# Disparities in air pollution exposure in the United States by race-ethnicity and income, 1990 – 2010

- 2 3
- Jiawen Liu,<sup>1</sup> Lara P. Clark,<sup>1</sup> Matthew Bechle,<sup>1</sup> Anjum Hajat,<sup>2</sup> Sun-Young Kim,<sup>3</sup> Allen L. Robinson,<sup>4</sup> Lianne Sheppard,<sup>5,6</sup> Adam A. Szpiro,<sup>5</sup> Julian D. Marshall<sup>1</sup>
- 5 6

- <sup>7</sup> <sup>1</sup>Department of Civil & Environmental Engineering, University of Washington, Seattle,
- 8 Washington, USA
- <sup>9</sup> <sup>2</sup>Department of Epidemiology, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington, USA
- <sup>10</sup> <sup>3</sup>Department of Cancer Control and Population Health, Graduate School of Cancer Science and
- 11 Policy, National Cancer Center, Goyang-si, Gyeonggi-do, Korea
- <sup>4</sup>Department of Mechanical Engineering & Department of Engineering and Public Policy,
- 13 Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, USA
- <sup>5</sup>Department of Biostatistics, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington, USA
- <sup>6</sup>Department of Environmental and Occupational Health Sciences, University of Washington,
- 16 Seattle, Washington, USA
- 17
- 18 Please address correspondence to J.D. Marshall, Dept. of Civil & Environmental Engineering,
- 19 University of Washington, 201 More Hall, Seattle, WA, 98195, USA. Telephone: (206) 685-
- 20 2591. Email: jdmarsh@uw.edu
- 21
- 22 Declaration of competing financial interests: All authors declare they have no actual or potential 23 competing financial interest
- 23 competing financial interest.
- 24
- 25

### 26 Abstract

- 27 **Background:** Few studies have investigated air pollution exposure disparities by race-ethnicity
- and income across criteria air pollutants, locations, or time.
- 29
- 30 **Objectives**: To quantify exposure disparities by race-ethnicity and income, throughout the 31 contiguous US, for six criteria air pollutants, during 1990 to 2010.
- 32

33 Methods: We quantified exposure disparities among racial-ethnic groups (non-Hispanic White,

34 non-Hispanic Black, Hispanic (any race), non-Hispanic Asian) and by income for multiple

35 spatial units (contiguous US, states, urban vs. rural areas) and years (1990, 2000, 2010) for

- carbon monoxide [CO], nitrogen dioxide [NO<sub>2</sub>], ozone [O<sub>3</sub>], particulate matter [PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>],
   and sulfur dioxide [SO<sub>2</sub>]. We used decennial census data for demographic information and a
- 38 national empirical model for ambient air pollution levels.
- 39

40 **Results:** For all years and pollutants, the racial-ethnic group with the highest national average

- 41 exposure was a racial-ethnic minority group. In 2010, the disparity between the racial-ethnic
- 42 group with the highest versus lowest national-average exposure was largest for  $NO_2$  (64% [4.6

43 ppb]), smallest for  $O_3$  (4% [1.6 ppb]), and intermediate for the remaining pollutants (13%-21%).

44 The disparities varied by US state; for example, for  $PM_{2.5}$  in 2010, exposures were at least 5%

45 higher-than-average in 63% of states for non-Hispanic Black populations, in 33% and 26% of

46 states for Hispanic and for non-Hispanic Asian populations, respectively, and in no states for

47 non-Hispanic White populations. Absolute exposure disparities were larger among racial-ethnic

groups than among income categories (range among pollutants: between 1.1 and 21 times
larger). Over study period, national absolute racial-ethnic exposure disparities declined by

49 larger). Over study period, national absolute racial-etinic exposure disparities decline 50 hatman 25% (0.66 mm  $^3$  **DM** ) and 88% (0.25 mm CO)

50 between 35% (0.66  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>; PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and 88% (0.35 ppm; CO).

51

52 **Discussion:** As air pollution concentrations declined during 1990 to 2010, racial-ethnic exposure

53 disparities also declined. However, in 2010, racial-ethnic exposure disparities remained across

54 income levels, in urban and rural areas, and in all states, for multiple pollutants.

55

56

57

58 59

#### 63 Introduction

64 Air pollution is associated with ~100,000 annual premature deaths in the United States 65 (US) (Stanaway et al. 2018) and is linked to cardiovascular disease, respiratory disease, cancers, 66 adverse birth outcomes, cognitive decline, and other health impacts (Cohen et al. 2017; Darrow et al. 2019; Lelieveld et al. 2015; Paul et al. 2019; Pope et al. 2009; Rivas et al. 2019; Stieb et al. 67 68 2012; Underwood 2017). Air pollution, and its associated health impacts, is not equitably 69 distributed by race-ethnicity or income. Previous research has documented higher-than-average 70 air pollution exposures for racial-ethnic minority populations and lower-income populations in 71 the US (Brulle and Pellow 2006; Evans and Kantrowitz 2002; Mohai et al. 2009), leading to 72 disparities in attributable health impacts (Bowe et al. 2019; Fann et al. 2019; Gee and Payne-73 Sturges 2004). Most investigations of disparities in air pollution exposure involve a single 74 pollutant, location, and/or time-point (Hajat et al. 2015; Marshall et al. 2014). Evidence from 75 more comprehensive investigations suggests that exposure disparities by race-ethnicity and/or 76 income can vary by pollutant (Rosofsky et al. 2018), location (e.g., by state (Bullock et al. 2018; 77 Salazar et al. 2019), urbanicity (Mikati et al. 2018), metropolitan area (Zwickl et al. 2014; 78 Downey et al. 2008)), and time-point (Ard 2015; Clark et al. 2017; Kravitz-Wirtz et al. 2016; 79 Colmer et al. 2020). However, broad patterns in exposure disparities have not yet been 80 investigated, using consistent methods, across pollutants, locations, and time-points, for the

- 81 national population.
- 82 The objective of our research was to comprehensively and consistently investigate
- 83 disparities in exposure to Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) criteria air pollutants for the
- 84 two decades following the 1990 Clean Air Act Amendments in the US. Specifically, we 85 investigated the following questions regarding disparities in exposure to six criteria air
- 85 investigated the following questions regarding disparities in exposure to six criteria air
  86 pollutants: (1) How do exposures vary by race-ethnicity and income? (2) How do racial-ethnic
- exposure disparities vary by pollutant? (3) How do racial-ethnic exposure disparities vary by
- location (state, urban vs. rural areas)? (4) How have racial-ethnic exposure disparities changed
- 89 over time? To address these questions, we combined demographic data from the US Census
- 90 (Manson et al. 2019) with predictions of outdoor average levels of six criteria air pollutants from
- 91 a publicly-available national empirical model derived from satellite, measurement and other
- types of data (Kim et al. 2020) at the spatial scale of census block groups and census tracts. We
- 93 then analyzed disparities in exposure to six criteria air pollutants (all criteria air pollutants except
- lead [Pb]; i.e., carbon monoxide [CO], nitrogen dioxide [NO<sub>2</sub>], ozone [O<sub>3</sub>], fine and coarse
  particulate matter [PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>], and sulfur dioxide [SO<sub>2</sub>]) by race-ethnicity (four racial-ethnic
- 95 particulate matter [PM2.5, PM10], and sulfur dioxide [SO2]) by face-etimicity (four facial-etimic 96 groups: white, Black, Hispanic, Asian) and income (16 household income categories) across
- 97 time-points (decennial census years: 1990, 2000, and 2010) and spatial units (contiguous US,
- 98 state, urban vs. rural areas).
- 99

# 100 Methods

# 101 **Demographic and Air Pollution Datasets**

- 102 We obtained demographic data (i.e., population estimates by race-ethnicity, household income,
- 103 and household income disaggregated by race-ethnicity) and map boundaries (e.g., states, census
- tracts, and census block groups) for the contiguous US from the 1990, 2000, and 2010 decennial
- 105 census from the IPUMS National Historic Geographic Information System (NHGIS) (Manson et al. 2019).
- 107 NHGIS provides, for each census block group, and for 1990, 2000, and 2010
- 108 (standardized to 2010 spatial boundaries), population estimates for six census self-reported racial

109 groups: (i) White alone, (ii) Black or African American alone, (iii) American Indian and Alaska

