147) occurring during 2006–2010 to mothers residing within middle layer super output areas (MSOAs) completely within the M25 were extracted from the UK National Births/Stillbirth registers supplied by the Office for National Statistics (ONS). A map of the study area has been published elsewhere (Smith et al., 2017). The M25 is an orbital motorway surrounding Greater London (2317 km²). These registers provide routine data on all live and stillbirths (legally defined in the UK as born after 24 completed weeks gestation showing no signs of life) in the UK, including birth weight, sex, maternal age, maternal residential address at birth, and Wigglesworth stillbirth cause of death codes classified by ONS (Dattani and Rowan, 2002). Gestational age and infant ethnicity were appended from the NHS Numbers for Babies (NN4B) dataset, with 99% linkage. Gestational age assessment is likely to be based on routine second trimester scans, although some may be based on last menstrual period (Moser and Hilder, 2008). Preterm birth was defined as < 37 completed weeks gestation.

We geocoded maternal residential addresses using QuickAddress Software (0.1 m accuracy) (Experian Ltd, 2015). Information on maternal residential mobility during pregnancy was not available. We appended the following 2011 census output area (COA)-level data: Carstairs deprivation index from the UK Census 2011 standardised across COAs in the study area (Carstairs and Morris, 1990); and, as a smoking proxy, 2014 tobacco expenditure (GBP) per week per person (population \geq 16 years) from CACI Ltd.

2.2. Exposure assessment

The air pollution and noise modelling and exposure assessment are described in detail elsewhere (Smith et al., 2017). Average monthly concentrations of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), NO_X, O₃, particulate matter with diameter < $2.5 \,\mu$ m (PM_{2.5}) and < $10 \,\mu$ m (PM₁₀), PM_{2.5} from traffic exhaust (PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust}) and traffic non-exhaust (PM_{2.5 traffic-non-exhaust} = brake/tyre wear particles and resuspension of road dust) were estimated for 20x20m regular grid points across the study area, using dispersion modelling (KCLurban) (Beevers et al., 2013). NO₂,

NO_X, PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} and PM_{2.5 traffic-non-exhaust} are primary trafficrelated pollutants (i.e. locally emitted/rapidly formed near-source oxidation products). O₃ is a secondary pollutant, which in London varies inversely with NO2 and NOX due to titration, meaning it tends to be lowest around major roads and highest in residential areas. PM2.5 and PM₁₀ are more homogeneously distributed than primary traffic-related pollutants. PM2.5 and PM10 include particles from primary traffic sources, but are mostly dominated by regional/long-range particles and secondary particles formed through atmospheric chemical reactions. The KCLurban model uses Atmospheric Dispersion Modelling System v4 and road source model v2.3: data on emissions from the London Atmospheric Emissions Inventory (LAEI):(Greater London Authority (GLA) 2010) empirically derived NO-NO₂-O₃ and PM relationships: and hourly meteorological information (Beevers et al., 2013). Model predictions show good agreement with the observations across measurement site types and seasonality (spearman correlation coefficients (r) between observed vs modelled monthly concentrations: r > 0.91 for NO_x , PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$, r > 0.83 for NO_2 and r > 0.9 for O_3 at both roadside and background locations) (Beevers and Dajnak, 2015), providing robust metrics for subsequent analysis. Normalised mean bias (NMB) for modelled monthly predictions were as follows: NO_X (NMB = 11%), NO₂ (NMB = 11%), $PM_{2.5}$ (NMB = 5%), PM_{10} (NMB = 6%) and O_3 (NMB = -13%). $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} were predicted slightly more accurately than NO2 and NOX and O3, but for all these pollutants model bias was in the same direction (over-prediction), except for O₃ which under-predicted (reflecting the positive NO₂ bias). Each maternal address was assigned monthly air pollutant concentrations for the nearest 20x20m grid point. Time-weighted averages were calculated for whole pregnancy, trimesters, and last 3 months of pregnancy. Day 1 of pregnancy was calculated by converting 'completed' gestation weeks to days, adding 4 days (to adjust for underestimation as true gestation may not be an exact number of completed weeks), and subtracting from date of birth. However, initial examination of functional air pollutant-outcome relationships indicated that whole pregnancy, Trimester 2 and Trimester 3 average air pollutant exposures demonstrated U-shaped functional relationships with outcomes, that were not present for average exposures over fixed length time periods (i.e. Trimester 1 and last 3 months preceding birth). We found that this was due to the strong seasonal pattern in our modelled air pollutants combining with shorter average gestational age for cases vs non-cases for both PTB and stillbirth. This meant that average exposures for those with shorter gestations were more strongly influenced by seasonal peaks and troughs, and thus more likely to be further above or further below the mean in the exposure distribution, than those with longer gestation periods, resulting in U-shaped functional relationships. We therefore limited the analysis to Trimester 1, Trimester 2 (but restricted to births occurring at \geq 186 days, i.e. having full length Trimester 2), and last 3 months of pregnancy air pollution exposures, to avoid bias associated with mean gestation being shorter for preterm vs term births, and still vs live births. Last 3 months exposure was not analysed for preterm birth, as this outcome is a function of gestational age, and thus the underlying biological time window it represents would clearly be different for preterm vs term births. Analysis of last 3 months of pregnancy exposure was analysed only for stillbirth, and further restricted to term births (i.e. 37 weeks gestation) in sensitivity analyses to achieve greater comparability in terms of the biological time window for cases vs non-cases.

A-weighted sound pressure levels from road traffic, specifically annual average $L_{Aeq,16hr}$ (0700–2300 h); L_{night} (2300–0700); L_{day} (0700–1900); L_{eve} (1900–2300); and L_{den} (composite of L_{day} , L_{eve} , and L_{night} with a 5 dB(A) penalty added to the L_{eve} and 10 dB(A) penalty added to L_{night}), were modelled to 0.1 dB(A) resolution for all maternal residential addresses (1 m from the façade on the side of the dwelling closest to the nearest road section with traffic information) using the TRAffic Noise EXposure (TRANEX) model (Gulliver et al., 2015). We modelled noise for a single year (2007) and applied these values to

Characteristics of the study population.

Total population 578,382 33,712 (5.83) 581,774 3392 (0.58)	
Infant sex	
Male 296,356 18,390 (6.21) 298,181 1825 (0.61)	
Female 282,026 15,322 (5.43) 283,593 1567 (0.55)	
Maternal age	
< 25 108,324 6762 (6.24) 108,999 675 (0.62)	
25–29 149,696 8295 (5.54) 150,493 797 (0.53)	
30–34 180,684 9722 (5.38) 181,637 953 (0.52)	
≥35 139,678 8933 (6.4) 140,645 967 (0.69)	
Ethnicity	
White 304.225 15.710 (5.16) 305.596 1371 (0.45)	
Asian 100.681 6448 (6.4) 101.380 699 (0.69)	
Black 99 790 7263 (7 28) 100 712 922 (0 92)	
Other 73,686 4291 (5.82) 74,086 400 (0.54)	
Birth registration	
Within marriage ^a 370.312 19.296 (5.21) 372.414 2102 (0.56)	
Sole registration 39 464 3274 (8.3) 39 837 373 (0.94)	
Joint Vame address 113.008 6929 (6.13) 113.648 640 (0.56)	
Joint/different address 55,598 4213 (7.58) 55,875 277 (0.5)	
Season of conception	
Winter 147 318 8299 (5 63) 148 177 859 (0 58)	
Spring 139.942 8748 (6.25) 140.768 826 (0.59)	
Summer 142.005 920(7.59) 142.924 922 (0.59)	
Autumn 148,127 8358 (5.64) 148,995 866 (0.56)	
Voor of hirth	
2006 102.722 6528 (6.66) 100.204 662 (0.61)	
2000 100,52 0000 105,554 002 (0.01) 2007 114,197 6709 (5.65) 114,954 717 (0.52)	
2007 114,157 0706 (5.57) 114,054 717 (0.02) 2009 114,677 6019 (5.65) 115,192 675 (6.50)	
2006 114,507 0616 (5.95) 115,162 075 (0.59)	
2009 11,609 06/0 (5.67) 118,527 053 (0.54)	
2010 123,31/ 6848 (5.55) 124,01/ /00 (0.56)	
Carstairs quintile	
1 - least deprived 90,212 4163 (4.61) 90,614 402 (0.44)	
2 97,970 4924 (5.03) 98,439 469 (0.48)	
3 107,932 6216 (5.76) 108,548 616 (0.57)	
4 128,051 7876 (6.15) 128,894 843 (0.65)	
5 – most deprived 154,217 10,533 (6.83) 155,279 1062 (0.68)	
Tobacco expenditure quintile	
1 117,052 5815 (4.97) 117,648 596 (0.51)	
2 117,251 6265 (5.34) 117,884 633 (0.54)	
3 117,126 6825 (5.83) 117,822 696 (0.59)	
4 117,937 7487 (6.35) 118,672 735 (0.62)	
5 109,016 7320 (6.71) 109,748 732 (0.67)	
London	
Inner 185,277 10,875 (5.87) 186,336 1059 (0.57)	
Outer 393,105 22,837 (5.81) 395,438 2333 (0.59)	

Note: PTB, preterm birth (< 37 completed weeks gestation).

^a Includes civil partnerships.

^b Denominator is live births.

^c Denominator is live and still births.

other years for the same address locations as initial noise modelling had shown temporal variability over the study period was negligible. Noise could not be estimated for 4.5% of births due to address point (receptor) placement issues (Gulliver et al., 2015), however these addresses were randomly spatially distributed. TRANEX model validation studies demonstrated high correlation between model predictions and measured noise levels (Gulliver et al., 2015). Addresses exposed to > 50 dB(A) noise (L_{day}) from railways or aircraft (Heathrow and City Airports) were flagged. Railway and City Airport noise data were from Environmental Noise Directive strategic noise mapping (2006 annual average), and Heathrow Airport noise from annual average contours (2001) from the Civil Aviation Authority.

2.3. Exclusions

We restricted to singleton births, excluding 23,131 multiple births. We excluded births with gestational age < 24 weeks (N = 625, 0.1%) and > 44 weeks (N = 458, 0.1%) or missing data for gestational age (n = 9725, 1.5%), noise (N = 31,197, 4.7%), or ethnicity (N = 47,710, 7.2%) leaving 581,774 live and stillbirths. Analysis of PTB was restricted to 578,382 live births. Missing/extreme values exclusion counts are not mutually exclusive.

