Advantages and Difficulties of using Spatial Enablement to Support Public Health in Cities: The PULSE Case Study

Daniele Pala¹, Marica Teresa Rocca² and Vittorio Casella²

¹Department of Electrical, Computer and Biomedical Engineering, University of Pavia, Pavia, Italy ²Department of Civil Engineering and Architecture, University of Pavia, Pavia, Italy

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Abstract: Big cities are heterogeneous environments in which socioeconomic and environmental differences among the neighborhoods are pronounced, therefore research projects that aim at informing public health policies at a single city level are being developed. Since most of public health data is referred to some geography, spatial enablement plays a fundamental role when it comes to analysis and visualization of urban health data. The PULSE project, part of the EU Horizon 2020 framework, involves five cities to transform public health from a reactive to a predictive system, and promote wellbeing by developing an integrated data ecosystem based on continuous large-scale collection of information, leading to better-informed data-driven health policy. One of the goals of PULSE is to apply spatial enablement to generate statistics useful to asses public health at a high spatial resolution, allowing to organize interventions at a neighborhood level. In this paper, we present a preliminary spatial enablement study carried out in this context, in which we show opposite sides of its application: while the results are promising, the lack of standardization and protocols in the data collection and representation processes make spatial enablement very difficult to apply to open data.

1 INTRODUCTION

The percentage of the world's population living in urban areas is projected to increase from 54% in 2015 to 60% in 2030 and to 66% by 2050 (United Nations and Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2014). It is important to acknowledge that big cities are perfect labs for innovation aiming at managing demographic and epidemiological transitions (WHO, 2016). Big cities are heterogeneous environments where social, environmental and demographic conditions can vary significantly within relatively small distances. For this reason, studies aiming at improving health and wellbeing in the urban areas have to address the problem at a neighborhood level, taking into account the underlying spatial variability.

In line with this principle, the international project named *Participatory Urban Living for Sustainable Environments* (PULSE) has been funded by the EU Commission under the Horizon 2020 framework to undertake research and innovation in big cities in Europe, the United States and Asia. PULSE is partnering with five important cities – Barcelona, Birmingham, New York, Paris and Singapore – and has two main focuses: the link between air quality and

asthma, and the one between physical inactivity and type 2 diabetes. PULSE aims at providing effective solutions to prevent and treat these diseases through an innovative data integration platform, where data will be collected directly from the users/citizens, enrolled in each of the five cities, through a mobile App, and from open data sources and air quality sensors. PULSE aims also at involving public health authorities directly. Besides the App, the PULSE system features also an innovative WebGIS that allows data visualization, a Decision Support System that allows to analyze the data, runs predictive models and sends notifications and advice directly to the users, and dashboards to help public health authorities visualize the situation in the city and design proper interventions.

One of the key features of the PULSE system, is the so-called *spatial enablement*, i.e. the addition of a spatial description to a dataset and/or an analysis procedure. Most of the data regarding public health has a natural spatial reference, since demographic data is collected considering areas of residence of the population, and environmental measurements clearly depend on the geographical zone they are referred to. Although the concept of spatial enablement is not

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new, studies that address this topic in urban environments, breaking down the problem to a neighborhood wellbeing study, are not common in literature. Some studies focusing on urban areas have been carried out, but they generally analyze the whole city or use broad spatial subdivisions. In the PULSE context, we seek to study public health problems in urban contexts at a fine spatial resolution, considering all the characteristics of each single neighborhood.

Spatial enablement methods are promising both for analysis and visualization matters, but their application is generally quite complicated due to a diffuse lack of standards and regularization in the data collection process. Data regarding demographic, socioeconomics, environment and air pollution, when available, is often collected by different public and private entities, that apply different collection procedures and storage standards, making it long and uneasy to retrieve and process all the data.

In this paper, we present as case study a series of analyses we carried out within the PULSE project using almost uniquely open data, in particular we applied a spatial enabled method called Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR) to a combination of datasets referred to New York City, with the aim of investigating the link between asthma hospitalizations and several socioeconomic and environmental factors.