- 110 Native alone, (iv) Asian and Pacific Islander alone, (v) some other race alone, and (vi) two or
- 111 more races. NHGIS reports population estimates for two census self-reported ethnic groups: (i)
- 112 Hispanic or Latino and (ii) not Hispanic or Latino. Thus, there are 12 racial-ethnic groups in 113
- NHGIS (six racial groups, two ethnic groups). Our main analyses here regarding racial-ethnic
- 114 exposure disparities included the four largest racial-ethnic groups, which in total covered 307 115 million people (97.2% of the population) in the contiguous US in 2010: (i) not Hispanic or
- 116 Latino, White alone (64% of the population; hereafter, "non-Hispanic White"), (ii) Hispanic or
- 117 Latino of any race(s) (16%; hereafter, "Hispanic"), (iii) not Hispanic or Latino, Black or African
- 118 American alone (12%; hereafter, "non-Hispanic Black"), and (iv) not Hispanic or Latino, Asian 119 and Pacific Islander alone (4.6%; hereafter, "non-Hispanic Asian").
- 120 For analyses by income in 2010, we used 2010 NHGIS household income estimates. For 121 each block group, NHGIS reports the number of households in 16 annual household income 122 categories (total covered in 2010: 114 million households): <10k, 10k-15k, 15k-20k, 20k-25k, 123 25k-30k, 30k-35k, 35k-40k, 40k-45k, 45k-50k, 50k-60k, 60k-75k, 75k-100k, 100k-125k,
- 124 125k–150k, 150k–200k, and >200k (2010 inflation-adjusted US dollars).
- 125 For analyses by income disaggregated by race-ethnicity in 2010, data from the 2010 NHGIS were available at the census tract level. For each census tract, NHGIS reports the number 126 127 of census householders in each of the 16 census income categories, disaggregated in eight census racial and/or ethnic groups: (i) not Hispanic or Latino, White alone, (ii) Black or African 128 129 American alone, (iii) American Indian and Alaska Native alone, (iv) Asian alone, (v) Native 130 Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone, (vi) some other race alone, (vii) two or more races, 131 and (viii) Hispanic or Latino. To best match demographic variables used in race-ethnicity 132 analysis at the census block group level, we reported results for four largest race-ethnicity groups 133 (total covered in 2010: 113 million census householders, 98.5% of householders with data on 134 income by race-ethnicity): not Hispanic or Latino, White alone (71% of householders; hereafter, 135 "non-Hispanic White"), Hispanic or Latino (12%; hereafter, "Hispanic"), Black or African American alone (12%; hereafter, "Black"), and Asian alone (3.8%; hereafter, "Asian"). Thus, for 136 137 the data used for the household income by race-ethnicity analysis (but not for other analyses), 138 Black and Asian categories included both Hispanic and non-Hispanic individuals; for these 139 analyses (but not others), Hispanic Black populations (~0.40% of the population) would be 140 included in results for Hispanic and for Black populations, and Hispanic Asian populations 141 (~0.08%) would be included in results for Hispanic and for Asian populations. Additionally, for 142 the data used for the household income by race-ethnicity analysis (but not for other analyses), the 143 Asian category does not also include Pacific Islander populations.
- The US Census Bureau defined census blocks as "urban" or "rural", based on population 144 density and other characteristics (Ratcliffe et al. 2016). We used 2010 census urban/rural block 145 146 definitions to define a 2010 census block group for all three years (1990, 2000, and 2010) as 147 rural if all blocks inside it were rural, and we defined the remaining block groups as urban.
- 148 Average estimates of ambient air pollution levels for US EPA criteria pollutants were 149 obtained from Center for Air, Climate, and Energy Solutions (CACES) empirical models for the 150 contiguous US (www.caces.us/data). These models incorporate satellite-derived estimates of air pollution, satellite-derived land cover data, land use data, EPA monitoring station data, and 151 152 universal Kriging (Kim et al. 2020); estimated pollution levels were available by census block at 153 block centroids based on 2010 census boundaries for years from 1990 to 2010 for all pollutants
- except PM<sub>2.5</sub> (for which monitoring data and exposure models were only available starting in 154

155 1999). Estimated levels of O<sub>3</sub> from the CACES empirical model are 5-month summer averages
 156 (specifically, the average during May through September of the daily maximum 8-hour moving

- 157 average level); for remaining pollutants, estimated levels are annual averages.
- 158 CACES model performance during the years studied here (1990, 2000, 2010), as
- 159 measured by cross-validated  $R^2$ , was 0.84–0.89 for NO<sub>2</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, 0.62–0.82 for O<sub>3</sub>, 0.56–0.62
- 160 for  $PM_{10}$ , and 0.32–0.66 for  $SO_2$  and CO (Kim et al. 2020). Mean error (ME) across the census 161 years studied was between -0.02 and 0 ppm for CO, -0.04 to 0 ppb for O<sub>3</sub>, -0.09 to -0.06 ppb for
- $NO_2$ , -0.17 to -0.13 ppb for SO<sub>2</sub>, -0.31 to -0.26 µg m<sup>-3</sup> for PM<sub>10</sub>, and -0.05 to -0.02 µg m<sup>-3</sup> for
- $163 \quad PM_{2.5}$ . Mean bias (MB) was 13% 22% for SO<sub>2</sub>, and <10% for the other pollutants.
- 164

#### 165 Combining Demographic and Air Pollution Data

- 166 We matched the CACES empirical model results and the Census demographic data using the
- 167 2010 census spatial boundary definitions (from finest to coarsest spatial resolution: block, block
- 168 group and tract boundaries) for the three census years (1990, 2000, 2010). We matched census
- 169 block-level CACES model predictions for criteria air pollutants (blocks in 2010 in the
- 170 contiguous US: n = -7 million; average: -44 residents per block) to census block group-level
- 171 demographic data (block groups:  $n = \sim 22,000$ ;  $\sim 1400$  residents per block group) by calculating
- 172 population-weighted mean air pollution levels for all census block centroids in that census block
- 173 group using census block population data in year 2010. Similarly, to match census tract-level
- demographic data (tracts: n = -74,000; -4200 residents per tract), we calculated the population-
- 175 weighted mean air pollution levels for all census block groups located within that tract.
- 176

### 177 Estimating Exposures to Pollutants

- 178 We estimated annual pollutant-specific exposures for 1990, 2000, and 2010 based on population-
- 179 weighted mean predicted ambient air pollution levels for each demographic group (race-
- 180 ethnicity, income, and income by race-ethnicity; additional groups described in the Supplemental
- 181 Material [SM]). This approach (average ambient air pollution level at residential census block
- 182 group or tract) is broadly consistent with many examples in research and practice, including EPA
- 183 monitors, the National Ambient Air Quality Standards, many influential epidemiological studies,
- and the published empirical models employed here. This article focuses on pollution level
- 185 disparities rather than health outcomes. We used the finest publicly available census spatial
- boundary data to estimate exposures for each analysis (income by race-ethnicity: tracts; all other
- 187 analyses: block groups) based on availability of census demographic data.
- 188 The national annual (for  $O_3$ , 5-month average; for remaining pollutants, annual-average) 189 exposure for demographic group *i* ( $e_i$ ) was calculated for a given pollutant and year as:

190 
$$e_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n c_j \mathsf{p}_{ij}}{\sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}}$$

[1]

191 where  $c_j$  is the predicted average ambient pollution level for block group or tract j,  $p_{ij}$  is the

192 population of demographic group i in block group or tract j, and n is the number of block groups

or tracts in the analyzed spatial level (contiguous US, 49 "states" (defined as the District ofColumbia plus 48 states), urban vs. rural areas).

195

#### 196 National Exposure Disparities Analyses

Our primary exposure disparity metrics are based on absolute and relative differences in
 mean pollution levels. We selected metrics based on mean pollution levels for consistency with
 our focus on broad national average patterns in exposure disparities among multiple pollutants.

200 Absolute disparity metrics are often connect to pollutant-specific health impacts(Harper et al. 201 2013). Relative disparity metrics (e.g., ratios, relative percent differences) are relevant for 202 quantifying disproportionality in exposure burdens, in a way that can be compared or 203 summarized among different pollutants. An important limitation of these metrics (based on 204 differences in mean exposures) is that they do not include information about disparities across 205 the full exposure distributions (Harper et al. 2013). To address this limitation, we conducted 206 supplemental analyses using inequality metrics accounting for full exposure distributions (Gini 207 Coefficient and between-group Atkinson Index), as described in the SM, as well as sensitivity 208 analyses comparing metrics based on other specific points of the exposure distribution (i.e., 209 comparing specific exposure percentiles) as described below.

We calculated the absolute and relative exposure disparity metrics using two different approaches nationally: (1) by race-ethnicity group and/or income category (i.e., the unit of analysis is a national subpopulation defined by race-ethnicity and/or income), and (2) by local demographic characteristics (i.e., the unit of analysis is a set of census block groups defined based on proportion of racial-ethnic minority residents).

217

# National Exposure Disparity Metrics Based on Racial-Ethnic Group and/or Income Category

218 Our primary absolute disparity metric for quantifying national racial-ethnic exposure 219 disparities is the pollutant-specific absolute difference in population-weighted average pollution 220 level, as calculated using **Equation** (1) with block group level data, between the racial-ethnic 221 group with the highest national mean exposure ("most-exposed group") and the racial-ethnic 222 group with the lowest national mean exposure ("least-exposed group") among the four racial-223 ethnic groups (non-Hispanic White, non-Hispanic Black, non-Hispanic Asian, Hispanic); here, 224 the unit of analysis is a racial-ethnic group. Our relative exposure disparity metric is the 225 pollutant-specific exposure ratio, calculated as the ratio in population-weighted average pollution 226 level between the most- and least-exposed racial-ethnic group. Both the absolute and relative 227 exposure disparity metrics are constructed based on differences between most and least exposed 228 racial-ethnic groups, to provide a measure of overall racial-ethnic disparities that avoids pre-229 selecting two specific groups for comparison and accounts for exposure disparities across 230 multiple groups, in a consistent way for each pollutant (accounting for potential differences in 231 the most- and least-exposed racial-ethnic groups by pollutant). We also report averages in 232 relative disparities across pollutants as a representation of overall average inequalities in 233 exposure to multiple pollutants; not as a representation of inequalities in health risks, which are 234 pollutant-specific and depend on absolute levels of pollution exposure.

235 To quantify national income-based exposure disparities we calculated the pollutant-236 specific absolute difference in population-weighted average pollution level, using Equation (1) 237 with block group level data, between the lowest (<\$10,000) and the highest (>\$200,000) 238 household income categories (of the 16 census categories). Additionally, as a relative disparity 239 metric, we calculated the relative percent difference in mean exposures between the lowest and 240 highest income categories. As a supplementary analysis, we calculated similar absolute and 241 relative exposure disparity metrics between the income category containing the 25<sup>th</sup> percentile 242 (\$20,000-25,000) and the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile (\$75,000-100,000) of the income distribution.