2.4. Statistical methods

Air pollutant and noise exposures were analysed as continuous measures rescaled to interquartile range (IQR) increments, in order that effect estimates could be compared for exposures with different absolute ranges. We analysed one day-time (LAeq,16hr) and one nighttime (Lnight) metric, as all noise exposures were highly correlated. Noise metrics were right skewed so were additionally analysed as a categorical variable ($L_{Aeq,16hr} < 55 \, dB$ (reference), $55- < 60 \, dB$, 60– < 65 dB, \geq 65 dB; and L_{night} < 50 dB (reference), 50– < 55 dB, 55– < 60 dB, 60– < 65 dB, \geq 65 dB). We analysed PTB and stillbirth using logistic regression (in Stata version 13). We also analysed 2 causespecific stillbirth groups: congenital malformations (Wigglesworth code 1) and asphyxia/anoxia/trauma (Wigglesworth codes 4 and 8A) (Dattani and Rowan, 2002). The remaining cause-specific codes either contained insufficiently large numbers for robust analysis (antepartum infections - code 2, external conditions - code 5, other specific conditions - code 7) or did not constitute a meaningful homogeneous causespecific group (other conditions - codes 0 and 8B) for analysis. All models were adjusted, a priori, for sex, maternal age (< 25, 25-29, 30–34 and \geq 35); birth registration type (within marriage, joint-same address, joint-different address, sole registered), baby's ethnicity (White, Asian, Black, Other), tobacco expenditure, Carstairs deprivation quintile, season of conception, and year; and a random intercept for MSOA was included to account for underlying spatial patterns in the data from potentially unmeasured confounders. We further adjusted air pollutants for noise, and vice versa in joint-exposure models. We ran two-air-pollutant models for O3 vs each of other air pollutants, assessing models on a case-by-case basis for collinearity by inspecting standard errors (i.e. if standard error more than doubled). We performed several sensitivity analyses: evaluating possible effect modification by ethnicity (exposure \times ethnicity interaction term), deprivation (exposure × Carstairs quintile interaction term), Inner/Outer London (exposure × Inner/Outer London interaction term); excluding those exposed to higher railway/aircraft noise (> 50 dB); and stillbirth stratified by term/preterm. We also used generalized additive models (GAM) to evaluate non-linearity (in R version 3.1.2 mgcv package).

2.5. Ethical approval

The study uses SAHSU data - UK National Births and Stillbirth register data and NHS Numbers for Babies (NN4B), supplied by the Office for National Statistics (NN4B now taken over by NHS Digital and referred to as Birth Notifications Data). The study was covered by national research ethics approval from the London-South East Research Ethics Committee - reference 17/LO/0846. Data access was covered by the Health Research Authority - Confidentiality Advisory Group under Regulation 5 of the Health Service (Control of Patient Information) Regulations 2002- HRA CAG reference: 14/CAG/1039.

3. Results

The study population contained 33,712 preterm births (5.83%) and 3392 stillbirths (0.58%), and distributions of these outcomes according to population, temporal, and spatial characteristics are summarised in Table 1. Table 2 provides summary statistics for air and noise pollution exposures. Air pollutant exposures within the same time window were positively correlated (0.51-1.00), except with O₃ which was negatively correlated with all other air pollutants (-0.23 to -0.76) (Supplementary Table 1). Road traffic noise was positively correlated with air pollutant exposures (0.08–0.39) except O_3 (~-0.08). Prevalence of PTB and stillbirth, and mean air pollutant exposures (NO₂, NO_x, PM_{2.5} traffic-exhaust, PM2.5, PM10) decreased, and mean noise exposures increased in the population from 2006 to 2010 (Supplementary Tables 2 & 3). The latter must reflect changing spatial distribution of maternal residential addresses over time as noise modelling was not timevarying. Relationships between potential confounders and exposures and outcomes are shown in Supplementary Tables 2 and 3 respectively, and functional relationships between outcomes and exposures are shown in Supplementary Figs. 1 & 2.

In adjusted single-pollutant models, an IQR increase in Trimester 1

and Trimester 2 O₃ were both associated with 15% increased odds of PTB (OR 1.15 95% CI: 1.11, 1.18) and 17% and 20% increased odds of all-cause stillbirth respectively (Trimester 1 OR 1.17 95% CI: 1.07, 1.27; Trimester 2 OR 1.20 95% CI: 1.09, 1.32) (Tables 3 and 4), whereas other air pollutants in Trimester 1 or Trimester 2 were associated with ORs < 1.00 or no association. There were no associations between stillbirth and any air pollutant exposures during the last 3 months preceding birth (Table 4). Air pollutant ORs were virtually unchanged when adjusted for day- or night-time road traffic noise (Tables 3 and 4).

In single-exposure adjusted models, neither continuous nor categorical road traffic noise was associated with PTB or stillbirth (Table 5. Supplementary Table 4), and single-exposure adjusted GAMs were consistent with this (not shown). However, an IQR increase in road traffic noise was associated with 1-2% increased odds of PTB after adjustment for Trimester 1 $\mathrm{NO}_2,\,\mathrm{NO}_X,\,\mathrm{PM}_{2.5}$ $_{\mathrm{traffic-exhaust}}$ and $\mathrm{PM}_{10},\,\mathrm{and}$ Trimester 2 NO2, NOX, PM2.5 traffic-exhaust, PM2.5 traffic-non-exhaust and PM₁₀, in turn (Table 5). This appeared driven by elevated odds of PTB in the highest (\geq 65 dB) noise category, with a similar pattern observed for stillbirth in relation to noise $\geq 65 \, dB$ (Supplementary Table 4). In adjusted joint-exposure GAMs, associations for road traffic noise were generally consistent with results from logistic regression models for continuous road traffic noise, i.e. suggestive of small elevated risk of PTB associated with an IQR increase in noise, after adjustment for primary traffic-related air pollutants (NO2, NOx, PM2.5 traffic-exhaust, $\text{PM}_{2.5\ \text{traffic-non-exhaust}}\text{)}\text{,}$ but with little suggestion of associations with stillbirth. There was little indication of non-linear relationships with noise, nor of elevated risk associated with noise $\geq 65 \, dB$ specifically (Supplementary Figs. 3 and 4, only night-time noise shown).

In two-air-pollutant models for O_3 vs each of the other pollutants, Trimester 1 and 2 O_3 exposures were associated with elevated risk of PTB and stillbirth when adjusted for other air pollutants, except PM₁₀ for Trimester 2 (PTB) and PM₁₀ for Trimester 1 (stillbirth) (Tables 6 and 7). 'Protective' associations for PTB observed for Trimester 1 NO₂, NO_X or PM_{2.5} traffic-exhaust were attenuated to null, and PM_{2.5} traffic non-exhaust became associated with a small increased risk of PTB (OR 1.03, 95%CI: 1.01, 1.05), when adjusted for O₃. Other ORs for PTB were slightly attenuated by adjustment for O₃. Trimester 1 and 2 PM_{2.5} traffic non-exhaust was also associated with a small increased risk for stillbirth (OR 1.07, 95%CI: 1.01, 1.13) when adjusted for O₃. Few 'protective' associations with stillbirth remained after adjustment for O₃ (only Trimester 1 PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀). Associations between stillbirth and any air pollutant exposures during the last 3 months preceding birth remained null in two-air-pollutant models (Table 7).

There was generally some increase in the standard errors for the exposure terms in two-air-pollutant models, but not of a magnitude indicating multicollinearity.

Analysis of cause-specific stillbirth revealed Trimester 1 O₃ was associated with 22% (1–49%) increased odds of asphyxia-related stillbirth (similar OR for Trimester 2 O₃ but not reaching statistical significance). ORs < 1.00 were observed for asphyxia-related stillbirth in relation to Trimester 2 PM_{2.5} traffic-exhaust, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, and for congenital malformations-related stillbirth in relation to Trimester 1 PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, but associations for all other air pollutant or noise exposures were null (Table 8). Air pollutant and noise associations were unchanged when further adjusted for noise and air pollutants respectively (not shown).

3.1. Sensitivity analyses

Results for Trimester 1 air pollutant exposures (and noise adjusted for Trimester 1 air pollutant exposures) were very similar when restricted to the subset for whom Trimester 2 air pollutant exposures were analysed (i.e. those with a full-length Trimester 2) (Supplementary Tables 5, 6, and 7). Associations between stillbirth and Trimester 1 and 2 air pollutants were similar when stratified term/preterm, and there

Air pollution and road traffic noise exposures in the study population (N = 581,774).