After a brief presentation of the methodology and the results, explained in detail in another paper that is currently under review, we focus also on the difficulties that we encountered during our analyses, highlighting the need of a better-defined system in the data collection and storage processes in the public health environment.

2 MATERIALS AND DATASETS

PULSE is characterized by a complex architecture that allows an intense data flow through several different integrated systems. The main components of this architecture are:

- The *Pulsair* App for smartphone, through which users can send their data and position, and receive personalized feedbacks concerning their condition in relation to the situation in their city;
- Backend analytics and a Decision Support System, that apply big data methods to analyze the input data and use predictive risk models, in order to eventually generate feedbacks for the users;
- Dashboards that allow the public health policy makers to inspect the situation in different neigh-

borhoods and organize proper interventions;

• A large and innovative WebGIS that allows to visualize all the data on maps and quickly spot the main features and criticalities in the studied cities.

Since the geographical description of health-related phenomena is at the base of PULSE, the WebGIS could be considered the most interesting architecture element in the project, as it collects and integrates a large wealth of spatially-enabled data.

In line with the PULSE principle, and to start investigating its applications and extensions, we carried out a preliminary spatial enablement study using some open data currently integrated in the PULSE WebGIS.

2.1 A Data Integration Example: New York City

While the PULSE system is still in a development phase and the WebGIS is expected to be complete by the spring of 2019, a lot of data integration, modeling and analysis is already being carried out with data coming from the five cities. In particular, thanks to its peculiar data availability, we developed a large WebGIS prototype of New York City, and performed some preliminary analyses on it, in order to demonstrate the importance of spatial enablement in studying public health in cities and the usefulness and innovation of PULSE.

Several sources of data have been used to carry out the analyses reported in this paper. Most of the data has been kindly provided to the PULSE consortium by The New York Academy of Medicine. We used socioeconomic data freely available in the NYC Neighborhood Health Atlas website ("New York City Neighborhood Health Atlas," n.d.), from which it has been downloaded. The hospitalization and ED visit rates data, as well as the PM2.5 historical data, has been downloaded from the NYC Environmental & Health Data Portal("Environment & Health Data Portal," n.d.). Information regarding age and race of hospitalized people has been acquired from the SPARCS("Statewide Planning and Research Cooperative System," n.d.) limited 2014 dataset.

2.2 Geographically Weighted Regression

The collected datasets were analyzed through Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR) (McMillen, 2004), that is a linear regression model with the addition of a weight that provides a spatial description.

Given a dependent variable y and one or more explanatory one, x_i , known for an adequate number nof observations, which can be represented by points (x_i, y_i) , a regular linear regression is characterized by a set of equations that can be represented in the vector formalism

$$\boldsymbol{Y}_0 = \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} \tag{1}$$

where Y_0 contains the actual measurements of y and the vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is composed by the unknown coefficients β_i . Its estimation is usually performed by a minimum problem; the minimized quantity is the squared norm of the difference between the observed values of \mathbf{Y}_0 and those given by the model:

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} \coloneqq \min \sum (y_{0i} - (\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})_i)^2$$
(2)

The depicted solution can be generalized by introducing a weight, thus giving each observation a different relevance

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} \coloneqq \min \sum w_i (y_{0i} - (\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})_i)^2$$
(3)

GWR uses the above defined method to take into consideration spatial variability. In a common GIS layer with polygon representation of an environment, each polygon corresponds to an observation, located in its *centroid*. The studied area can be overlapped with a set of regularly-spaced dots. For each dot, a distinct regression is calculated, in which the observed values for the dependent and explanatory variables are the same, but the weights change. In our case, the weight function is

$$w_i = e^{-\frac{d_i^2}{s^2}} \tag{4}$$

where d_i is the distance between the considered dot and the *i*-th centroid and *s* is a threshold, corresponding in our case to 5 km. In our study, we overlapped to the NYC map a grid of points distant 1 km from each other.