To quantify national exposure disparities by race-ethnicity and income, we first
 calculated the absolute difference in population-weighted average pollution level between the
 most- and least- exposed racial-ethnic group (among the four racial-ethnic groups, as above)

246 within each of the 16 census income categories, and then averaged that income category-specific 247 racial-ethnic exposure disparity across all 16 income categories, for each pollutant. In the 248 analyses for both race-ethnicity and income, we used census data for householders to calculate 249 exposures for the four racial-ethnic groups using **Equation** (1) with tract level data. Reflecting 250 publicly available census data for racial-ethnic groups by income category, for this section only, 251 the Black and Asian groups include Hispanic and non-Hispanic individuals, and the Asian group 252 does not include Pacific Islander individuals. As a relative disparity metric, we divided the 253 absolute exposure disparity metric by the national mean pollution level, for each of the 254 pollutants. 255

# National Exposure Disparity Metrics Based on Local Demographic Characteristics (i.e., Block Group Bins by Proportion of Racial-Ethnic Minority Residents)

258 We also investigated exposure disparities based on racial-ethnic minority resident 259 percentages; here, the unit of analysis is bin of census block groups. Each block group bin was 260 defined as single percentile (i.e., 1%) of all block groups stratified by the proportion of racial-261 ethnic minority residents. There were approximately 215,000 block groups in 2010, so each 262 block group bin contained approximately 2,150 block groups. To investigate racial-ethnic 263 disparities among block group bins, we rank ordered all census block group bins based on 264 percent of a racial-ethnic minority residents (i.e., people self-reporting any race-ethnicity other 265 than non-Hispanic White alone). For example, the first block group bin was the first percentile, 266 and consisted of all block groups with between 0% and 0.67% racial-ethnic minority residents; 267 the second block group bin was the second percentile, consisting of all block groups with 0.67% 268 -0.97% racial-ethnic minority residents; the third block group bin consisted of all block groups 269 with 0.97% - 1.2% racial-ethnic minority residents, and so on through all 100 block group bins. 270 The last block group bin consisted of all block groups with 99% – 100% racial-ethnic minority 271 residents. The annual exposure for demographic group *i* for the  $p^{th}$  percentile census block group 272 bin  $(e_{ip})$  was calculated for a given pollutant and year as:

$$e_{ip}=rac{\sum_{j=1}^{n_p}c_j \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{ij}}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n_p}p_{ij}},$$

[2]

where  $c_j$  is the average pollution level for block group j,  $p_{ij}$  is the population of demographic group i in block group j, and  $n_p$  is the number of block groups in the  $p^{\text{th}}$  percentile block group bin. The absolute disparity is calculated as the exposure difference between block groups with the highest- versus lowest- deciles of proportion racial-ethnic minority residents, and, similarly, the relative disparity is calculated as the exposure ratio between block groups with the highestversus lowest- deciles of proportion racial-ethnic minority residents.

280

#### 281 National Analysis of High-End Exposure Disparities in 2010

282 To quantify racial-ethnic disparities at the highest exposure levels, we analyzed the racial-ethnic composition of census block groups above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles of the average pollution level 283 284 among all census block groups. This was done seperately for each pollutant. First, for each of the 285 four largest racial-ethnic groups, we estimated the proportion of that group's national population 286 that lived in a high exposure block group; here, our unit of analysis is a racial-ethnic group. This calculation reflects the proportion of a racial-ethnic group's total US population that lived in 287 heavily polluted (above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile) block groups. We performed this calculation for each 288 289 pollutant and each racial-ethnic group, using Equation (3). The second analysis, which was the 290 converse of the first, investigated the racial-ethnic composition of block groups above the 90<sup>th</sup>

- 291 percentile for average pollution level. Here, our unit of analysis is all block groups above the 90<sup>th</sup>
- 292 percentile. This calculation reflects the demographics of only people that lived in heavily
- polluted block groups. We completed this calculation for each pollutant and each racial-ethnicgroup using Equation (4).
- 295

$$a_{i} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}}{p_{total\_national_{i}}} * 100\%.$$

$$b_{i} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}}{p_{total\_block\ group}} * 100\%.$$
[4]

Here, 
$$a_i$$
 is the percent of racial-ethnic group *i* living in a block group with concentration above  
the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile for that pollutant,  $p_{ij}$  is the population of group *i* in census block group *j*,  
 $p_{total_national_i}$  is the total population for group *i* in the United States,  $p_{total_block}$  group is the total  
population of census block groups above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile in the United States for that  
pollutant,  $b_i$  is (when considering only the people counted towards  $P_{total_block}$  group) the percent  
of people who are in racial-ethnic group *i*, and *n* is the number of census block groups above the  
90<sup>th</sup> percentile.  
To explore multi-pollutant aspects of high-end exposure, we investigated the proportion

To explore multi-pollutant aspects of high-end exposure, we investigated the proportion of the total US population living in census block groups that were above the 90th percentile for exposure to 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4+ pollutants, for each racial-ethnic group in 2010, using **Equation** (3).

308

#### 309 Sensitivity Analysis on Robustness of National Exposure Disparity Estimates

We conducted three sensitivity tests to investigate the robustness of conclusions based on estimated exposure disparities. First, as a sensitivity test for conclusions based on comparisons of mean values for exposures between groups, we calculated disparities using different metrics of the exposure distribution (10<sup>th</sup>, 25<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, 75<sup>th</sup>, 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles).

The remaining two sensitivity tests investigated whether conclusions here are robust to uncertainty in exposure model predictions. Specifically, in the second sensitivity test, we repeated the analysis of national mean exposures by racial-ethnic group, but for only the population living in a census block group with an EPA monitor in 2010. In this sensitivity test, we used the monitor observations directly as the exposure level, rather than modeling exposures. We then calculated Spearman rank-order correlation of relative disparities by pollutant (between the most- and least- exposed group) between base case and sensitivity test.

321 In the third sensitivity test, we compared the magnitude of uncertainties in the estimated 322 racial-ethnic exposure disparities with the magnitude of the estimated racial-ethnic exposure 323 disparities. To assess the potential impact of model error on racial-ethnic disparities, we first 324 calculated population-weighted mean error (ME) for each racial-ethnic group, k, using **Equation** 325 (5):

326

$$ME_{k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (c_{im} - c_{io}) p_{ik}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{ik}},$$
 [5]

where  $c_{im}$  is the modeled average pollution level for block group *i*,  $c_{io}$  is the measured average pollution level across all reporting EPA monitors within census block group *i*,  $p_{ik}$  is the population of demographic group *k* in block group *i*, and *n* is the total number of block groups with EPA monitors. The ME of disparity between two racial-ethnic groups *i* and *j* induced by the model was calculated as the difference between populated-weighted ME for the two racial-ethnic groups *i* and *j*. Calculated uncertainties are based on comparison with EPA measured pollution level in 2010. We then calculated the ratio between the uncertainties in estimated racial-ethnic exposure disparities (calculated as the difference in population-weighted mean error between the
 most- and least- exposed racial-ethnic groups) and the estimated racial-ethnic disparities between
 the most- and least-exposed racial-ethnic groups.

336 337

# 338 Counterfactual Sensitivity Analysis of Exposure Disparities by Race-ethnicity and Income

339 To explore interactions between race-ethnicity and income in exposures and absolute exposure

- 340 disparities, we performed two counterfactual sensitivity analyses for each pollutant in 2010.
- First, we calculated exposures and exposure disparities by race-ethnicity after controlling for income (i.e., a counterfactual in which each racial-ethnic group has the same income

343 distribution as the national income distribution). To do this, we start with exposure disaggregated 344 by race-ethnicity and income, but then apply the national income distribution (rather than the 345 group's true income distribution) to calculate the (counterfactual) average exposure for each 346 racial-ethnic group (i.e., we held the income distribution the same for each racial-ethnic group). 347 We then calculated the (counterfactual) racial-ethnic exposure disparity between the most- and

348 least- exposed racial-ethnic groups.

349 Second, we conducted the converse analysis: we calculated exposures and exposure 350 disparities by income after controlling for race-ethnicity (i.e., a counterfactual in which each income category has the same racial-ethnic distribution as the national racial-ethnic distribution). 351 352 To do this, we apply the national racial-ethnic distribution (rather than that income category's 353 true racial-ethnic distribution) to calculate the (counterfactual) average exposure for each income 354 category (i.e., we held the racial-ethnic distribution the same for each income category). We then 355 calculated the (counterfactual) income-based disparity between the lowest- and highest- income 356 categories.

357

# 358 Counterfactual Analysis of Migration

359 We investigated whether changes in racial-ethnic exposure disparities over time were mainly attributable to changes in air pollution levels ("air pollution") or changes in where people lived 360 (abbreviated as "migration", but also including immigration and other shifts in demographic 361 362 patterns) as a sensitivity analysis. To do so, we employed two counterfactual scenarios (Clark et al. 2017) during two decades (1990 to 2000; 2000 to 2010). For each scenario and year, we 363 364 calculated exposures for the four largest racial-ethnic groups for the contiguous US population 365 using Equation (1) based on census block group data. We then calculated the absolute racialethnic exposure disparity between the most- and least-exposed racial-ethnic groups (referred to 366 367 in this section as "disparity") for all pollutants with available data (i.e., all except PM<sub>2.5</sub> in 1990). 368 To analyze 1990 to 2000, we calculated the change in disparity attributable to air pollution changed from 1990 to 2000 levels, with demographics remained constant at 1990 values 369 370 (counterfactual scenario A), and used 1990 air pollution levels with demographic data changed 371 from 1990 to 2000 values (counterfactual scenario B). To estimate the separate contribution of changes in *air pollution* during 1990 to 2000, we divided the disparity-changes from 372 373 counterfactual scenario A by the "true" calculated disparity-change between 1990 and 2000 (i.e., 374 using 1990 air pollution levels with 1990 demographic data, and using 2000 air pollution levels 375 with 2000 demographic data). Similarly, to estimate the separate contribution of *migration* during 1990 to 2000, we divided the disparity-changes from counterfactual scenario B by the 376 "true" calculated disparity change between 1990 and 2000. Lastly, we used an analogous 377 378 approach to analyze the next decade: 2000 to 2010.

#### 380 Exposure Disparities Comparison Metrics for States

We investigated patterns in absolute exposure disparities among the 48 states of the contiguous

US plus the District of Columbia (DC) (hereafter, "states" refers to 48 states and DC, a total of
 49 geographic units in state-level related calculations) using two metrics for racial-ethnic

exposure disparity. First, we used **Equation (6)** to calculate a state-specific population-weighted

disparity for each of the four racial-ethnic groups and the state average relative to the pollutant's

386 national mean. Second, for each state, we used **Equation** (7) to calculate a normalized

387 population-weighted disparity between two groups: all racial-ethnic minority groups combined,

388 and the non-Hispanic White group. This metric has the advantage of consistently comparing, for

each state, exposures between racial-ethnic minority populations and the majority racial-ethnic
 group population (non-Hispanic White, 64% of the population). Lastly, we averaged both

391 metrics across the six pollutants.

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

 $d1_r = \frac{e_r - e_{state}}{e_{national}}.$   $d2_r = \frac{e_{minority} - e_{NH-White}}{e_{national}}.$ [6]

For each state and pollutant,  $d1_r$  is the normalized population-weighted disparity for racialethnic group r,  $e_r$  is the average exposure for racial-ethnic group r in the state,  $e_{state}$  is the average exposure for all people in the state,  $e_{national}$  is the average exposure for all people in the contiguous United States,  $e_{minority}$  is the average exposure for all racial-ethnic minority populations in the state, and  $e_{NH-White}$  is the average exposure for the non-Hispanic White

399 population in the state.