Exposure	Mean	SD	Min	25th percentile	Median	75th percentile	Max	IQR
Air pollutants (Trimester 1 average) (μ g/m ³)								
NO ₂	41.1	9.9	15.8	33.5	40.1	47.6	186.5	14.0
NO _X	73.7	27.0	19.9	53.0	69.2	89.7	513.4	36.7
PM _{2.5} traffic-exhaust	0.63	0.30	0.11	0.42	0.57	0.77	7.60	0.35
PM _{2.5} traffic-non-exhaust	0.73	0.32	0.13	0.51	0.68	0.89	7.10	0.38
PM _{2.5}	14.6	2.4	8.7	13.1	14.7	16.3	30.9	3.2
PM ₁₀	23.6	3.1	12.3	21.5	23.5	25.5	50.8	4.0
O ₃	31.1	11.4	0.0	22.9	30.7	40.5	60.3	17.6
Air pollutants (Trimester 2 average) (μg/m ³)								
NO ₂	40.6	10.2	14.3	33.0	39.7	47.3	200.8	14.4
NO _X	72.6	27.3	16.8	51.7	68.3	89.0	581.2	37.3
PM _{2.5} traffic-exhaust	0.62	0.30	0.11	0.41	0.55	0.75	7.32	0.35
PM _{2.5} traffic-non-exhaust	0.73	0.31	0.14	0.51	0.67	0.89	7.65	0.38
PM _{2.5}	14.5	2.5	8.7	12.7	14.6	16.3	28.6	3.6
PM_{10}	23.2	3.5	11.8	20.9	23.3	25.4	52.5	4.5
O ₃	32.0	11.9	0.0	23.2	31.7	42.3	60.9	19.1
Air pollutants (Last 3 months average) (μ g/m ³)								
NO ₂	40.0	10.2	14.3	32.3	39.0	46.7	187.7	14.4
NO _X	71.1	27.3	16.7	50.3	66.5	87.3	539.3	37.0
PM _{2.5} traffic-exhaust	0.60	0.29	0.12	0.40	0.53	0.73	6.68	0.33
PM _{2.5} traffic-non-exhaust	0.72	0.31	0.13	0.50	0.66	0.87	7.11	0.38
PM _{2.5}	14.2	2.5	8.6	12.2	14.3	15.9	29.7	3.6
PM_{10}	22.5	3.8	11.8	20.3	22.8	24.9	51.4	4.7
O ₃	32.5	11.6	0.0	24.3	32.6	42.3	60.9	17.9
Noise (dB)								
L _{Aeq.16hr}	58.1	5.2	54.7	55.0	55.4	58.5	86.0	3.5
Lnight	53.2	5.4	49.6	49.9	50.5	53.8	80.0	3.9
L _{day}	58.4	5.2	55.0	55.2	55.7	58.8	86.4	3.6
Leve	56.9	4.9	53.7	54.0	54.4	57.1	84.4	3.1
L _{den}	59.8	5.2	56.3	56.6	57.1	60.3	86.7	3.7

Note: with the exception of maximum value for NO₂ Last 3 Months exposure, the summary statistics did not vary between the various subsets used in analysis, and are thus presented for the full study population here.

Table 3

Odds of preterm birth associated with air pollutant exposure, in single-exposure and joint air pollutant-noise exposure models (OR, 95% CI).

Exposure	Preterm birth Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Adjusted ^a OR (95% CI)	Adjusted + day-time noise ^b OR (95% CI)	Adjusted + night-time noise ^b OR (95% CI)
Air pollutants (Trimester 1 average)				
NO ₂ (per IQR, 14.0 μ g/m ³)	0.97 (0.95, 0.98)	0.93 (0.90, 0.95)	0.92 (0.90, 0.94)	0.92 (0.90, 0.94)
NO_X (per IQR, 36.7 µg/m ³)	0.97 (0.95, 0.98)	0.93 (0.91, 0.95)	0.93 (0.91, 0.95)	0.93 (0.91, 0.95)
$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.35 μ g/m ³)	0.99 (0.98, 1.00)	0.95 (0.94, 0.97)	0.94 (0.92, 0.96)	0.94 (0.92, 0.96)
$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-non-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, $0.38 \mu\text{g/m}^3$)	0.99 (0.98, 1.00)	0.97 (0.96, 0.99)	0.96 (0.95, 0.98)	0.96 (0.95, 0.98)
PM _{2.5} (per IQR, 3.2 μg/m ³)	0.98 (0.96, 0.99)	0.93 (0.91, 0.95)	0.93 (0.91, 0.95)	0.93 (0.91, 0.95)
PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.0 μ g/m ³)	0.95 (0.94, 0.97)	0.88 (0.87, 0.90)	0.88 (0.86, 0.90)	0.88 (0.86, 0.90)
O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	1.08 (1.06, 1.10)	1.15 (1.11, 1.18)	1.15 (1.12, 1.18)	1.15 (1.12, 1.18)
Air pollutants (Trimester 2 average)				
NO_2 (per IQR, 14.4 µg/m ³)	0.98 (0.96, 1.00)	0.89 (0.87, 0.91)	0.88 (0.86, 0.90)	0.88 (0.86, 0.90)
NO _X (per IQR, 37.3 μ g/m ³)	0.98 (0.97, 1.00)	0.91 (0.89, 0.93)	0.90 (0.88, 0.92)	0.90 (0.88, 0.92)
$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.35 µg/m ³)	0.99 (0.98, 1.00)	0.92 (0.91, 0.94)	0.91 (0.89, 0.93)	0.91 (0.89, 0.93)
$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-non-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.38 μ g/m ³)	1.00 (0.98, 1.01)	0.95 (0.93, 0.96)	0.93 (0.92, 0.95)	0.93 (0.92, 0.95)
$PM_{2.5}$ (per IQR, 3.6 µg/m ³)	0.93 (0.92, 0.95)	0.85 (0.83, 0.87)	0.85 (0.83, 0.87)	0.85 (0.83, 0.87)
PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.5 $\mu g/m^3$)	0.92 (0.91, 0.93)	0.83 (0.82, 0.85)	0.82 (0.81, 0.84)	0.82 (0.81, 0.84)
O_3 (per IQR, 19.1 µg/m ³)	1.00 (0.99, 1.02)	1.15 (1.11, 1.18)	1.15 (1.11, 1.18)	1.15 (1.11, 1.18)

Note: N for Trimester 1 exposures for preterm birth models is 578,382 live births, of which 33,712 are cases of preterm birth, and for Trimester 2 exposures is 577,161 live births, of which 32,491 are cases of preterm birth.

^a Adjusted model covariates: Sex, Maternal age, Birth registration type, Tobacco expenditure (COA-level), Carstairs quintile (COA-level), Individual-level ethnicity, Season of conception, Year (linear term) and random intercept for MSOA.

^b Additionally adjusted for noise as continuous per IQR, Day-time noise, L_{Aeq,16hr} (per IQR, 3.5 dB), Night-time noise, L_{night} (per IQR, 3.9 dB).

Odds of stillbirth associated with air pollutant exposure, in single-exposure and joint air pollutant-noise exposure models (OR, 95% CI).

	Stillbirth			
Exposure	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Adjusted ^a OR (95% CI)	Adjusted + day-time noise ^b OR (95% CI)	Adjusted + night-time noise ^b OR (95% CI)
Air pollutants (Trimester 1 average)				
NO ₂ (per IQR, 14.0 μ g/m ³)	1.02 (0.97, 1.07)	0.93 (0.87, 1.00)	0.92 (0.86, 0.99)	0.92 (0.86, 0.99)
NO_X (per IQR, 36.7 μ g/m ³)	1.01 (0.97, 1.06)	0.94 (0.88, 1.00)	0.93 (0.87, 0.99)	0.93 (0.87, 0.99)
$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, $0.35 \mu\text{g/m}^3$)	1.02 (0.98, 1.06)	0.96 (0.91, 1.00)	0.94 (0.89, 0.99)	0.94 (0.89, 0.99)
PM _{2.5 traffic-non-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.38 µg/m ³)	1.04 (0.99, 1.08)	0.99 (0.94, 1.04)	0.98 (0.93, 1.04)	0.98 (0.93, 1.04)
$PM_{2.5}$ (per IQR, 3.2 μ g/m ³)	0.97 (0.93, 1.02)	0.88 (0.82, 0.94)	0.87 (0.82, 0.93)	0.87 (0.82, 0.93)
PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.0 µg/m ³)	0.94 (0.90, 0.99)	0.84 (0.79, 0.88)	0.82 (0.78, 0.87)	0.82 (0.78, 0.87)
O_3 (per IQR, 17.6 µg/m ³)	1.04 (0.98, 1.09)	1.17 (1.07, 1.27)	1.17 (1.08, 1.27)	1.17 (1.08, 1.27)
Air pollutants (Trimester 2 average)				
NO ₂ (per IQR, 14.4 μ g/m ³)	1.05 (1.00, 1.10)	0.92 (0.86, 0.99)	0.90 (0.84, 0.98)	0.90 (0.84, 0.98)
NO _x (per IQR, 37.3 μ g/m ³)	1.04 (1.00, 1.09)	0.93 (0.87, 1.00)	0.91 (0.85, 0.98)	0.91 (0.85, 0.98)
$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, $0.35 \mu\text{g/m}^3$)	1.04 (1.00, 1.08)	0.95 (0.90, 1.00)	0.93 (0.87, 0.98)	0.93 (0.87, 0.98)
PM _{2.5 traffic-non-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.38 µg/m ³)	1.04 (1.00, 1.08)	0.99 (0.94, 1.04)	0.96 (0.91, 1.02)	0.96 (0.91, 1.02)
PM _{2.5} (per IQR, 3.6 μg/m ³)	1.03 (0.98, 1.08)	0.92 (0.85, 0.99)	0.91 (0.85, 0.99)	0.91 (0.85, 0.99)
PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.5 µg/m ³)	1.04 (1.00, 1.08)	0.91 (0.86, 0.97)	0.90 (0.85, 0.96)	0.90 (0.85, 0.96)
O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 μg/m ³)	0.98 (0.93, 1.03)	1.20 (1.09, 1.32)	1.21 (1.10, 1.33)	1.21 (1.10, 1.33)
Air pollutants (Last 3 months average)				
NO ₂ (per IQR, 14.4 μ g/m ³)	1.05 (1.00, 1.10)	0.98 (0.91, 1.04)	0.97 (0.90, 1.04)	0.97 (0.90, 1.04)
NO _X (per IQR, 37.0 μ g/m ³)	1.04 (1.00, 1.09)	0.98 (0.92, 1.05)	0.98 (0.91, 1.04)	0.98 (0.91, 1.04)
$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.33 μ g/m ³)	1.04 (1.00, 1.08)	0.99 (0.94, 1.03)	0.98 (0.93, 1.03)	0.98 (0.93, 1.03)
PM _{2.5 traffic-non-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.38 µg/m ³)	1.04 (1.00, 1.08)	0.99 (0.94, 1.04)	0.98 (0.93, 1.03)	0.98 (0.93, 1.03)
PM _{2.5} (per IQR, 3.6 μg/m ³)	1.03 (0.98, 1.08)	0.97 (0.91, 1.04)	0.97 (0.90, 1.04)	0.97 (0.90, 1.04)
PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.7 µg/m ³)	1.04 (1.00, 1.08)	0.98 (0.93, 1.04)	0.98 (0.92, 1.04)	0.98 (0.92, 1.04)
O_3 (per IQR, 17.9 µg/m ³)	0.98 (0.93, 1.03)	1.03 (0.95, 1.11)	1.03 (0.95, 1.11)	1.03 (0.95, 1.11)

Note: N for stillbirth models is 581,774, of which 3392 are cases of stillbirth, except for Trimester 2 average where N is 580,500, of which 2889 are cases of stillbirth. ^aAdjusted model covariates: Sex, Maternal age, Birth registration type, Tobacco expenditure (COA-level), Carstairs quintile (COA-level), Individual-level ethnicity, Season of conception, Year (linear term) and random intercept for MSOA.