3 RESULTS

As mentioned in section 1, the complete results of our spatial enablement study are presented in another paper, currently under final review. In this section however, we present a brief extract of the results to show the power of spatial enablement and how promising these methods are.

In our study, we investigated the relations among asthma hospitalizations and several socioeconomic, demographic and environmental factors in the different neighborhoods of New York City. The factors we considered were PM2.5 and ozone concentration, percentage of land used for industrial activities, poverty rate, race, age, medical insurance and garbage recycling. Both univariate and multivariate analyses have been carried out.

3.1 Univariate Analysis

In the first step of our analysis, we considered each variable individually and ran the geographic regression model to inspect its relation with the hospitalization rate, and how this varies in the different zones of the city.

As an example, figure 1 reports the result of this algorithm applied using poverty rate as covariate, showing a map of the β_1 coefficients (left side) and one of the R^2 scores (right side) in each point in which the regression is calculated. It can be easily noticed that, although there is general positive relation between high poverty and higher hospitalization rates, this relation changes throughout the city, sometimes importantly. In this example, as in most of the poorer areas of the city (i.e, the Bronx and the inner border between Brooklyn and Queens) the hospitalization rate is high, there are some areas in which the relation is not as strong, as it becomes even unreliable in south-west Brooklyn and East Staten island. This highlights the importance of studying public health problems at a granular spatial resolution, in order to spot all the possible relations.

We obtained similar results testing also all the other covariates. As a general rule, socioeconomic and demographic variables appear to be more related to hospitalizations than air pollution, but this could be due to the lack of measurements taken in a proper time frame, that forced us to use averaged data. All factors anyway showed a different level of influence in different areas of the city.

3.2 Multivariate Analysis

We also performed GWR testing several covariates at the same time in a multivariate model, that has the advantage of being able to ease the comparison of the effects of different variables, allowing to spot outliers, confounders and relations between different factors. In this section, we show an example of multivariate GWR that combines poverty rate and percentage of people identifying as Black and Hispanic. The underlying model can be described by the following equation, valid for each point where the GWR is performed:

$$Hosp = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * Pov + \beta_2 * \%Bl + \beta_3 * \%His$$



Figure 1: Results of the GWR algorithm using the poverty rate as covariate. On the left side a map of the β_1 coefficients calculated in all the points in which the regression is performed is visible; on the right side, a map of the R^2 scores is shown.

Where *Hosp* stands for "hospitalizations", *Pov* stands for "poverty" and *Bl* and *His* for "Black" and "Hispanic" respectively.

Race/ethnicity is known to be related to asthma (Litonjua et al., 1999). Several studies suggest that Black and Hispanic residents in the USA tend to suffer from higher rates of asthma as they live in poorer areas close to industrial sites and large highways (Clark et al., 2017).

Results are visible in figure 2. On the left side of the image, maps of the β coefficients are shown, whereas panels in the right side show correspondent significance maps based on the t-statistic values. In detail, we created 3 significance levels: Non-Significant (NS), Partially Significant (PS), Significant (S), based on the t-statistic threshold values 1.96 (5% confidence level) and 2.58 (1% confidence level). Several interesting phenomena can be noticed:

- *R*² is extremely high in all the region (> 0.7, image not shown), therefore the linear model is globally reliable;
- Considering poverty and percentage of Black population, the correspondent β are always positive, indicating a positive correlation between either of these factors and the hospitalization rate;
- In general, the higher the β, the higher the level of significance. Therefore, in the neighborhoods in which we found that high variables' levels lead to high hospitalization rates, the found relations are significant;

Low significance levels could be due to the effect of other confounding variables and to a smaller quantity of data available. For instance, looking at the percentage of Hispanic people (image not shown), it can be noticed that most of the Hispanic population is concentrated in the Bronx, Upper Manhattan (Harlem, East Harlem and Washington Heights), in central and west Queens and some areas of east Brooklyn (Bushwick and south of Highland Park), plus some isolated spots in west Brooklyn (Sunset Park) and north Staten Island. Apart from these last isolated spots, in the same areas in which the concentration is higher, also the significance of the correspondent beta is high. Hence lower significance corresponds to higher scarcity of data.