400

#### 401 **Results**

#### 402 National Exposure Disparities by Race-Ethnicity and Income in 2010

403

#### 404 By Race-Ethnicity

To investigate national disparities in exposure to criteria air pollution by race-ethnicity, we first compared national population-weighted mean exposures by US census self-reported race-ethnicity in 2010, the most recent decennial census year with available data. We first present results for differences among subpopulations (unit of analysis: racial-ethnic group), then we present differences among locations, depending on the proportion of each racial-ethnic group residents in that location (unit of analysis: census block groups binned by proportion of racialethnic minority residents).

Estimated national mean air pollution exposures were higher for all three racial-ethnic 412 413 minority groups than for the non-Hispanic White group for four of the six criteria pollutants (CO, 414 NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and PM<sub>10</sub>) (Table 1 and Fig. 1). Disparities between the most- and least-exposed 415 racial-ethnic groups were largest for NO<sub>2</sub> (absolute disparity: 4.6 ppb, relative disparity [ratio]: 1.6); intermediate for SO<sub>2</sub> (0.29 ppb, 1.2), PM<sub>10</sub> (3.0 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, 1.2), CO (0.044 ppm, 1.1), and 416  $PM_{2.5}$  (1.2 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, 1.1); and lowest for O<sub>3</sub> (1.6 ppb, 1.0). For all six pollutants, the most-exposed 417 group was a racial-ethnic minority group: for PM<sub>2.5</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>, national mean exposures were 418 419 highest for the non-Hispanic Black population; for CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub>, the non-Hispanic Asian 420 population; and for PM<sub>10</sub> the Hispanic population. For CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and PM<sub>10</sub>, national mean 421 exposures were lowest for non-Hispanic White population; for O<sub>3</sub>, Hispanic population; and for 422 SO<sub>2</sub> non-Hispanic Asian population. (Supplemental disparity and inequality metrics are

423 presented in Fig. S10 and Tables S38-39).

Sensitivity test on robustness of conclusions based on mean values showed that, for all
pollutants, the rank-order (i.e., most- to least-exposed racial-ethnic group, among the four racialethnic groups) was consistent throughout the exposure distributions (Fig. 1). The remaining two
sensitivity tests investigated whether conclusions here are robust to uncertainty in exposure

sensitivity tests investigated whether conclusions here are robust to uncertainty in exposure
 model predictions. Results reveal that the conclusions are robust to exposure model uncertainty.

429 Results for analyzing only the population living in a census block group with an EPA monitor in

430 2010 were essentially the same as results using exposure model predictions: the non-Hispanic

431 White group was the least-exposed group on average for most pollutants (CO, NO<sub>2</sub>,  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $PM_{10}$ , 432 and  $O_3$ ), and the relative disparities by pollutant (between the most- and least- exposed group on

433 average) were highly-correlated (Spearman rank-order correlation between base case and
434 sensitivity test: 0.89). The ratio between the uncertainties in estimated racial-ethnic exposure

435 disparities and the estimated racial-ethnic disparities between the most- and least-exposed racial-

436 ethnic groups were small: on average across the six pollutants, 0.0073 (if using absolute values 437 of the ratio, 0.083). The largest absolute ratio was -0.17 [O<sub>3</sub>] That result indicated that the

438 uncertainty in the exposure model predictions was always small compared to the predicted 439 racial-ethnic exposure disparities.

440 We also performed an analysis to determine whether average air pollution levels varied 441 based on the racial-ethnic composition of a given census block group. For CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and 442 PM<sub>10</sub>, average pollution levels were higher in census block groups with higher proportions of 443 racial-ethnic minority residents (Fig. 2). For O<sub>3</sub>, estimated average levels were approximately 444 equal across census block group bins, regardless of census block group racial-ethnic 445 characteristics (Fig. 2). For SO<sub>2</sub>, estimated average levels were generally higher in census block 446 group bins with the highest and lowest proportions of racial-ethnic minority residents (i.e., higher 447 in more racially segregated census block groups) (Fig. 2). This approach also reveals that the 448 disparities were much larger for  $NO_2$  than for other pollutants. The disparity in average air 449 pollution levels between block groups with the highest- versus lowest- deciles of proportion 450 racial-ethnic minority residents (block groups with >88% vs. <4% racial-ethnic minority 451 residents) was larger for NO<sub>2</sub> (absolute disparity: 9.4 ppb, relative disparity [ratio]: 3.1) than for 452 other pollutants (relative disparity [ratio] range: 0.8 - 1.4, median: 1.1)

453 Lastly, we investigated racial-ethnic disparities in exposure to the highest air pollution levels. First, for each racial-ethnic group we calculated the proportion of people nationally who 454 lived in a block group with air pollution levels above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile for each pollutant. 455 Averaged across all pollutants, the proportion of people nationally who lived in those highest-456 457 exposure block groups was: 9.6% for the overall population, 17% for the Hispanic population, 458 15% for the non-Hispanic Asian population, 12% for the non-Hispanic Black population, and 459 7.2% for the non-Hispanic White population. Next, we calculated the racial-ethnic composition of the block groups with air pollution levels above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile for each pollutant. Racial-460 461 ethnic minority populations were more likely than non-Hispanic White populations to live in a census block group with air pollution levels above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile for all pollutants (range: 462 463  $1.1 \times$  to  $4.1 \times$ , median:  $2.1 \times$ ) except SO<sub>2</sub> (0.88×). Racial-ethnic minority populations were also disproportionately likely to live in a census block group having *multiple* pollutants with levels 464 above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile. For example, the proportion of population living in a census block 465 group with levels above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile for four or more criteria pollutants was 5.2% for the 466 467 Hispanic population  $(3.6 \times$  the national population average proportion), 2.2% for the non-468 Hispanic Asian population  $(1.5 \times$  the average), 1.9% for the non-Hispanic Black population  $(1.3 \times$  the average), and 0.36% for the non-Hispanic White population ( $0.25 \times$  the average) (for

- 470 comparison: 1.4% for the overall US population).
- 471

# 472 By Income

473 To investigate national exposure disparities by income, we first compared national mean 474 exposures to criteria air pollution by census income category in 2010. For all pollutants except 475 O<sub>3</sub>, national mean exposures were higher for lower-income than for higher-income households 476 (Fig. 3). Comparing national mean exposures for lowest-income (<\$10,000; 7.2% of the 477 households with income data) versus for highest-income (>\$200,000; 4.2%) households, 478 exposures for lowest income households were 16% (relative to national mean exposure) higher 479 for SO<sub>2</sub>, 6.6% higher for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and 5.2% higher for PM<sub>10</sub>. For NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and O<sub>3</sub>, exposures for lowest- and highest-income households were similar ( $\sim \pm 2\%$ ). Based on differences in average 480 exposures between the approximate 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles for income (\$20,000-25,000 481 482 [midpoint: \$22,500], \$75,000-100,000 [midpoint: \$87,500]), a \$10,000 increase in income was 483 associated with an average reduction in concentration (expressed as a percent of the national 484 mean concentration) of 0.90% for SO<sub>2</sub>, 0.41% for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, 0.36% for NO<sub>2</sub>, and 0.22% for PM<sub>10</sub> 485 and CO, and an increase of 0.16% for O<sub>3</sub>.

486

# 487 By Both Race-Ethnicity and Income

488 In this section, we present exposure disparities accounting for both race-ethnicity and 489 income together for census householders (hereafter, "households"). For all six pollutants, the 490 absolute exposure disparity between the most- and least-exposed racial-ethnic groups was larger 491 (on average,  $\sim 6 \times$  larger;  $1.1 \times$  for SO<sub>2</sub>,  $21 \times$  for NO<sub>2</sub>,  $1.4 \times -6.8 \times$  for the remaining pollutants) than 492 the absolute exposure disparity between the lowest- and highest-income categories in 2010 493 (relative disparity: on average, ~  $1.2 \times$  larger). For all income levels and pollutants, the most-494 exposed racial-ethnic group was a racial-ethnic minority group (Fig. 3). For five of the six 495 pollutants (not  $SO_2$ ; Fig. 3), average exposures were higher on average for Black households at 496 the approximate 75<sup>th</sup> percentile for income (income category midpoint: \$87,500) than for non-497 Hispanic White households at the approximate 25<sup>th</sup> percentile for income (midpoint: \$22,500). 498 Racial-ethnic exposure disparities tended to be comparatively smaller at higher incomes than at lower incomes (except for O<sub>3</sub>), but the size of that effect was modest. For example, the absolute 499 500 exposure disparity between the most- and least-exposed racial-ethnic groups (Fig. 3) was, on average, 9.5% lower for households at the approximate 75<sup>th</sup> percentile than at the approximate 501 502 25<sup>th</sup> percentile of income.

503 Income distributions varied by racial-ethnic group. For example, non-Hispanic White 504 households represented 61% of the lowest income category (<\$10,000) and 85% of the highest 505 income category (>\$200,000), versus 23% and 3.5%, respectively, for non-Hispanic Black 506 households, 13% and 4.3% for Hispanic households, and 3.5% and 6.9% for non-Hispanic Asian 507 households. To quantify racial-ethnic exposure disparities after accounting for racial-ethnic 508 income distribution variation, we calculated the absolute exposure disparity between the most-509 and least- exposed racial-ethnic groups within each income category in 2010 and then averaged 510 across all 16 income categories. The resulting national absolute exposure disparity between 511 most- and least-exposed racial-ethnic groups averaged across income categories and normalized 512 to national mean exposure (i.e., expressed as a percent of the national mean concentration) was 513 58% for NO<sub>2</sub>, 4.5% for O<sub>3</sub>, 12% to 17% for the remaining pollutants. Conversely, to quantify

514 income exposure disparities after accounting for race-ethnicity, we calculated the absolute

515 income disparity within each racial-ethnic group and averaged across the four racial-ethnic

516 groups. The resulting national absolute exposure disparity between lowest and highest income

517 categories normalized to national mean exposure was 15% for SO<sub>2</sub>, -2.9% for O<sub>3</sub>, and 2.7% to 6.3% for the remaining pollutants.