^b Additionally adjusted for noise as continuous per IQR, Day-time noise, L_{Aea.16hr} (per IQR, 3.5 dB), Night-time noise, L_{night} (per IQR, 3.9 dB).

were no associations between stillbirth and Last 3 Months air pollutants when restricting to term (for which the Last 3 Months may represent a more comparable biological time window, predominantly Trimester 3, for both live and stillbirths) (Supplementary Table 8). Associations with noise changed little when excluding those exposed to rail and/or aircraft noise (Lday) $> 50 \, dB$ (data not shown). There were some statistically significant interactions between exposures and ethnicity (for PTB and stillbirth) and Inner/Outer London (for PTB) (Supplementary Tables 9, 10 and 11), and one statistically significant interaction for deprivation (Carstairs) with Trimester PM2.5 traffic exhaust for preterm birth (p = 0.04). Air pollutant exposure ORs for preterm birth were larger (in either elevated or 'protective' direction) for White ethnicity, compared to other ethnicities (Supplementary Table 9). 'Protective' associations with primary traffic-related air pollutants were limited to White and Other ethnicities (Supplementary Table 9). Last 3 months O₃ was inversely associated with risk of stillbirth for Other ethnicity babies, but otherwise there were no statistically significant associations within ethnic strata, although Last 3 months primary traffic-related air pollutant exposures tended towards 'protective' odds for White/Asian and increased odds of stillbirth for Black and Other ethnicity babies (Supplementary Table 10). Air pollutant associations were similar when stratified by Inner vs. Outer London. Higher noise was associated with elevated risks of PTB in Inner London, but not Outer London (Supplementary Table 11), and adjustment for air pollutants did not change this pattern.

4. Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first study of stillbirth and long-term road traffic noise, and of cause-specific stillbirth in relation to traffic-related air pollution and O_3 , and the largest investigating air and noise pollution jointly in relation to PTB. We find elevated risk of PTB and stillbirth (particularly asphyxia-related stillbirth) associated with

increasing O_3 exposure during Trimesters 1 and 2. We found elevated risk of PTB and stillbirth associated with $PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-non-exhaust}}$, but only after adjustment for O_3 , but otherwise no evidence of increased risk associated with other primary traffic-related air pollutants or particulate matter. We found some associations between road traffic noise and PTB after adjustment for air pollution.

4.1. Comparison with prior studies

Many previous air pollution studies are limited by use of area-wide or semi-individual exposure assessment based on nearest monitor, which may not capture the spatial variability in exposure adequately, particularly within cities (Pedersen, 2016), and lead to Berkson error. More recent studies have tended to address this limitation by using spatial modelling approaches, although these have varied in spatiotemporal resolution (Klepac et al., 2018). There is considerable heterogeneity in findings from previous air pollution studies of PTB and stillbirth, and subsequent meta-analysis estimates (Klepac et al., 2018; Siddika et al., 2016). This may reflect, in part, the varied exposure assessment approaches used (Klepac et al., 2018) which is important to bear in mind when comparing with findings from our study which used a highly resolved spatio-temporal air pollution model on a 20x20m grid.

Given the large volume of literature on PTB and air pollution, we focus here on comparing our findings with the most comprehensive recent meta-analysis and with studies which have examined air pollution and noise jointly. Our finding of elevated risk of PTB associated with exposure to O_3 in Trimesters 1 and 2, is consistent with summary ORs (per 10 ppb O_3) from the most comprehensive recent meta-analysis (Trimester 1 OR 1.03 (1.01, 1.05) (N = 9 studies), Trimester 2 OR 1.12 (1.05, 1.19) (N = 6), Trimester 3 OR 1.01 (0.99, 1.03) (N = 4), pregnancy OR 1.03 (1.01, 1.04) (N = 5)) (Klepac et al., 2018). Of 5 studies not included in this meta-analysis which reported effect estimates for

Odds of preterm birth and stillbirth associated with road traffic noise, in single-exposure and joint air pollutant-noise exposure models (OR, 95% CI).

	Preterm birth		Stillbirth		
Model	Day-time noise, L _{Aeq,16hr} (per IQR, 3.5 dB) OR (95% CI)	Night-time noise, L _{night} (per IQR, 3.9 dB) OR (95% CI)	Day-time noise, L _{Aeq,16hr} (per IQR, 3.5 dB) OR (95% CI)	Night-time noise, L _{night} (per IQR, 3.9 dB) OR (95% CI)	
Unadjusted Adjusted ^a	1.01 (1.00, 1.01) 1.00 (0.99, 1.01)	1.01 (1.00, 1.01) 1.00 (0.99, 1.01)	1.01 (0.99, 1.04) 1.01 (0.98, 1.03)	1.01 (0.99, 1.04) 1.01 (0.98, 1.03)	
$ \begin{array}{l} Adjusted^{a} + Trimester 1 \ NO_{2} \ (per \ IQR) \ ^{b} \\ Adjusted^{a} + Trimester 1 \ NO_{X} \ (per \ IQR) \ ^{b} \\ Adjusted^{a} + Trimester 1 \ PM_{2.5} \ traffic-exhaust \ (per \ IQR) \\ Adjusted^{a} + Trimester 1 \ PM_{2.5} \ traffic-exhaust \ (per \ IQR) \ ^{b} \\ Adjusted^{a} + Trimester 1 \ PM_{10} \ (per \ IQR) \ ^{b} \\ Adjusted^{a} + Trimester 1 \ PM_{10} \ (per \ IQR) \ ^{b} \\ Adjusted^{a} + Trimester 1 \ PM_{10} \ (per \ IQR) \ ^{b} \\ Adjusted^{a} + Trimester 1 \ O_{3} \ (per \ IQR) \ ^{b} \\ Adjusted^{a} + Trimester 1 \ O_{3} \ (per \ IQR) \ ^{b} \\ \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02)^{\pm} \\ 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02)^{\pm} \\ 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02)^{\dagger} \\ 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02) \\ 1.00 \ (1.00, \ 1.01) \\ 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02)^{\dagger} \\ 1.00 \ (1.00, \ 1.01) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02)^{*} \\ 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02) \\ 1.02 \ (1.00, \ 1.02)^{\dagger} \\ 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02)^{\dagger} \\ 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.01) \\ 1.01 \ (1.01, \ 1.02)^{\dagger} \\ 1.00 \ (1.00, \ 1.01) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.01 \ (0.99, \ 1.04) \\ 1.01 \ (0.99, \ 1.04) \\ 1.02 \ (0.99, \ 1.04) \\ 1.01 \ (0.98, \ 1.04) \\ 1.01 \ (0.99, \ 1.04) \\ 1.02 \ (1.00, \ 1.05)^* \\ 1.01 \ (0.99, \ 1.03) \end{array}$	1.02 (0.99, 1.04) 1.02 (0.99, 1.04) 1.02 (0.99, 1.05) 1.01 (0.98, 1.04) 1.01 (0.99, 1.04) 1.03 (1.00, 1.05)* 1.01 (0.99, 1.04)	
	$\begin{array}{c} 1.01 & (1.00, \ 1.02)^{\dagger} \\ 1.01 & (1.00, \ 1.02)^{\dagger} \\ 1.02 & (1.01, \ 1.03)^{\$} \\ 1.02 & (1.01, \ 1.02)^{\dagger} \\ 1.01 & (1.00, \ 1.01) \\ 1.02 & (1.01, \ 1.02)^{\$} \\ 1.01 & (1.00, \ 1.01) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02)^{\dagger} \\ 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02)^{\dagger} \\ 1.02 \ (1.01, \ 1.03)^{\$} \\ 1.02 \ (1.01, \ 1.03)^{\dagger} \\ 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.02) \\ 1.02 \ (1.01, \ 1.03)^{\$} \\ 1.01 \ (1.00, \ 1.01) \end{array}$	1.02 (1.00, 1.05) 1.02 (1.00, 1.05) 1.03 (1.00, 1.05)* 1.02 (0.99, 1.05) 1.02 (0.99, 1.04) 1.02 (1.00, 1.05) 1.02 (0.99, 1.04)	1.02 (1.00, 1.05) 1.02 (1.00, 1.05) 1.03 (1.00, 1.06)* 1.02 (0.99, 1.05) 1.02 (0.99, 1.04) 1.02 (1.00, 1.05) 1.02 (0.99, 1.05)	
$\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months NO}_2 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months NO}_X \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months PM}_{2.5 \mbox{traffic-conduct}} \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months PM}_{2.5} \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months PM}_{2.5} \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months PM}_{10} \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months PM}_{10} \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months PM}_{10} \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months PM}_{10} \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last 3 Months O}_3 \mbox{ (per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a + \mbox{Last Adjusted}^a \mbox{Adjusted}^a \mbox{Adjusted}^a \mbox{(per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{Adjusted}^a \mbox{(per IQR)}^b \mbox{(per IQR)}^b \\ \mbox{(per IQR)}^b \mbox{(per IQR)}^b$			1.01 (0.99, 1.03) 1.01 (0.98, 1.03) 1.01 (0.99, 1.04) 1.01 (0.99, 1.04) 1.01 (0.98, 1.03) 1.01 (0.98, 1.03) 1.01 (0.98, 1.03)	1.01 (0.99, 1.04) 1.01 (0.98, 1.04) 1.01 (0.99, 1.04) 1.01 (0.98, 1.04) 1.01 (0.98, 1.03) 1.01 (0.98, 1.03) 1.01 (0.98, 1.03)	

Note: N for preterm birth models is 578,382 live births, of which 33,712 are cases of preterm birth, except where adjusted for Trimester 2 air pollutant exposures (N for preterm birth models is 577,161 live births, of which 32,491 are cases of preterm birth). N for stillbirth models is 581,774, of which 3392 are cases of stillbirth, except where adjusted for Trimester 2 air pollutant exposures (N for stillbirth models is 580,500, of which 2889 are cases of stillbirth). IQR values for Trimester 1 average air pollutants: NO₂ (per IQR, 14.0 µg/m³), NO_x (per IQR, 36.7 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic exhaust} (per IQR, 0.35 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic non-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.38 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic non-exhaust} (per IQR, 10.40 µg/m³), O₃ (per IQR, 17.6 µg/m³). IQR values for Trimester 2 average air pollutants: NO₂ (per IQR, 14.4 µg/m³), O₃ (per IQR, 37.3 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.35 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.35 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR, 10.45 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.35 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.36 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.35 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.55 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.55 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.55 µg/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR,

IQR values for Last 3 Months average air pollutants: NO₂ (per IQR, 14.4 μ g/m³), NO_x (per IQR, 37.0 μ g/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic exhaust} (per IQR, 0.33 μ g/m³), PM_{2.5 traffic non-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.38 μ g/m³), PM_{2.5} (per IQR, 3.6 μ g/m³), PM₁₀ (per IQR, 4.7 μ g/m³), O₃ (per IQR, 17.9 μ g/m³).