These results show that even multivariate geographical analysis can be helpful to describe and visualize important public health phenomena and discover the relations among different factors.

4 COMPLICATIONS

As promising as spatial enablement is, its application to an urban health problem is not easy. Large cities such as New York are sources of enormous quantities of heterogeneous data, that are by definition difficult to process as they differ in typology, dimension, scale, collection method etc.

Moreover, public health agencies have not yet defined standards and harmonization methods to ease the process of analyzing the huge quantity of data collected. Within PULSE, we are experiencing longer than expected processing times for all the cities due to the same problem. In this section we present a case study upon NYC data used for our GWR study, that shows some examples of the typical problems encountered during these kinds of protocols.

 eta_1 (Poverty) - Significance eta_1 (Poverty) - Values 4.46e-01 4.31e-01 4.23e-01 4.12e-01 4.01e-01 3.90e-01 3.76e-01 3.59e-01 3.38e-01 3.12e-01 2.82e-01 PS 2.55e-01 2.38e-01 2.25e-01 2.11e-01 1.92e-01 1.76e-01 NS 1.53e-01 1.28e-01 9.79e-02 .71e-02 β_2 (%Black) - Significance β_2 (%Black) - Values 4.28e-01 3.57e-01 3.41e-01 3.27e-01 3.18e-01 3.12e-01 3.07e-01 3.02e-01 2.98e-01 2.92e-01 2.87e-01 PS 2.81e-01 2.72e-01 2.57e-01 2.34e-01 2.08e-01 1.80e-01 0 NS 1.53e-01 1.30e-01 1.08e-01 8.74e-02 eta_3 (%Hispanic) - Values eta_3 (%Hispanic) - Significance 1.21e+00 1.15e+00 1.13e+00 1.12e+00 S 1.11e+00 1.09e+00 1.06e+00 1.03e+00 9.93e-01 9.29e-01 8.35e-01 PS 7.14e-01 5.97e-01 4.99e-01 4.09e-01 3.13e-01 1.90e-01 0 -2.92e-04 NS -8.08e-02 -1.23e-01 1.48e-01

Figure 2: Results of the multivariate model. On the left side, the regression coefficients; on the right side, the correspondent significance level, based on the confidence intervals.

4.1 Conventional Spatial Subdivisions

New York City has a very large amount of open data available regarding all different aspects of the population and the environment. Other data is available upon request and/or purchase to the State's public health departments.

Public health data is collected with reference to several different spatial subdivisions in NYC, that are:

• Boroughs: 5 polygons correspondent to the main

districts of the city (Bronx, Brooklyn, Manhattan, Queens, Staten Island);

- UHF34 (United Hospital Fund), with 34 polygons;
- UHF42, 42 polygons;
- CD55 (Community Districts), with 55 polygons;
- CD59, 59 polygons;
- CD71, 71 polygons;
- PUMA (Public Use Microdata Areas) 55 polygons not overlapping with the CD55 subdivision;
- NTA (Neighborhood Tabulation Areas), 195 polygons;
- ZIP Codes, 262 polygons.

Once imported in a GIS software and visualized on maps, none of the polygons in one subdivision has vertices that can be overlapped to the ones of any other subdivision. This poses a problem when it comes to analyze data from multiple sources, since different kinds of data are collected referred to different subdivisions. A harmonization algorithm is therefore necessary. For instance, in our GWR application we decided to adopt the UHF42 subdivision, as most of the data was already available in this spatial description. All the data available in another tessellation was transformed through the following algorithm: let's consider a polygonal subdivision for which a certain variant is available, for each polygon \mathcal{P}_i , the variant value v_i is known. If we consider another polygon \mathcal{P}_0 , belonging a different subdivision, in general it won't coincide with any \mathcal{P}_i and, instead, will overlap to several of them. The estimated v_0 can be obtained by the weighted sum

$$v_0 = \frac{\sum_i v_i A_i}{\sum_i A_i} \tag{5}$$

where A_i is the area of the intersection between \mathcal{P}_i and \mathcal{P}_0 and the summation is only performed over the polygons for which the intersection is non-empty. This means that the value of a certain phenomenon in any spatial subdivision can be represented in the UHF42 one constructing each polygon as the sum of the same value in the other subdivision, weighted for the overlapping area.