519 We also conducted two counterfactual analyses to explore the interactions between race-520 ethnicity and income in explaining national exposure disparities. Both counterfactuals slightly 521 shifted the calculated exposure disparities, but support the conclusion that racial-ethnic exposure 522 disparities were distinct from, and larger than, exposure disparities by income. The first 523 counterfactual (holding income constant for racial-ethnic groups) shifted the absolute disparity 524 between most- and least-exposed racial-ethnic group normalized to pollutant's national mean 525 exposure by 0.03 percentage units on average (average of absolute values: 1.0 percentage units; 526 range among pollutants: -1.9 to +2.4 percentage units). The second counterfactual (holding race-527 ethnicity constant for income categories) shifted the absolute disparity between highest and 528 lowest income categories normalized to pollutant's national mean exposure by -2.2 percentage 529 units (average of absolute values: 2.2 percentage units; range among pollutants: -7.1 to -0.03 530 percentage units). In conclusion, exposure disparities by race-ethnicity did not substantially shift

531 after accounting for income differences.

# 532

# 533 Racial-ethnic Exposure Disparities by State and by Urbanicity in 2010 534

# 535 By State

536 We explored how exposures varied by state, pollutant, and racial-ethnic group in 2010 537 (Fig. 4). The analysis separately considers the District of Columbia (DC) plus the 48 states of the 538 contiguous US (hereafter, "states" refers to 48 states and DC, a total of 49 geographic units in 539 state-level related calculations). There are 294 pollutant-state combinations (6 pollutants  $\times$  49 540 units and 1176 pollutant-state-groups (294 pollutant-states × 4 racial-ethnic groups). For this 541 section, we define  $\pm 5\%$  (all percentages used in this section were expressed as a percent of the 542 national mean exposure in 2010) as "similar to", and therefore report examples where exposures 543 differ from the average by >5% (or, in a sensitivity test, >20%). For example, ">5% lower-than-544 average" means the exposure is lower-than-average by an amount greater than 5%.

545 Overall, several spatial patterns emerge across states. First, racial-ethnic exposure 546 disparities were ubiquitous among US states. In all 48 states and DC, one or more racial-ethnic 547 groups experienced exposures >5% of the area average exposure in 2010. Second, racial-ethnic 548 minority populations within states were much more likely to have been more-exposed versus 549 less-exposed than average; in contrast, non-Hispanic White populations within states 550 experienced exposures >5% above average in no states. Third, having exposures >5% lower-551 than-average within a state was much more likely to happen for non-Hispanic White populations 552 than for racial-ethnic minority populations (Fig. 4, right column). Fourth, racial-ethnic exposure 553 disparities were, on average, largest for  $NO_2$  and smallest for  $O_3$  among states.

Those findings reflect underlying trends across states, pollutants, and racial-ethnic groups. For example, for the non-Hispanic White group, 87% of the 294 pollutant-states had exposures that were similar ( $\pm$ 5%) to the average, 13% had exposures >5% less than average, and none were >5% greater than average. In contrast, for exposures for the three racial-ethnic minority groups, 42% (of 882 pollutant-state-groups) were >5% greater than average, 55% were  $\pm$ 5% of the average, and only 4% were >5% less than average. Thus, within individual states, the non-Hispanic White group was exposed to pollution levels that were similar to or cleaner than average, whereas the three racial-ethnic minority groups were more likely to be exposed to dirtier rather than cleaner pollution levels. For example, averaged across pollutants, the proportion of the states for which exposures were >5% greater than average is 73% for non-

Hispanic Black populations, 57% for Hispanic populations, 35% for non-Hispanic Asian
 populations, and zero for non-Hispanic White populations.

The three racial-ethnic minority groups were disproportionately *likely* to be the most-566 567 exposed group, and disproportionately *unlikely* to be the *least*-exposed group of the four racial-568 ethnic groups across states. For example, the most-exposed group (for all cases, not just 569 cases >5% greater than average) was the non-Hispanic Black group for 45% of the 294 pollutant-570 areas, the Hispanic group for 29%, the non-Hispanic Asian group for 18%, and non-Hispanic 571 White group for 7.5%. In contrast, the least-exposed group was rarely a racial-ethnic minority 572 group (~8% of all 294 pollutant-states for the non-Hispanic Black and for Hispanic group, 15% 573 for the non-Hispanic Asian group) and was usually (70% of 294 pollutant-states) the non-574 Hispanic White group.

As a sensitivity test, we changed the analysis threshold to exposures >20% greater than average (rather than 5%). Here, we again found that the air pollution disproportionately impacted racial-ethnic minority groups. For example, exposure disparities >20% of national mean exposure for one or more pollutant-groups occurred for 67% of states (**Fig. 4**, left four columns for six pollutants), further emphasizing that disparities were widespread across states in 2010.

Fig. 4 reveals differences among states. For example, the four most populous states
(California, Florida, New York, Texas), all have large, racially/ethnically diverse urban areas.
However, average disparities between racial-ethnic minority populations and non-Hispanic
White populations (Fig. 4 bottom right) were notably larger (on average, 6× larger) for
California and New York than for Florida and Texas. Some small, relatively rural states also had
substantial exposure disparities. Examples include NO<sub>2</sub> in Nebraska (19%) and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in
Nebraska (8.1%).

587

# 588 By Urbanicity

589 We investigated racial-ethnic and income-based exposure disparities in 2010 separately 590 for block groups that were defined as urban (89% of the population) versus rural (11% of the 591 population).

The racial-ethnic exposure disparities were generally larger for urban than for rural block groups. Specifically, the average exposure disparity between the most- and least-exposed racialethnic group was  $5.5 \times$  larger for absolute disparity (1.2× for relative disparity [ratio]) for urban block groups than for rural block groups for NO<sub>2</sub>,  $3.1 \times (1.0 \times)$  larger for O<sub>3</sub>,  $2.4 \times (1.1 \times)$  larger for CO,  $1.8 \times (1.0 \times)$  larger for SO<sub>2</sub>, and  $1.2 \times (1.0 \times)$  larger for PM<sub>10</sub>. In contrast, for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, the average racial-ethnic exposure disparity was  $1.2 \times (1.0 \times)$  larger for rural block groups than for urban block groups.

The most- and least-exposed of the four racial-ethnic groups differed between urban and rural areas for SO<sub>2</sub> and for O<sub>3</sub>. For SO<sub>2</sub>, the most-exposed racial-ethnic group was the non-Hispanic Black group in urban areas and the non-Hispanic White group in rural areas. For O<sub>3</sub>, the most-exposed racial-ethnic group was the non-Hispanic Asian group in urban areas and non-Hispanic White group in rural areas. For the remaining four pollutants, the most-exposed group

604 was a racial-ethnic minority group in both urban and rural areas.

 $25 \times [O_3]$  (median: 3.5×) greater (for relative disparity [ratio], range: 0.98× to 1.1×, median: 607 608  $1.0\times$ ) in urban than in rural areas. Of the 12 pollutant-urbanicity categories (6 pollutants  $\times 2$ 609 urbanicities), exposures were higher for the lowest-income category than for the highest-income 610 category in all cases except for O<sub>3</sub> in urban areas and for NO<sub>2</sub> in rural areas. 611 612 Changes in National Exposures and Exposure Disparities from 1990 - 2010 613 Criteria air pollution levels have declined in the US in the decades following the 1990 614 Clean Air Act amendments (US EPA 2020). To investigate if these reductions have led to 615 reductions in racial-ethnic exposure disparities, we compared average exposures by racial-ethnic

616 group from 1990 to 2010, for five of the pollutants. Exposure model results for PM<sub>2.5</sub> were only 617 available from 2000 to 2010, so those results are presented separately.

National mean pollution levels of all six pollutants fell over the study period. For
example, from 1990 to 2010, the national mean exposures decreased for all five pollutants by an
average of 40% relative to national mean exposures in 1990 (range: -6% [O<sub>3</sub>] to -71% [SO<sub>2</sub>]; 34% to -55% for remaining three pollutants). PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposures decreased 29% from 2000 to
2010.

623 The average exposure disparities also declined from 1990 - 2010. The amount of change 624 depends in part on whether one considers absolute or relative disparities. In terms of absolute 625 disparities, the disparities between the most- and least-exposed racial-ethnic groups decreased on average by 69% relative to absolute disparity in 1990 across the five pollutants. The largest 626 change was an 88% decrease for CO disparities (0.40 ppm in 1990, 0.044 ppm in 2010, a 0.35 627 628 ppm [i.e., 88%] change) and the smallest change was a 54% decrease for NO<sub>2</sub> (9.8 ppb [1990], 4.6 ppb [2010], a 5.3 ppb [54%] change). From 2000 to 2010, PM<sub>2.5</sub> disparities decreased by 629 35% (1.9  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> [2000], 1.2  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> [2010], a 0.66  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> change). 630

631 In terms of *relative* disparities, the greatest change was a decrease for CO (disparities: 632 1.63 [1990], 1.15 [2010]) and the smallest was a decrease for  $O_3$  (1.10 [1990], 1.04 [2010]); 633 remaining pollutants were between 0.070 - 0.074 decrease in relative disparity. PM<sub>2.5</sub> relative 634 disparity remained constant (~1.1) from 2000 to 2010.

Shifting the comparison to the proportion of each racial-ethnic group in a location (unit of 635 636 analysis: census block group) yields similar conclusions for changes in disparities during 1990 to 2010. For example, absolute air pollution level disparities between census block group bins with 637 638 the highest versus lowest deciles of proportions of racial-ethnic minority residents (90<sup>th</sup> - 100<sup>th</sup> 639 versus 1<sup>st</sup> - 10<sup>th</sup> percentiles in **Fig. 2**) decreased for four pollutants, on average by 60% relative to 640 absolute disparity between the highest versus lowest deciles bins in 1990 (CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>). For O<sub>3</sub>, disparities decreased slightly, from near-zero in 1990 to 0.46 ppb (which is 1.0% of the 641 642 national mean exposure) in 2010. PM<sub>2.5</sub> disparities decreased 58% from 2000 to 2010.