^a Adjusted for Sex, Maternal age, Birth registration type, Tobacco expenditure (COA-level), Carstairs quintile (COA-level), Individual-level ethnicity, Season of conception, Year (linear term) and random intercept for MSOA.

^b Additionally adjusted for the air pollutant stated in the table above.

* $p \leq 0.05$.

[†] p ≤ 0.01.

 $p^{\$} p \le 0.0001.$

Та	hle	6
ıа	DIC	U

Odds of preterm birth associated with air pollutant exposures, in two-air pollutant models (OR, 95% CI).

Exposure window	Pollutant exposure 1	Pollutant exposure 2	Exposure 1 Adjusted ^a OR (95%CI)	Exposure 2 Adjusted ^a OR (95%CI)
Trimester 1	NO ₂ (per IQR, 14.0 μg/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	1.00 (0.97, 1.03)	1.15 (1.10, 1.19)
Trimester 1	NO _X (per IQR, 36.7 μg/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	1.01 (0.98, 1.04)	1.16 (1.11, 1.20)
Trimester 1	PM _{2.5 traffic-exhaust} (per IQR, 0.35 μg/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	1.00 (0.98, 1.02)	1.14 (1.10, 1.18)
Trimester 1	$\begin{array}{l} PM_{2.5 \ traffic-non-exhaust} \ (per \ IQR, \ 0.38 \ \mu g/m^3) \\ PM_{2.5} \ (per \ IQR, \ 3.2 \ \mu g/m^3) \\ PM_{10} \ (per \ IQR, \ 4.0 \ \mu g/m^3) \end{array}$	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	1.03 (1.01, 1.05)	1.18 (1.14, 1.22)
Trimester 1		O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	0.96 (0.93, 0.98)	1.12 (1.09, 1.16)
Trimester 1		O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	0.90 (0.88, 0.92)	1.09 (1.06, 1.12)
Trimester 2	$ \begin{array}{l} NO_2 \ (\text{per IQR, } 14.4 \ \mu\text{g/m}^3) \\ NO_X \ (\text{per IQR, } 37.3 \ \mu\text{g/m}^3) \\ PM_{2.5 \ traffic-exhaust} \ (\text{per IQR, } 0.35 \ \mu\text{g/m}^3) \\ PM_{2.5 \ traffic-non-exhaust} \ (\text{per IQR, } 0.38 \ \mu\text{g/m}^3) \\ PM_{2.5} \ (\text{per IQR, } 3.6 \ \mu\text{g/m}^3) \\ PM_{10} \ (\text{per IQR, } 4.5 \ \mu\text{g/m}^3) \end{array} $	O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 µg/m ³)	0.92 (0.89, 0.95)	1.07 (1.02, 1.11)
Trimester 2		O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 µg/m ³)	0.95 (0.92, 0.98)	1.09 (1.04, 1.14)
Trimester 2		O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 µg/m ³)	0.95 (0.93, 0.97)	1.08 (1.05, 1.12)
Trimester 2		O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 µg/m ³)	0.99 (0.97, 1.01)	1.13 (1.09, 1.18)
Trimester 2		O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 µg/m ³)	0.87 (0.85, 0.89)	1.07 (1.04, 1.11)
Trimester 2		O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 µg/m ³)	0.84 (0.82, 0.85)	1.03 (1.00, 1.06)

Note: N for Trimester 1 exposures for preterm birth models is 578,382 live births, of which 33,712 are cases of preterm birth, and for Trimester 2 exposures is 577,161 live births, of which 32,491 are cases of preterm birth.

^a Adjusted model covariates: Sex, Maternal age, Birth registration type, Tobacco expenditure (COA-level), Carstairs quintile (COA-level), Individual-level ethnicity, Season of conception, Year (linear term) and random intercept for MSOA.

Odds of stillbirth associated with air pollutant exposures, in two-air pollutant models (OR, 95% CI).

Exposure window	Pollutant exposure 1	Pollutant exposure 2	Exposure 1 Adjusted ^a OR (95%CI)	Exposure 2 Adjusted ^a OR (95%CI)
Trimester 1	NO ₂ (per IQR, 14.0 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	1.04 (0.94, 1.14)	1.20 (1.07, 1.35)
Trimester 1	NO _x (per IQR, 36.7 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	1.05 (0.96, 1.15)	1.22 (1.08, 1.37)
Trimester 1	$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.35 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	1.01 (0.96, 1.07)	1.18 (1.07, 1.31)
Trimester 1	$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-non-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.38 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	1.07 (1.01, 1.13)	1.25 (1.13, 1.38)
Trimester 1	$PM_{2.5}$ (per IQR, 3.2 µg/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	0.90 (0.84, 0.97)	1.11 (1.02, 1.22)
Trimester 1	PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.0 µg/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.6 μg/m ³)	0.85 (0.80, 0.90)	1.07 (0.98, 1.17)
Trimester 2	NO ₂ (per IQR, 14.4 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 μg/m ³)	1.05 (0.94, 1.17)	1.26 (1.09, 1.44)
Trimester 2	NO _X (per IQR, 37.3 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 μg/m ³)	1.05 (0.95, 1.17)	1.27 (1.10, 1.46)
Trimester 2	$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.35 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 μg/m ³)	1.01 (0.95, 1.08)	1.22 (1.08, 1.37)
Trimester 2	$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-non-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.38 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 μg/m ³)	1.07 (1.00, 1.14)	1.29 (1.15, 1.46)
Trimester 2	$PM_{2.5}$ (per IQR, 3.6 $\mu g/m^3$)	O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 μg/m ³)	0.96 (0.89, 1.04)	1.18 (1.07, 1.31)
Trimester 2	PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.5 µg/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 19.1 μg/m ³)	0.95 (0.89, 1.01)	1.16 (1.05, 1.29)
Last 3 months	NO ₂ (per IQR, 14.4 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.9 μg/m ³)	0.98 (0.89, 1.08)	1.01 (0.90, 1.13)
Last 3 months	NO _X (per IQR, 37.0 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.9 μg/m ³)	0.99 (0.91, 1.09)	1.02 (0.91, 1.14)
Last 3 months	$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.33 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.9 μg/m ³)	0.99 (0.93, 1.05)	1.02 (0.92, 1.12)
Last 3 months	$PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-non-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.38 μ g/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.9 μg/m ³)	1.00 (0.94, 1.06)	1.02 (0.92, 1.13)
Last 3 months	$PM_{2.5}$ (per IQR, 3.6 $\mu g/m^3$)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.9 μg/m ³)	0.98 (0.91, 1.05)	1.02 (0.93, 1.11)
Last 3 months	PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.7 µg/m ³)	O ₃ (per IQR, 17.9 μg/m ³)	0.99 (0.93, 1.05)	1.02 (0.94, 1.11)

Note: N for stillbirth models is 581,774, of which 3392 are cases of stillbirth, except for Trimester 2 average where N is 580,500, of which 2889 are cases of stillbirth. ^a Adjusted model covariates: Sex, Maternal age, Birth registration type, Tobacco expenditure (COA-level), Carstairs quintile (COA-level), Individual-level ethnicity, Season of conception, Year (linear term) and random intercept for MSOA.

Table 8

Adjusted odds of cause-specific stillbirth (OR and 95% CI), associated with air pollutant or noise exposures, in single-exposure models.

Exposure	Congenital malformations-related stillbirth OR (95% CI) ^a	Asphyxia-related stillbirth OR (95% CI) ^a
Air pollutants (Trimester 1 average) NO_2 (per IQR, 14.0 µg/m ³) NO_X (per IQR, 36.7 µg/m ³) $PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.35 µg/m ³) $PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.38 µg/m ³) $PM_{2.5 \text{ traffic-non-exhaust}}$ (per IQR, 0.38 µg/m ³) $PM_{2.5 \text{ (per IQR, 3.2 µg/m3)}$ PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.0 µg/m ³) O_3 (per IQR, 17.6 µg/m ³)	0.93 (0.79, 1.10) 0.93 (0.80, 1.09) 0.98 (0.88, 1.10) 1.00 (0.89, 1.12) 0.75 (0.64, 0.87) 0.74 (0.64, 0.85) 1.19 (0.97, 1.46)	0.95 (0.81, 1.12) 0.95 (0.82, 1.11) 0.95 (0.85, 1.06) 1.01 (0.90, 1.13) 0.92 (0.80, 1.06) 0.91 (0.80, 1.04) 1.22 (1.01, 1.49)
Air pollutants (Trimester 2 average) NO_2 (per IQR, 14.4 $\mu g/m^3$) NO_X (per IQR, 37.3 $\mu g/m^3$) $PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust}$ (per IQR, 0.35 $\mu g/m^3$) $PM_{2.5 traffic-non-exhaust}$ (per IQR, 0.38 $\mu g/m^3$) $PM_{2.5}$ (per IQR, 3.6 $\mu g/m^3$) PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.5 $\mu g/m^3$) O_3 (per IQR, 19.1 $\mu g/m^3$)	1.12 (0.93, 1.35) 1.09 (0.92, 1.30) 1.07 (0.94, 1.21) 1.10 (0.98, 1.25) 0.99 (0.81, 1.20) 0.98 (0.83, 1.15) 0.95 (0.74, 1.22)	0.84 (0.70, 1.00) 0.85 (0.72, 1.01) 0.87 (0.76, 0.99) 0.92 (0.81, 1.04) 0.84 (0.71, 0.99) 0.84 (0.73, 0.97) 1.22 (0.98, 1.52)
Air pollutants (Last 3 months average) NO_2 (per IQR, 14.4 µg/m ³) NO_X (per IQR, 37.0 µg/m ³) $PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust}$ (per IQR, 0.33 µg/m ³) $PM_{2.5 traffic-non-exhaust}$ (per IQR, 0.38 µg/m ³) $PM_{2.5}$ (per IQR, 3.6 µg/m ³) PM_{10} (per IQR, 4.7 µg/m ³) O_3 (per IQR, 17.9 µg/m ³)		0.98 (0.84, 1.14) 0.97 (0.84, 1.13) 0.98 (0.87, 1.09) 0.99 (0.89, 1.11) 0.98 (0.84, 1.14) 0.98 (0.86, 1.12) 1.03 (0.85, 1.24)
Day-time noise, $L_{Aeq,16hr}$ (per IQR, 3.5 dB) Night-time noise, L_{night} (per IQR, 3.9 dB)	1.00 (0.94, 1.05) 1.00 (0.94, 1.06)	0.99 (0.94, 1.04) 0.99 (0.94, 1.05)