4.2 Geometric Consistency

Most of the public health data, both openly available and provided by the public health agencies is generally in tabular form rather than in shapefiles, making it necessary to create the shapefiles by joining the tables with pre-existing polygons. In the NYC open data, however, several indicators are already represented in shapefiles. In our study, and during the acquisition of data to be integrated in the PULSE WebGIS and system, we used several shapefiles, and found that lots of them contain errors or imprecisions. For example, taking two different shapefiles representing data on the same spatial subdivision and overlapping them, we could notice that some of the polygons' border didn't overlap properly, showing an offset between the two shapes in some areas of the map. Figures 3 and 4 show some examples.



Figure 3: Detail of two shapefiles representing the same area of the city. It can be noticed that some polygons have a visible offset with the same polygons of other shapefiles.



Figure 4: Another clear example of two shapefiles not properly overlapping. In this case, some little islands in the Rockaway area are entirely absent from one of the two shapes.

A similar problem was found in relation to some

uninhabited areas of the city, such as Central Park and JFK and La Guardia airports, that were marked as holes in some shapefiles, and represented as polygons in others. To overcome these multiple problems, it was necessary to manually modify the shape of the polygons, creating a serious waste of time and resources. This phenomenon is shown in Figure 5.



Figure 5: In this overlap of two shapefiles, it can be clearly seen that Central Park and the areas with the two airports within the city border (JFK and La Guardia) are treated as holes in one of the shapes, but not in the other.

4.3 Tabular Data Problems

Besides all the difficulties encountered with the shapefiles, also the more common tabular data, typically found in xls or csv formats, had some issues we had to deal with. Figure 6 shows an extract of a typical table representing health data in NYC. Several things can be noticed, for example the key "1", used to indicate the geographical area of reference and necessary to match this table with other tables, is used both referred to the whole city and to the borough of the Bronx. Moreover, in this table the comma sign is used in multiple different ways, as it simultaneously represents the thousands separator, the column delimiter and the item delimiter inside the brackets showing confidence intervals.

,,,,,Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months : Summarize
Topic: Health Behavior and Population
Subtopic: Asthma
Indicator Name: Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months
Indicator Description: Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months
Notes: **Estimate is supressed due to insufficient data.*Estimate is based on small numbers so
Year, GeoTypeName, Borough, Geography, Geography id, IndicatorDescription, Number, Percent, Age-Adjuste
2014, Citywide, New York City, New York City, 1, Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months, "238,000
2014, Borough, Bronx, Bronx, 1, Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months, "48,000 ", "4.7 (3.5,6.3)",
2014, Borough, Brooklyn, Brooklyn, 2, Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months, "59,000 ", "3.0 (2.3,
2014, Borough, Manhattan, Manhattan, 3, Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months, "55,000 ", "4.2 (3.
2014, Borough, Queens, Queens, 4, Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months, "59,000 ", "3.3 (2.4,4.5)
2014, Borough, Staten Island, Staten Island, 5, Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months, "17,000 ",
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Queens, Bayside Little Neck-Fresh Meadows, 404406, Adults with Asthma
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Brooklyn, Bedford Stuyvesant - Crown Heights, 203, Adults with Asthma
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Brooklyn, Bensonhurst - Bay Ridge, 209, Adults with Asthma in the Past
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Brooklyn, Borough Park, 206, Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months,
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Brooklyn, Canarsie - Flatlands, 208, Adults with Asthma in the Past 12
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Manhattan, Central Harlem - Morningside Heights, 302, Adults with Asth
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Manhattan, Chelsea-Village, 306308, Adults with Asthma in the Fast 12
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Brooklyn, Coney Island - Sheepshead Bay, 210, Adults with Asthma in th
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Brooklyn, Downtown - Heights - Slope, 202, Adults with Asthma in the F
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Brooklyn, East Flatbush - Flatbush, 207, Adults with Asthma in the Pas
2014, Neighborhood (UHF 34), Manhattan, East Harlem, 303, Adults with Asthma in the Past 12 Months,
2014 Naighborhood (UHF 34) Brooklum, East New York 204 Edults with Eather in the East 12 Months