643 In addition to national changes, we investigated changes in absolute racial-ethnic 644 exposure disparities from 1990 to 2010 by state and by urban versus rural areas. Most states 645 (>75%) experienced a reduction in racial-ethnic exposure disparities for pollutants except for 646 PM<sub>10</sub> (and, except for PM<sub>2.5</sub> during 2000-2010). Urban areas experienced larger reductions in 647 racial-ethnic exposure disparities than did rural areas for NO<sub>2</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> ( $13 \times$  larger reductions in 648 urban areas, for both pollutants), CO (2.4×), and SO<sub>2</sub> (1.2×). Conversely, PM<sub>2.5</sub> (during 2000-649 2010) and O<sub>3</sub> (during 1990-2010) had larger reductions in absolute racial-ethnic disparities for 650 rural than for urban  $(2.4 \times \text{ and } 3.4 \times \text{ larger in rural areas, respectively})$ .

Finally, we investigated whether the changes in absolute racial-ethnic exposure
 disparities from 1990 to 2010 were more attributable to changes in air pollution levels or to

653 changes in demographic patterns (migration, immigration, and other factors). Based on a

654 counterfactual analysis, reductions in racial-ethnic exposure disparities between the most- and

least- exposed racial-ethnic groups were mainly attributable to changes in air pollution levels

rather than to changes in demographic patterns. On average across all pollutants, 87% of the

reduction in the absolute racial-ethnic disparity metric was attributable to changes in air pollution levels from 1990 to 2000 (excluding PM<sub>2.5</sub> based on lack of available data), and 97% from 2000

- 659 to 2010 (Table S37).
- 660

# 661 Discussion

662 Our research provides the first national investigation of air pollution exposure disparities 663 by income and race-ethnicity for all criteria pollutants (except lead). Our results reveal trends by 664 pollutant and across time and space.

665 In 2010, on average nationally, racial-ethnic minority populations were exposed to higher 666 average levels of transportation-related air pollution (CO, NO<sub>2</sub>) and particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>,  $PM_{10}$ ) than non-Hispanic White populations. This finding, which holds even after accounting for 667 668 uncertainties in the predictions from exposure models, is consistent with prior national studies of NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and PM<sub>10</sub> (Clark et al. 2017; Kravitz-Wirtz et al. 2016; Mikati et al. 2018; Tessum et 669 670 al. 2019; Colmer et al. 2020). Disparities for the remaining pollutants (CO, O<sub>3</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>) had not 671 been previously studied in detail for the national population, and few studies have considered how disparities for any pollutant have changed across 20 years (Kravitz-Wirtz et al. 2016; 672 Bullard et al. 2008). 673

Our findings on "which group was most-exposed?" (on average, nationally) varied by pollutant, but in all six cases the most exposed group was a racial-ethnic minority group. That result is consistent with prior national studies, which have reported, for example, highest average NO<sub>2</sub> exposures for Hispanic Black and non-Hispanic Asian populations (Clark et al. 2017), and highest average proximities to industrial PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions (Mikati et al. 2018) and highest average exposures to industrial air toxins (Ard 2015) for non-Hispanic Black populations.

We found that racial-ethnic minority populations were more than two times as likely than non-Hispanic white populations to live in a census block group with highest air pollution levels (above 90<sup>th</sup> percentile) on average. Those results are consistent with existing literature on disproportionate environmental risks for racial-ethnic minority populations (Collins 2016) and on groups or locations with higher risks for one environmental factor having higher risks for other factors too (Morello-Frosch and Lopez 2006; Su et al. 2012).

686 We found that air pollution exposures were generally higher for lower-income 687 households (for all pollutants except  $O_3$ ). This finding is consistent with previous national 688 research (e.g., for industrial PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions (Mikati et al. 2018), industrial air toxins (Ard 2015), 689 and  $PM_{2.5}$  and  $NO_2$  (Clark et al. 2014; Kravitz-Wirtz et al. 2016)). Additionally, we found that, in 690 2010, absolute racial-ethnic exposure disparities were distinct from, and were larger than (on 691 average,  $\sim 6 \times$  larger than), absolute exposure disparities by income. The findings are *inconsistent* 692 with the idea that racial-ethnic exposure disparities can be explained by, or are "merely" a 693 reflection of, income disparities among racial-ethnic groups.

The findings from this study can be used to compare relative exposure disparities for different criteria air pollutants in a consistent way, providing additional context for previous studies of single pollutants. We found that in 2010, relative racial-ethnic exposure disparities (i.e., ratios of average exposures between the most- and least-exposed groups) were largest for NO<sub>2</sub> and smallest for O<sub>3</sub>. Relative income-based exposure disparities (i.e., ratios of average 699 exposures between the lowest and highest income groups), although smaller than racial-ethnic

exposure disparities for each pollutant, were largest for  $SO_2$  and smallest (and similar) for  $NO_2$ ,

701 CO, and  $O_3$  (These results provide information on the rank-order of relative disparities in air

pollution levels by pollutant; information on the rank-order of relative disparities in associatedhealth impacts by pollutant would require further analysis, as discussed next).

The Exposure disparities often connect with health disparities. Based on the magnitude of exposure disparities (e.g., 2010 national average  $PM_{2.5}$  exposures for non-Hispanic Black people were 1.0 µg m<sup>-3</sup> higher-than-average), the resulting health disparities may be substantial (thousands of additional premature mortalities per year). Future research could usefully extend our exposure disparity results to provide rigorous, comprehensive investigation of the associated health impacts.

710 State-level results may be especially useful given the important role that states play in air 711 pollution and environmental policy making (Abel et al. 2015). Exposures >5% greater than the 712 national mean exposure within states were common for racial-ethnic minority populations, but 713 not for non-Hispanic white populations. Exposure disparities varied substantially among states, 714 even among states with similar characteristics (e.g., urbanicity, population, region). Our results 715 emphasize differences among states in the level and makeup of exposure disparities, yet also 716 demonstrate that exposure disparities were ubiquitous, including both large and small states, and 717 states in all regions of the US, in 2010.

718 Our analyses by urbanicity were in part motivated by, and reflect, urban-rural differences 719 in demographics and air pollution levels (Clark et al. 2017; Mikati et al. 2018; Rosofsky et al. 720 2018). Racial-ethnic disparities were larger for urban block groups for all pollutants except 721  $PM_{2.5}$ . Of the six pollutants, the largest ratio between urban and rural racial-ethnic absolute 722 disparity (5.5× larger) was for NO<sub>2</sub>. The NO<sub>2</sub> results are consistent with prior research (Clark et 723 al. 2017). Over our study period, reductions in absolute racial-ethnic exposure disparity for PM<sub>2.5</sub> 724 and  $O_3$  were larger for rural than for urban areas, likely reflecting the fact that  $O_3$  and most of 725 PM<sub>2.5</sub> are secondary pollutants versus the other pollutants being mainly primary pollutants. 726 Controlling for urbanicity, exposures were mostly higher for the lowest income category than the 727 highest. Absolute income-based exposure disparities were also 7.5 times larger on average in 728 urban than in rural areas.

The results by state and by urbanicity reflect that exposure disparities differ by spatial units (e.g., urban/rural, and by state); future research could explore these aspects further, for example, through a spatial decomposition of national exposure disparities.

Regulations such as the 1990 Clean Air Act Amendments have achieved substantial reductions in the concentrations of many pollutants. Our analysis reveals that, as a co-benefit, falling pollution levels have reduced absolute exposure disparities among racial-ethnic groups. These findings are consistent with previous national research for NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and industrial air toxins (Ard 2015; Clark et al. 2017; Kravitz-Wirtz et al. 2016; Colmer et al. 2020). We found that a larger share of the racial-ethnic exposure disparity reduction was attributable to air pollution level reduction rather than changes in demographic and residential patterns.

Our study described patterns in exposure disparities but did not investigate aspects such as underlying causes or ethical or legal aspects. Systemic racism and racial segregation are two major causes discussed in multiple previous studies (Jones et al. 2014; Morello-Frosch and Lopez 2006; Schell et al. 2020). Future longitudinal research could further investigate the underlying causes of exposure disparities. One important dimension not considered here is responsibility for generating pollution. Recent analysis suggests that Hispanic and Black populations have disproportionately lower consumption of goods and services whose emissions lead to  $PM_{2.5}$  air pollution (Tessum et al. 2019).

747 Our study has several limitations. The finest spatial scale of publicly-available Census 748 demographic data for race-ethnicity and income is at Census block group level; we were unable 749 to assess disparities at finer spatial scales than what the Census provides. Our disparity estimates 750 do not account for (1) daily mobility for work, shopping, recreation, and other activities, (2) 751 direct indoor exposure to indoor sources such as cigarette smoke, cooking emissions, or incense, 752 (3) indoor-outdoor relationships in pollution levels, such as particle losses during airflow in ducts 753 or ozone losses to indoor surfaces, or (4) occupational exposures. Our exposure disparity 754 estimates were limited by uncertainties in the CACES exposure model predictions and in Census 755 demographic data. Our uncertainty analysis (but not our main analysis) was limited to US EPA 756 monitoring locations; we were not able to test potential exposure errors at locations without 757 monitors on the national scale.

758 Our study provides the first national analysis of air pollution exposure disparities among 759 income and racial-ethnic groups, for all criteria pollutants (except lead), including trends across 760 time (by decade, 1990–2010) and spatial location (by state and for urban versus rural areas). On 761 average, exposures were generally higher for racial-ethnic minority populations than for non-762 Hispanic White populations. Exposures were also, on average, higher for the lowest-income 763 households than for the highest-income households. However, exposure disparities by race-764 ethnicity were not explained by disparities in income. Racial-ethnic exposure disparities declined

from 1990 to 2010 (on an absolute basis), but still existed in all states in 2010. Among pollutants,
 national racial-ethnic exposure disparities were largest for NO<sub>2</sub> and smallest for O<sub>3</sub>.