Note: N for congenital malformations-related stillbirth models is 578,945, of which 563 are cases of congenital malformations-related stillbirth (Wigglesworth code 1), except for Trimester 2 models (N for congenital malformations-related stillbirth models is 578,024, of which 413 are cases of congenital malformations-related stillbirth (Wigglesworth code 1)). N for asphyxia-related stillbirth models is 579,023, of which 641 are cases of asphyxia-related stillbirth (Wigglesworth code 3)). N for asphyxia-related stillbirth models is 578,145, of which 534 are cases of asphyxia-related stillbirth (Wigglesworth codes 4 & 8A), except for Trimester 2 models (N for asphyxia-related stillbirth models is 578,145, of which 534 are cases of asphyxia-related stillbirth (Wigglesworth codes 4 & 8A)). Last 3 months average exposure not evaluated for congenital malformations-related stillbirth, because for this group of cases the Last 3 months overlaps more with Trimester 2 on average than it does with Trimester 3, and therefore is not considered informative as it represents a very different time window for cases compared to non-cases.

^a Adjusted for Sex, Maternal age, Birth registration type, Tobacco expenditure (COA-level), Carstairs quintile (COA-level), Individual-level ethnicity, Season of conception, Year (linear term) and random intercept for MSOA.

Trimester 1 and/or 2 O_3 exposure, 4 reported elevated risk of PTB or reduced gestation (Han et al., 2018; Mendola et al., 2016; Olsson et al., 2012; Olsson et al., 2013), whilst Capobussi et al. (2016) reported no elevated risk in any trimester. Overall, the balance of evidence is in favour of an association between long-term O_3 exposure in the first two trimesters of pregnancy and increased risk of PTB, which is consistent with our findings.

For the other air pollutants we investigated (NO2, NOX, PM2.5, PM2.5 traffic-exhaust, PM2.5 traffic-non-exhaust, PM2.5, and PM10,) we did not find evidence of elevated risk, except for Trimester 1 PM_{2.5 traffic-non-exhaust} after adjustment for O_3 . All other ORs were < 1 (or null for Trimester 1 NO₂, NO_x, and PM_{2.5 traffic-exhaust after adjustment for O₃). Our findings} are somewhat in contrast to meta-analysis estimates suggesting null association or some elevated risk of PTB associated with PM10 (Trimester 1 OR 1.04 (1.01, 1.08), Trimester 2 OR 1.04 (0.98, 1.09), whole pregnancy OR 1.09 (1.03, 1.16) per $10 \mu g/m^3$), PM_{2.5} (Trimester 1 OR 1.03 (0.95, 1.11), Trimester 2 OR 1.10 (0.96, 1.27), whole pregnancy OR 1.24 (1.08, 1.41) per 10 µg/m³), and NO₂ (Trimester 1 OR 0.99 (0.95, 1.03), Trimester 2 OR 1.02 (0.97, 1.08), whole pregnancy OR 1.05 (0.99, 1.11) per 10 ppb) (Klepac et al., 2018). Our findings are broadly compatible with the recent ESCAPE study of pooled birth cohorts across Europe (Giorgis-Allemand et al., 2017) (not included in the Klepac et al., 2018 meta-analysis) which found no evidence of elevated risk of PTB associated with NO2, NOX, PM2.5 or PM₁₀ for any time window including Trimesters 1 and 2 (virtually all ORs were < 1, but not statistically significant).

There is relatively little literature on environmental noise and PTB a very recent systematic review and the only meta-analysis to date of road traffic noise and PTB found the evidence to be very low quality and not indicative of any significant effect of noise overall (OR 1.00 (0.79, 1.27) per 10 db(A)) or when limited to air pollution adjusted estimates (OR 1.00 (0.79, 1.26) per 10db(A)) (Dzhambov and Lercher, 2019). We found associations between road traffic noise and PTB after adjustment for air pollution, hinting at possible negative confounding by air pollution in our study area. Looking specifically at studies which examined both noise and air pollutants, no associations between longterm air pollution (NO2, PM2.5, PM10) or noise during pregnancy and risk of PTB in single- or joint-exposure models in a French case-control study (N = 302 cases) (Barba-Vasseur et al., 2017), a population-based cohort study (N = 68,238) in Vancouver (Gehring et al., 2014; Hystad et al., 2014), or a study in the Tyrol Region of Austria/Italy (Dzhambov et al., 2019). N.B. all these studies included in the meta-analysis. The French study examined environmental noise overall, the Vancouver study focused on road traffic noise, and the Tyrol study examined rail/ road noise. Consistent with our noise and O3 findings, an ecological time-series study in Madrid (not included in the aforementioned metaanalysis) identified associations between PTB and O₃ (gestation week 12), PM_{2.5} (week 17), diurnal noise (week 21), and night-time noise (week 36), but no associations with NO2 or temperature, however it is severely limited by lack of adjustment for maternal lifestyle/socioeconomic factors (Arroyo et al., 2016).

We observed elevated odds of stillbirth associated with Trimester 1 and 2 O_3 , and for Trimester 1 and 2 $PM_{2.5}$ traffic-non-exhaust after adjustment for O_3 . ORs below 1 for Trimester 1 $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} remained after adjustment for O_3 . The literature for stillbirth and air pollution is mixed. The only meta-analysis provides little convincing evidence that long-term exposure to NO_2 , $PM_{2.5}$, PM_{10} , or O_3 is associated with stillbirth - whilst summary ORs were systematically elevated, virtually all confidence intervals included 1, despite including over 3 million births for NO_2 , $PM_{2.5}$ and O_3 (Siddika et al., 2016). Comparing with more recent studies, our findings are broadly consistent with a US study which found chronic (first trimester and whole pregnancy) and acute exposure to O_3 were associated with increased stillbirth risk, but observed no consistent effects for NO_x , $PM_{2.5}$ or PM_{10} (Mendola et al., 2017). However, our findings contrast with a Chinese study which observed elevated risk of stillbirth associated with $PM_{2.5}$ (1st, 2nd, 3rd

month, all trimesters, whole pregnancy) and PM_{10} , SO_2 , NO_2 , CO for Trimester 3, but no associations with O_3 (Yang et al., 2018). Another Chinese study observed elevated risk of stillbirth associated with $PM_{2.5}$ (all trimesters, whole pregnancy) and PM_{10} for Trimester 1, and O_3 for Trimester 1 and 3 (Zang et al., 2019), which is only consistent with our findings with respect to Trimester 1 O_3 . Contrasting study findings could reflect differences in average exposure levels (generally much higher in the Chinese populations), exposure assessment methodology (both Chinese studies cited above used nearest monitor approach), and different gestational age cut-offs used for stillbirth definition/study inclusion e.g 20 (Yang et al., 2018), 23 (Mendola et al., 2017) and 28 weeks (Zang et al., 2019) compared with 24 weeks in the current study, which may influence the cause of stillbirth distribution (which likely differs by gestation) in the study populations.

Our findings for stillbirth appear to be driven, in part at least, by asphyxia-related stillbirth (O_3) and congenital malformations-related stillbirths ($PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10}) respectively. Previous research on cause-specific stillbirth and air pollution is limited to one study on $PM_{2.5}$, which reported elevated risk of stillbirths due to all-causes, fetal growth and obstetric complications associated with pregnancy average $PM_{2.5}$, and stillbirths due to congenital malformations and fetal disorders with specific $PM_{2.5}$ constituents (Ebisu et al., 2018). Our findings are not directly comparable due to differences in stillbirth cause groupings and exposure windows analysed.

There are no published studies on stillbirth and long-term exposure to road traffic noise (or any other transportation noise), with which to compare our findings. One time-series study of late fetal death (includes late stillbirths) found elevated risk associated with specific 2nd and 3rd trimester gestational week exposures to air pollutants and temperature, but not noise, in Madrid (Arroyo et al., 2016).