Figure 6: Example of tabular data found in public health open data sources. The way data is represented makes the import and processing part very complicated.

Such features are confusing and make it very difficult to import the data and analyze the table with a software. The difficulties rise considering that in the integration of several health data sources, a researcher usually has to deal with a large number of tables not different from the one shown in this example.

5 DISCUSSION

With the continuous development of sophisticated big data analytics and the technological progress, both the quantity of data that can be collected and the collection velocity are rapidly increasing in several applications of the medical research. One of the most rapidly developing fields of research is indubitably exposomics, i.e. the study of the combination of factors to which an individual is exposed during a certain amount of time that can cause a change in his/her phenotype regarding a specific pathology. During our life, we are exposed to an enormous quantity of phenomena that can influence our health. Since exposure depends on location, spatial enablement is gradually becoming necessary in public health analyses.

In this paper, we briefly presented the PULSE project and explained how it intends to apply spatial enablement in its most innovative form, then we showed a case study, carried out within PULSE, in which we applied a spatial analysis technique that allowed us to show how public health could benefit from spatial enablement in big cities. In our study we considered asthma hospitalizations as an easy to monitor outcome of a series of exposures which every citizen is exposed to involuntarily, and we aimed at looking at how these factors could influence the impact of a common disease such as asthma. The application of these techniques in the public health field allows to increase the awareness of the health problems in cities and therefore to take better informed decisions on how to intervene, making interventions more targeted and leading to a cost reduction for public improvements and healthcare assistance.

The final aim of PULSE is to create a protocol, tested in five cities but eventually extendable to potentially any city, in which public health policy makers are supported by specific entities, called Public Health Observatories (PHO), that help them in the data interpretation and decision-making processes.

PULSE has been funded by the European Commission, but involves several institutions from all the world with the common aim of promoting public health and wellbeing by creating a system that can be extended in ideally all the big cities. The system is being tested in 7 cities – Barcelona, Birmingham, Paris, Pavia, New York, Keelung and Singapore – and data is being collected in those cities both from the system itself and from outside sources, thanks to the cooperation with the local public health authorities, that will help providing data and deploying the system in a way that makes it adaptable to each city's environment and legal limitations.

Unfortunately, the capability of quickly collect and analyze rising quantities of data is developing without enough regularization and awareness from the public health authorities, leading to a constantly increasing quantity of unorganized, chaotic data, difficult to import and analyze without accurate supervision. What we showed in this paper is just a sample use case of a diffuse problem in big data health studies with public focuses. Data harmonization and preprocessing are often timeconsuming tasks, and this could be changed with the introduction of standardization protocols in the data collection within the same areas.

Despite municipalities and public organizations in large cities are moving forward in the right direction in increasing the quantities of spatially enabled data collected and making it more easily available to the public and the scientific community, more effort should be put in defining protocols that can allow an easier use of the data.

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6 CONCLUSIONS

Spatial enablement is the development of techniques that add a spatial description to datasets and analysis tools. Thanks to these techniques, public health problems can be better addressed thanks to the detailed knowledge of the location of environmental and social exposures, reducing time and costs of interventions. Unfortunately, the use and spreading of these methods is slowed down by a lack of efficient data collection and representation protocols, that leads to a dilation of processing and analyses time, and a consequent waste of resources.

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