#### 768 **Reference**

- Abel TD, Salazar DJ, Robert P. 2015. States of environmental justice: redistributive politics across the United States, 1993-2004. Rev Policy Res 32(2):200–225, doi:10.1111/ropr.12119.
   Ard K. 2015. Trends in exposure to industrial air toxins for different racial and
- Ard K. 2015. Trends in exposure to industrial air toxins for different racial and socioeconomic groups: A spatial and temporal examination of environmental inequality in the U.S. from 1995 to 2004. Soc Sci Res 53: 375-390; PMID:26188461, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2015.06.019.
- Bowe B, Xie Y, Yan Y, Al-Aly Z. 2019. Burden of cause-specific mortality associated with PM<sub>2.5</sub> air pollution in the United States. JAMA Netw open 2(11):e1915834;
  PMID:31747037, doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2019.15834.
- 4. Brulle RJ, Pellow DN. 2006. Environmental justice: human health and environmental inequalities. Annu Rev Public Health 27(1):103–124; PMID:16533111, doi:10.1146/annurev.publhealth.27.021405.102124.
- 5. Bullard RD, Mohai P, Saha R, Wright B. 2008. Toxic wastes and race at twenty: Why race still matters after all of these years. Envtl L. 38(2):371-411;
  doi:http://www.jstor.org/stable/43267204.
- Bullock C, Ard K, Saalman G. 2018. Measuring the relationship between state
  environmental justice action and air pollution inequality, 1990–2009. Rev Policy Res 35(3):466–490; doi:10.1111/ropr.12292.
- 788
   7. Clark LP, Millet DB, Marshall JD. 2014. National patterns in environmental injustice and inequality: Outdoor NO<sub>2</sub> air pollution in the United States. PLoS One 9(4):e94431;
   790 PMID:24736569, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0094431.

791	8.	Clark LP, Millet DB, Marshall JD. 2017. Changes in transportation-related air pollution
792		exposures by race-ethnicity and socioeconomic status: Outdoor nitrogen dioxide in the
793		United States in 2000 and 2010. Environ Health Perspect 125(9):1–10; PMID: 28930515,
794		doi:10.1289/EHP959.
795	9.	Cohen AJ, Brauer M, Burnett R, Anderson HR, Frostad J, Estep K, et al. 2017. Estimates
796		and 25-year trends of the global burden of disease attributable to ambient air pollution: an
797		analysis of data from the Global Burden of Diseases Study 2015. Lancet 389:1907–1918;
798		PMID:28408086, doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(17)30505-6.
799	10	. Collins MB, Munoz I, Jaja J. 2016. Linking "toxic outliers" to environmental justice
800		communities. Environ Res Lett 11; doi:10.1088/1748-9326/11/1/015004.
801	11	Colmer J, Hardman I, Shimshack J, Voorheis J. 2020. Disparitie in PM <sub>2.5</sub> air pollution in
802		the United States. Science 369(6503): 575-578; PMID:32732425,
803		doi:10.1126/science.aaz9353.
804	12	Darrow LA, Klein M, Strickland MJ, Mulholland JA, Tolbert PE. 2011. Ambient air
805		pollution and birth weight in full-term infants in Atlanta, 1994-2004. Environ Health
806		Perspect 119(5):731–737; PMID:21156397, doi:10.1289/ehp.1002785.
807	13	Downey L, Dubois S, Hawkins B, Walker M. 2008. Environmental inequality in
808		metropolitan America. Organization & Environment 21(3):270-294; PMID:19960094,
809		doi: 10.1177/1086026608321327.
810	14	Evans GW, Kantrowitz E. 2002. Socioeconomic status and health: the potential role of
811		environmental risk exposure. Annu Rev Public Health 23(1):303–331; PMID:11910065,
812		doi:10.1146/annurev.publhealth.23.112001.112349.
813	15	Fann N, Coffman E, Hajat A, Kim SY. 2019. Change in fine particle-related premature
814		deaths among US population subgroups between 1980 and 2010. Air Qual Atmos Heal
815		12:673–682; doi:http://doi.org/10.1007/s11869-019-00686-9.
816	16	. Gee GC, Payne-Sturges DC. 2004. Environmental health disparities: A framework
817		integrating psychosocial and environmental concepts. Environ Health Perspect
818		112:1645–1653; PMID:15579407, doi:10.1289/ehp.7074.
819	17.	. Hajat A, Hsia C, O'Neill MS. 2015. Socioeconomic disparities and air pollution
820		exposure: a global review. Curr Environ Heal reports 2:440–450; PMID:26381684,
821		doi:10.1007/s40572-015-0069-5.
822	18	. Harper S, Ruder E, Roman HA, Geggel A, Nweke O, Payne-Sturges D, et al. 2013. Using
823		inequality measures to incorporate environmental justice into regulatory analyses. Int J
824		Environ Res Public Health 10:4039–4059; doi:10.3390/ijerph10094039.
825	19	Jones MR, Diez-Roux A V., Hajat A, Kershaw KN, O'Neill MS, Guallar E, et al. 2014.
826		Race/ethnicity, residential segregation, and exposure to ambient air pollution: The Multi-
827		Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis (MESA). Am J Public Health 104:2130–2137;
828		doi:10.2105/AJPH.2014.302135.
829	20	. Kim SY, Bechle M, Hankey S, Sheppard L, Szpiro AA, Marshall JD. 2020.
830		Concentrations of criteria pollutants in the contiguous U.S., 1979 – 2015: Role of
831		prediction model parsimony in integrated empirical geographic regression. PLoS One
832		15(2):1979–2015; PMID:32069301, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0228535.
833	21	. Kravitz-Wirtz N, Crowder K, Hajat A, Sass V. 2016. The long-term dynamics of
834		racial/ethnic inequality in neighborhood air pollution exposure, 1990-2009. Du Bois Rev
835		13(2):237–259; PMID:28989341, doi:10.1017/S1742058X16000205.
836	22	Lelieveld J, Evans JS, Fnais M, Giannadaki D, Pozzer A. 2015. The contribution of

837	outdoor air pollution sources to premature mortality on a global scale. Nature 525:367–
838	371; PMID:26381985, doi:10.1038/nature15371.
839	23. Manson S, Schroeder J, Van Riper D, Ruggles S. 2019. IPUMS National Historical
840	Geographic Information System: Version 14.0 [Database].
841	http://doi.org/10.18128/D050.V14.0 [accessed 24 May 2020].
842	24. Marshall JD, Swor KR, Nguyen NP. 2014. Prioritizing environmental justice and
843	equality: Diesel emissions in Southern California. Environ Sci Technol 48:4063–4068;
844	PMID: 24559220, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/es405167f.
845	25. Mikati I, Benson AF, Luben TJ, Sacks JD, Richmond-Bryant J. 2018. Disparities in
846	distribution of particulate matter emission sources by race and poverty status. Am J
847	Public Health 108(4):480–485; PMID:29470121, doi:10.2105/AJPH.2017.304297.
848	26. Mohai P, Pellow D, Roberts JT. 2009. Environmental justice. Annu Rev Environ Resour
849	34:405–430; doi:10.1146/annurev-environ-082508-094348.
850	27. Morello-Frosch R, Lopez R. 2006. The riskscape and the color line: Examining the role
851	of segregation in environmental health disparities. Environ Res 102(2):181–196;
852	PMID:16828737, doi:10.1016/j.envres.2006.05.007.
853	28. Paul KC, Haan M, Mayeda ER, Ritz BR. 2019. Ambient air pollution, noise, and late-life
854	cognitive decline and dementia risk. Annu Rev Public Health 40:203–220;
855	PMID:30935305, doi:http://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-040218-044058.
856	29. Pope CA, Ezzati M, Dockery DW. 2009. Fine-particulate air pollution and life
857	expectancy in the United States. N Engl J Med 360 (4):376–86; PMID:19164188,
858	doi:10.1056/NEJMsa0805646.
859	30. Ratcliffe M, Burd C, Holder K, Fields A. 2016. Defining rural at the U.S. Census Bureau
860	(U.S. Census Bureau).
861	https://www2.census.gov/geo/pdfs/reference/ua/Defining_Rural.pdf [accessed 7 July
862	2020].
863	31. Rivas I, Basagaña X, Cirach M, López-Vicente M, Suades-González E, Garcia-Esteban
864	R, et al. 2019. Association between early life exposure to air pollution and working
865	memory and attention. Environ Health Perspect 127(5):1–11; PMID:31070940,
866	doi:10.1289/EHP3169.
867	32. Rosofsky A, Levy JI, Zanobetti A, Janulewicz P, Fabian MP. 2018. Temporal trends in
868	air pollution exposure inequality in Massachusetts. Environ Res 161(2018):76-86;
869	PMID:29101831, doi:10.1016/j.envres.2017.10.028.
870	33. Salazar DJ, Clauson S, Abel TD, Clauson A. 2019. Race, income, and environmental
871	inequality in the U.S. states, 1990–2014. Soc Sci Q 100(3):592–603;
872	doi:10.1111/ssqu.12608.
873	34. Schell CJ, Dyson K, Fuentes TL, Des Roches S, Harris NC, Miller DS, et al. 2020. The
874	ecological and evolutionary consequences of systemic racism in urban environments.
875	Science 369; doi:10.1126/SCIENCE.AAY4497.
876	35. Stieb DM, Chen L, Eshoul M, Judek S. 2012. Ambient air pollution, birth weight and
877	preterm birth: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Environ Res 117(2012):100-111;
878	PMID:22726801, doi:10.1016/j.envres.2012.05.007.
879	36. Stanaway JD, Afshin A, Gakidou E, Lim SS, Abate D, Abate KH, et al. 2018. Global,
880	regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 84 behavioural, environmental and
881	occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks for 195 countries and territories,
882	1990-2017: A systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2017. Lancet