Potential mechanisms via which O3 could increase risk of PTB and stillbirth are oxidative stress and systemic inflammatory response (Kelly, 2003; Vadillo-Ortega et al., 2014), whilst those for noise are hypertension [which is associated with noise (van Kempen and Babisch, 2012), PTB (Bramham et al., 2014) and stillbirth (Flenady et al., 2011)]; disruption of endocrine/immune responses and placental blood flow induced by stress (Nieuwenhuijsen et al., 2017); or sleep disturbance (Palagini et al., 2014; World Health Organisation, 2011) e.g. via immune dysregulation (Blair et al., 2015). Elevated risks associated with O₃ or noise are unlikely to be mediated via fetal growth, as we previously found term low birth weight to be inversely associated with O3 and little evidence for an independent exposure-response effect of noise on term low birth weight in the same study population (Smith et al., 2017). Nor are the findings for O_3 likely to reflect a common causal pathway for PTB and stillbirth, as associations between stillbirth and O3 were similar when stratified by term/preterm births. The lack of any association between Last 3 Months air pollutant exposure and stillbirth may reflect that the underlying biological time window this exposure window represents differs for live vs stillbirths (which we acknowledge is a limitation, and makes interpretation difficult), and that the cause of death distribution likely varies by gestational age, and nearer to term, more stillbirths may be due to acute causes. Some apparently 'protective' effects of primary traffic-related air pollutants and particulate matter remained after adjustment of O₃, however these are not biologically plausible. A large number of statistical tests were carried out (examining various exposure indices, at various time windows during pregnancy, for multiple outcome measures) which increases the possibility of a Type I error (i.e. falsely rejecting the null hypothesis due to chance), so it is possible that some apparently statistically significant findings could be statistical artefact. Other possible explanations could be a healthy survivor effect, i.e. if exposure is positively associated with miscarriage, then prevalence of the most susceptible fetuses in the population at risk (after 24 weeks gestation) may be inversely related to exposure. For example, this could explain the 'protective' effects observed for congenital malformation-related stillbirths in relation to Trimester 1 PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, if the most severe congenital malformations lead to miscarriage early in pregnancy. Previous research on air pollution and miscarriage is limited, but associations with traffic density and ambient PM2.5, SO2, O3, CO, and correlations with ambient NO₂, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} have been reported (Enkhmaa et al., 2014; Green et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2019). Residual confounding could also be an explanation, e.g. if hospitals located in high air pollution areas have more effective policies to reduce PTB and stillbirth, or if in lower pollution areas there are more medically-induced preterm births. We did not have information on spontaneous vs. medically-induced PTB to investigate this, but did control for unmeasured spatial confounding by including a random effect for small area in all models. We considered whether differential exposure measurement error could bias the results and, specifically, induce spurious 'protective' effects. Exposure measurement error may differ by age/deprivation, as younger, less well off mothers are more likely to move address during pregnancy (Tunstall et al., 2010). However, for this to induce spurious 'protective' effects those younger/more deprived mothers would have to be systematically moving from areas of higher exposure to lower exposure to NO_X, NO₂, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, and we have no reason to believe, or evidence to prove that such systematic movement by exposure is occurring - on the contrary, if anything, it is more plausible that more deprived mothers would be more likely to move to a more highly polluted area. Differential exposure measurement error could also vary according to daily mobility patterns, e.g. those who work/commute may have greater exposure measurement error than those who do not, and this could potentially interact with a 'healthy worker effect'. However, for this to induce spurious 'protective' effects those who work/commute would have to be systematically exposed to higher levels of NO_x, NO₂, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ at their commute/work locations vs. their home address. Again, we have no reason to believe, or evidence to prove that such systematic movement by exposure is occurring, and in our opinion it is highly unlikely that differential exposure measurement error explains the apparent 'protective' effects. Findings of increased risk of PTB associated with increasing road traffic noise were only evident in models adjusted for certain primary traffic-related pollutants/PM₁₀, i.e. once the negative confounding of the apparent 'protective' effect of these air pollutants had been adjusted for. Given that those 'protective' effects are not biologically plausible, and are difficult to explain, by extension the findings of elevated risk of traffic noise when adjusted for these air pollutants should be interpreted cautiously.

The single statistically significant interaction observed between exposure and deprivation (Carstairs) may well reflect artefact. However, in models stratified by ethnicity we observed that the 'protective' associations for PTB tended to be strongest in the White group, as did the elevated risk associated with O3; and that the 'protective' associations with primary traffic-related air pollutants were limited to White and Other ethnicities - the presence of a pattern suggests that the interactions are less likely to represent artefact. A pattern is not so clear for Last 3 Months exposures and stillbirth, stratified by ethnicity, but almost all the associations are not statistically significant. It is possible that there could be differential residual confounding patterns specific to particular ethnic groups, that could explain the effect modification. Associations between some air pollutants/noise and PTB differed between Inner and Outer London, however this is unlikely to be explained by residual confounding as risk of PTB did not differ between Inner and Outer London, so these may represent artefact.

4.2. Strengths and limitations

Strengths and limitations of our exposure assessment have been discussed in detail elsewhere (Smith et al., 2017), so they are outlined briefly here. This study benefits from highly spatially resolved exposure modelling with common traffic data inputs into both air pollutant and noise models, and exposure estimates assigned at address level. However, the accuracy of individual exposure assessment will be influenced by measurement error, one source of which may be daily/residential

mobility, which we could not account for. Residential mobility during pregnancy in the UK is estimated to be 16% (Tunstall et al., 2010). However, reassuringly, analysis of the ALSPAC cohort in Bristol, UK, found that PM_{10} exposure estimates varied little on average (< 5%) when comparing exposure estimates based on full residential history during pregnancy vs those based on address at birth (Fecht et al., 2019). There could be some air pollution exposure misclassification close to sources, where primary pollutants gradients are steep, however only a small proportion of maternal residences were close to a major road, and key demographic factors differed little according to living close to a major road. PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ were predicted slightly more accurately than NO₂ and NO_x, but for all these pollutants model bias was in the same direction (over-prediction), except for O₃ which under-predicted (reflecting the positive NO₂ bias). The directions of model bias would suggest that we may underestimate the true effect size for NO_x, NO₂, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, and overestimate the true effect size for O₃. Due to the constant for traffic on minor roads, the noise model is likely to have over- and under-estimated noise on some minor roads, but any bias due to this is not spatially patterned (Gulliver et al., 2015). Use of all birth registration data avoided selection bias. In addition to area-level deprivation and tobacco expenditure, we also adjusted for birth registration type which relates to qualifications, housing and smoking at individual-level (Graham, 2007) and thus adjusts for these by proxy. We cannot exclude the possibility of residual confounding by maternal/ passive smoking, but previous research suggests individual-level adjustment for behavioural factors such as maternal smoking had little influence on the association between air pollution and PTB (Ritz et al., 2007). We did not adjust for temperature other than by adjusting for season, but where studies have examined both meteorological factors and air pollutants in relation to PTB/stillbirth, no evidence of air pollutant-temperature interaction has been reported (Avalos et al., 2017; Basu et al., 2010; Basu et al., 2016), nor significant confounding of the associations for temperature by air pollutants (PM_{2.5}, NO₂, SO₂, O₃, CO) (Avalos et al., 2017; Basu et al., 2010; Basu et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2008). We did not have data on pre-pregnancy BMI, so could not adjust for this. We were not able to examine spontaneous vs. medically induced PTB, thus limiting our ability to distinguish aetiologies.

5. Conclusions

This study suggests that exposure to higher levels of O₃ and primary traffic non-exhaust related PM2.5 during pregnancy may increase risk of preterm birth and stillbirth. Our findings suggesting a possible relationship between long-term traffic noise and increased risk of preterm birth have not previously been reported in the literature. These findings strengthen the body of evidence for important public health impacts of ambient O₃, particulate matter, and noise in early life, which may have life-course consequences. Reduction of ambient O₃ to protect human health is complex, as it requires control of precursor compounds at local, regional and global level. At the urban scale, implementation of policies to reduce NO_X emissions from traffic to protect human health, e.g. the Ultra Low Emission Zone in London, could also have the unintended consequence of increasing O₃-related health impacts in early life, if causal, as NO_x titration-driven suppression of O₃ is reduced, and urban O₃ levels increase. Thus, the complex interrelationships between these compounds in our urban environments need to be carefully considered by policy makers to ensure overall net improvements in public health long term.

Acknowledgements

We thank Peter Hambly of the SAHSU database team for technical support and the TRAFFIC study group for their constructive comments. CACI tobacco expenditure data is © Copyright 1996-2014 CACI Limited. We attest that we have obtained appropriate permissions and paid any required fees for use of copyright protected materials. *Funding*:

This work was funded by the UK Natural Environment Research Council, Medical Research Council, Economic and Social Research Council, Department of Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, and Department of Health (NE/I00789X/1, NE/I008039/1) through the cross-research council Environmental Exposures & Health Initiative. The research was part funded by the National Institute for Health Research Health Protection Research Unit (NIHR HPRU) in Health Impact of Environmental Hazards at King's College London in partnership with Public Health England (PHE). The work of the UK Small Area Health Statistics Unit (SAHSU) is funded by Public Health England as part of the MRC-PHE Centre for Environment and Health, funded also by the UK Medical Research Council (MR/L01341X/1). The views expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the NHS. the NIHR, Public Health England or the Department of Health. The funders had no role in the study design; in the collection, analysis and interpretation of data; in the writing of the report; and in the decision to submit the article for publication. Author contributions: MBT, JG, HRA, SDB, FJK contributed to study conception and design; DF, JG, SDB, DD, HRA and FJK to exposure assessment; and MD, DF and ALH to acquisition of health and confounder data. RBS contributed to study design, wrote the statistical analysis plan, conducted the data analyses, and drafted the report. MBT contributed to the statistical analysis plan and the data analyses. MB contributed to the study design and statistical analysis plan. All authors contributed to interpreting the analyses and critically revising the article, approved the final manuscript. Data sharing: Health data are available from the data providers on application with appropriate ethics and governance permissions, but we do not hold data provider, ethics, or governance permissions to share the dataset with third parties.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None.

Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2019.105290.

References

- Arroyo, V., Diaz, J., Carmona, R., Ortiz, C., Linares, C., 2016. Impact of air pollution and temperature on adverse birth outcomes: Madrid, 2001–2009. Environ Pollut 218, 1154–1161.
- Avalos, L.A., Chen, H., Li, D.K., Basu, R., 2017. The impact of high apparent temperature on spontaneous preterm delivery: A case-crossover study. Environ Health 16, 5.
- Barba-Vasseur, M., Bernard, N., Pujol, S., Sagot, P., Riethmuller, D., Thiriez, G., et al., 2017. Does low to moderate environmental exposure to noise and air pollution influence preterm delivery in medium-sized cities? International Journal of Epidemiology:1–11.
- Basu, R., Malig, B., Ostro, B., 2010. High ambient temperature and the risk of preterm delivery. Am J Epidemiol 172, 1108–1117.
- Basu, R., Sarovar, V., Malig, B.J., 2016. Association between high ambient temperature and risk of stillbirth in california. Am J Epidemiol 183, 894–901.
- Beevers S, Dajnak D. 2015. Traffic project supplementary files. Air pollution model. Kclurban model description, evaluation and outputs. Available: http://www.kcl.ac. uk/lsm/research/divisions/aes/research/ERG/research-projects/traffic/index.aspx.
- Beevers, S.D., Kitwiroon, N., Williams, M.L., Kelly, F.J., Ross Anderson, H., Carslaw, D.C., 2013. Air pollution dispersion models for human exposure predictions in london. J Expo Sci Environ Epidemiol 23, 647–653.
- Blair, L.M., Porter, K., Leblebicioglu, B., Christian, L.M., 2015. Poor sleep quality and associated inflammation predict preterm birth: Heightened risk among african americans. Sleep 38, 1259–1267.
- Bramham, K., Parnell, B., Nelson-Piercy, C., Seed, P.T., Poston, L., Chappell, L.C., 2014. Chronic hypertension and pregnancy outcomes: Systematic review and meta-analysis. BMJ 348, g2301.
- Capobussi, M., Tettamanti, R., Marcolin, L., Piovesan, L., Bronzin, S., Gattoni, M.E., et al., 2016. Air pollution impact on pregnancy outcomes in como, italy. J Occup Environ Med 58, 47–52.
- Carstairs, V., Morris, R., 1990. Deprivation and health in scotland. Health Bull (Edinb) 48, 162–175.
- Dattani, N., Rowan, S., 2002. Causes of neonatal deaths and stillbirths: A new hierarchical classification in icd-10. Health Stat Q 15.

- Dzhambov, A.M., Lercher, P., 2019. Road traffic noise exposure and birth outcomes: An updated systematic review and meta-analysis. Int J Environ Res Public Health 16.
- Dzhambov, A.M., Markevych, I., Lercher, P., 2019. Associations of residential greenness, traffic noise, and air pollution with birth outcomes across alpine areas. Sci Total Environ 678, 399–408.
- Ebisu, K., Malig, B., Hasheminassab, S., Sioutas, C., Basu, R., 2018. Cause-specific stillbirth and exposure to chemical constituents and sources of fine particulate matter. Environ Res 160, 358–364.
- Enkhmaa, D., Warburton, N., Javzandulam, B., Uyanga, J., Khishigsuren, Y., Lodoysamba, S., et al., 2014. Seasonal ambient air pollution correlates strongly with spontaneous abortion in mongolia. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth 14, 146.
- Experian Ltd. 2015. Quick address software.
- Fecht, D., Garwood, K., Butters, O., Henderson, J., Elliott, P., Hansell, A., et al., 2019. Automation of cleaning and reconstructing residential address histories to assign environmental exposures in longitudinal studies. International Journal of Epidemiology ISSN 1464–3685.
- Flenady, V., Koopmans, L., Middleton, P., Froen, J.F., Smith, G.C., Gibbons, K., et al., 2011. Major risk factors for stillbirth in high-income countries: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet 377, 1331–1340.
- Gehring, U., Tamburic, L., Sbihi, H., Davies, H.W., Brauer, M., 2014. Impact of noise and air pollution on pregnancy outcomes. Epidemiology 25, 351–358.
- Giorgis-Allemand, L., Pedersen, M., Bernard, C., Aguilera, I., Beelen, R.M., Chatzi, L., et al., 2017. The influence of meteorological factors and atmospheric pollutants on the risk of preterm birth. Am J Epidemiol.
- Graham JC, C.; Barnard, M.; Mowlam, A.; McKay, S. 2007. Sole and joint birth registration: Exploring the circumstances, choices and motivations of unmarried parents. Department of work and pensions research report no 463. Leeds.
- Greater London Authority (GLA). 2010. The london atmospheric emissions inventory 2010.
- Green, R.S., Malig, B., Windham, G.C., Fenster, L., Ostro, B., Swan, S., 2009. Residential exposure to traffic and spontaneous abortion. Environ Health Perspect 117, 1939–1944.
- Gulliver, J., Morley, D., Vienneau, D., Fabbri, F., Bell, M., Goodman, P., et al., 2015. Development of an open-source road traffic noise model for exposure assessment. Environ Modell Softw 74, 183–193.
- Han, Y., Jiang, P., Dong, T., Ding, X., Chen, T., Villanger, G.D., et al., 2018. Maternal air pollution exposure and preterm birth in wuxi, china: Effect modification by maternal age. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf 157, 457–462.
- Hystad, P., Davies, H.W., Frank, L., Van Loon, J., Gehring, U., Tamburic, L., et al., 2014. Residential greenness and birth outcomes: Evaluating the influence of spatially correlated built-environment factors. Environ Health Perspect 122, 1095–1102.
- Kelly, F.J., 2003. Oxidative stress: Its role in air pollution and adverse health effects. Occup Environ Med 60, 612–616.
- Kempen, E.V., Casas, M., Pershagen, G., Foraster, M., 2018. Who environmental noise guidelines for the european region: A systematic review on environmental noise and cardiovascular and metabolic effects: A summary. Int J Environ Res Public Health 15.
- Klepac, P., Locatelli, I., Korosec, S., Kunzli, N., Kukec, A., 2018. Ambient air pollution and pregnancy outcomes: A comprehensive review and identification of environmental public health challenges. Environ Res 167, 144–159.
- Lacasana, M., Esplugues, A., Ballester, F., 2005. Exposure to ambient air pollution and prenatal and early childhood health effects. Eur J Epidemiol 20, 183–199.
- Lawn JE, Gravett MG, Nunes TM, Rubens CE, Stanton C, Group GR. 2010. Global report on preterm birth and stillbirth (1 of 7): Definitions, description of the burden and opportunities to improve data. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth 10 Suppl 1:S1.
- Lee, S.J., Hajat, S., Steer, P.J., Filippi, V., 2008. A time-series analysis of any short-term effects of meteorological and air pollution factors on preterm births in london, uk. Environ Res 106, 185–194.
- Mendola, P., Wallace, M., Hwang, B.S., Liu, D., Robledo, C., Mnnist, T., et al., 2016. Preterm birth and air pollution: Critical windows of exposure for women with asthma. J Allergy Clin Immunol.
- Mendola, P., Ha, S., Pollack, A.Z., Zhu, Y., Seeni, I., Kim, S.S., et al., 2017. Chronic and acute ozone exposure in the week prior to delivery is associated with the risk of stillbirth. Int J Environ Res Public Health 14.
- Moser, K., Hilder, L., 2008. Assessing quality of nhs numbers for babies data and providing gestational age statistics. Health Stat Q:15–23.
- Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J., Ristovska, G., Dadvand, P., 2017. Who environmental noise guidelines for the european region: A systematic review on environmental noise and adverse birth outcomes. Int J Environ Res Public Health 14.
- Olsson, D., Ekstrom, M., Forsberg, B., 2012. Temporal variation in air pollution concentrations and preterm birth-a population based epidemiological study. Int J Environ Res Public Health 9, 272–285.
- Olsson, D., Mogren, I., Forsberg, B., 2013. Air pollution exposure in early pregnancy and adverse pregnancy outcomes: A register-based cohort study. BMJ Open 3.

ONS. 2017. Birth characteristics in england and wales: 2016.

- Palagini, L., Gemignani, A., Banti, S., Manconi, M., Mauri, M., Riemann, D., 2014. Chronic sleep loss during pregnancy as a determinant of stress: Impact on pregnancy outcome. Sleep Med 15, 853–859.
- Pedersen, M., 2016. Is it still important to study if ambient air pollution triggers stillbirth? Occup Environ Med.
- Ritz, B., Wilhelm, M., Hoggatt, K.J., Ghosh, J.K., 2007. Ambient air pollution and preterm birth in the environment and pregnancy outcomes study at the university of california, los angeles. Am J Epidemiol 166, 1045–1052.
- Siddika, N., Balogun, H.A., Amegah, A.K., Jaakkola, J.J., 2016. Prenatal ambient air pollution exposure and the risk of stillbirth: Systematic review and meta-analysis of the empirical evidence. Occup Environ Med.
- Smith, R.B., Fecht, D., Gulliver, J., Beevers, S.D., Dajnak, D., Blangiardo, M., et al., 2017.

Impact of london's road traffic air and noise pollution on birth weight: Retrospective population based cohort study. BMJ 359, j5299.

Stansfeld, S.A., 2015. Noise effects on health in the context of air pollution exposure. Int J Environ Res Public Health 12, 12735–12760.

- Sun, X., Luo, X., Zhao, C., Zhang, B., Tao, J., Yang, Z., et al., 2016. The associations between birth weight and exposure to fine particulate matter (pm2.5) and its chemical constituents during pregnancy: A meta-analysis. Environ Pollut 211, 38–47.
- Tunstall, H., Pickett, K., Johnsen, S., 2010. Residential mobility in the uk during pregnancy and infancy: Are pregnant women, new mothers and infants 'unhealthy migrants'? Soc Sci Med 71, 786–798.
- Vadillo-Ortega, F., Osornio-Vargas, A., Buxton, M.A., Sanchez, B.N., Rojas-Bracho, L., Viveros-Alcaraz, M., et al., 2014. Air pollution, inflammation and preterm birth: A potential mechanistic link. Med Hypotheses 82, 219–224.
- van Kempen, E., Babisch, W., 2012. The quantitative relationship between road traffic noise and hypertension: A meta-analysis. J Hypertens 30, 1075–1086.
- World Health Organisation, 2011. Burden of disease from environmental noise. Quantification of healthy life years lost in europe. WHO Regional Office for Europe, Bonn, Germany.
- Yang, S., Tan, Y., Mei, H., Wang, F., Li, N., Zhao, J., et al., 2018. Ambient air pollution the risk of stillbirth: A prospective birth cohort study in wuhan, china. Int J Hyg Environ Health 221, 502–509.
- Zang, H., Cheng, H., Song, W., Yang, M., Han, P., Chen, C., et al., 2019. Ambient air pollution and the risk of stillbirth: A population-based prospective birth cohort study in the coastal area of china. Environ Sci Pollut Res Int.
- Zhang, L., Liu, W., Hou, K., Lin, J., Zhou, C., Tong, X., et al., 2019. Air pollution-induced missed abortion risk for pregnancies. Nature Sustainability.