883	392:1923–1994; PMID:30496105, doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(18)32225-6.
884	37. State of California, Assembly Bill No. 617. 2017. Nonvehicular air pollution: criteria air
885	pollutants and toxic air contaminants.
886	https://leginfo.legislature.ca.gov/faces/billNavClient.xhtml?bill_id=201720180AB617
887	[accessed 16 Sep 2020].
888	38. Su JG, Jerrett M, Morello-Frosch R, Jesdale BM, Kyle AD. 2012. Inequalities in
889	cumulative environmental burdens among three urbanized counties in California. Environ
890	Int 40: 79-87; PMID:22280931, doi:10.1016/j.envint.2011.11.003.
891	39. Underwood E. 2017. The polluted brain. Science 355(6323):342–345;
892	doi:10.1126/science.355.6323.342.
893	40. United States Census Bureau. 2013. Census bureau geography.
894	http://www2.census.gov/geo/pdfs/reference/GARM/Ch11GARM.pdf [accessed 7 July
895	2020].
896	41. US Environmental Protection Agency. 2020. Our nation's air: status and trends through
897	2019. https://gispub.epa.gov/air/trendsreport/2020/ [accessed 7 July 2020].
898	42. Tessum CW, Apte JS, Goodkind AL, Muller NZ, Mullins KA, Paolella DA, et al. 2019.
899	Inequity in consumption of goods and services adds to racial-ethnic disparities in air
900	pollution exposure. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 116(13):6001-6006; PMID:30858319,
901	doi:10.1073/pnas.1818859116.
902	43. The New School Tishman Environment and Design Center. 2019. "Local Policies for
903	Environmental Justice: A National Scan". https://www.nrdc.org/sites/default/files/local-
904	policies-environmental-justice-national-scan-tishman-201902.pdf [accessed 9 July 2020].
905	44. Zwickl K, Ash M, Boyce JK. 2014. Regional variation in environmental inequality:
906	industrial air toxics exposure in U.S. cities. Ecological Economics 107:494-509;
907	doi:10.1016/j.ecolecon.2014.09.013.
908	
909	

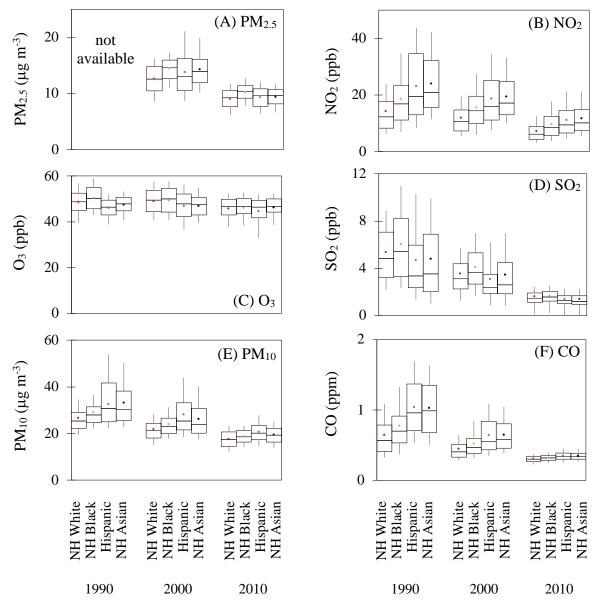
#### 910 Tables

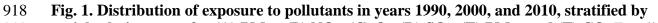
911

# Table 1. Population distribution and population-weighted exposure distribution for six criteria pollutants for four main racial-ethnic groups in year 2010.

Demographic Non-Hispanic Entire Non-Hispanic Hispanic Non-Hispanic White Black Population Asian Proportion of 64% 12% 16% 4.6% 100% population  $PM_{2.5} (\mu g m^{-3})$ 10<sup>th</sup> percentile 6.3 6.1 7.9 6.5 6.7 25<sup>th</sup> percentile 7.7 7.9 7.7 9.2 8.2 50<sup>th</sup> percentile 9.5 9.3 10 9.6 9.7 Mean  $(S\overline{D})$ 9.3 (2.2) 9.1 (2.2) 10 (1.8) 9.4 (2.2) 9.4 (1.9) 75<sup>th</sup> percentile 11 11 11 11 11 90<sup>th</sup> percentile 12 12 13 12 12 NO<sub>2</sub> (ppb) 10<sup>th</sup> percentile 3.4 3.1 3.8 4.6 5.4 25<sup>th</sup> percentile 4.9 4.3 7.5 5.8 6.6 50<sup>th</sup> percentile 7.4 6.2 8.7 9.5 10 8.7 (5.1) Mean (SD) 7.2 (4.1) 9.7 (5.3) 11 (6.1) 12 (5.9) 75<sup>th</sup> percentile 11 8.9 12 15 15 90<sup>th</sup> percentile 16 12.5 21 21 18  $O_3$  (ppb) 10<sup>th</sup> percentile 38 38 39 39 33 25<sup>th</sup> percentile 43 43 43 42 44 50<sup>th</sup> percentile 47 47 47 46 47 46 (6.2) Mean (SD) 46 (6.0) 46 (6.1) 45 (7.2) 46 (5.9) 75<sup>th</sup> percentile 50 50 50 49 50 90<sup>th</sup> percentile 52 52 53 52 53 SO<sub>2</sub> (ppb) 10<sup>th</sup> percentile 0.95 0.91 1.0 0.83 0.79 25<sup>th</sup> percentile 1.1 1.2 1.0 1.0 1.2 50<sup>th</sup> percentile 1.5 1.5 1.6 1.3 1.2 Mean (SD) 1.6 (0.64) 1.6 (0.65) 1.7 (0.63) 1.4 (0.55) 1.4 (0.58) 75<sup>th</sup> percentile 2.0 1.9 1.7 1.7 2.1 90<sup>th</sup> percentile 2.5 2.2 2.3 2.4 2.5 PM<sub>10</sub> (µg m<sup>-3</sup>) 10<sup>th</sup> percentile 13 12 14 15 14 25<sup>th</sup> percentile 15 14 17 16 16 18 50<sup>th</sup> percentile 17 19 20 19 Mean (SD) 18 (4.4) 18 (4.6) 21 (4.9) 20 (4.5) 19 (3.7) 75<sup>th</sup> percentile 22 21 21 23 22 90<sup>th</sup> percentile 24 23 23 28 25 CO (ppm) 10<sup>th</sup> percentile 0.23 0.25 0.26 0.27 0.24

25 <sup>th</sup> percentile	0.27	0.29	0.30	0.30	0.28
50 <sup>th</sup> percentile	0.31	0.32	0.34	0.34	0.31
Mean (SD)					0.31
	0.30 (0.057)	0.32 (0.067)	0.35 (0.079)	0.35 (0.071)	(0.066)
75 <sup>th</sup> percentile	0.33	0.35	0.39	0.38	0.35
90 <sup>th</sup> percentile	0.37	0.40	0.45	0.45	0.39





- 919 racial-ethnic group, for (A) PM<sub>2.5</sub>, (B) NO<sub>2</sub>, (C) O<sub>3</sub>, (D) SO<sub>2</sub>, (E) PM<sub>10</sub>, and (F) CO. For all
- 920 panels, the highest/lowest bound represents the  $90^{\text{th}}/10^{\text{th}}$  percentile value, the box shows the  $25^{\text{th}}$
- and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles, and the horizontal line in the box represents the median. Color circles
- 922 indicate the national population-weighted mean. PM<sub>2.5</sub> has no estimates in 1990 because of a
- lack of monitoring data prior to 1999. "NH" refers to non-Hispanic. "Hispanic" refers to
- 924 Hispanic people of any race(s).
- 925

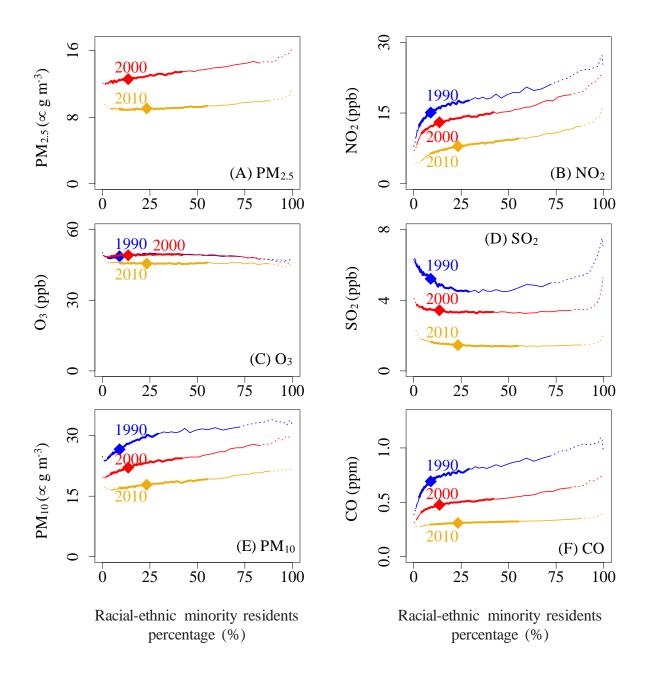
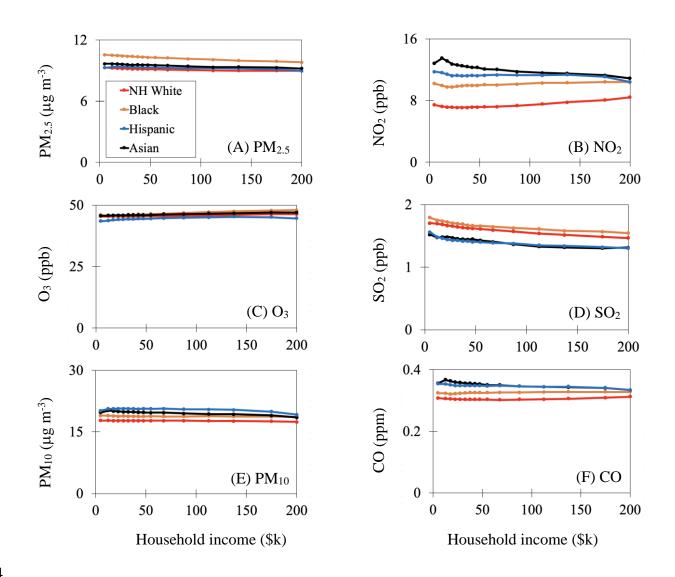


Fig. 2. Relationship between the proportion of racial-ethnic minority residents in census block groups and average criteria air pollution concentrations in the years 1990, 2000, and 2010 for A) PM<sub>2.5</sub>, (B) NO<sub>2</sub>, (C) O<sub>3</sub>, (D) SO<sub>2</sub>, (E) PM<sub>10</sub>, and (F) CO. For each panel, the bold portion of the line indicates the 25<sup>th</sup> to 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of census block groups, the thin line indicates the 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles, the dashed line indicates the 1<sup>th</sup> and 99<sup>th</sup> percentiles, and the diamond icon indicates the median.





935 Fig. 3. Population-weighted criteria air pollution concentration in 2010 for 16 household

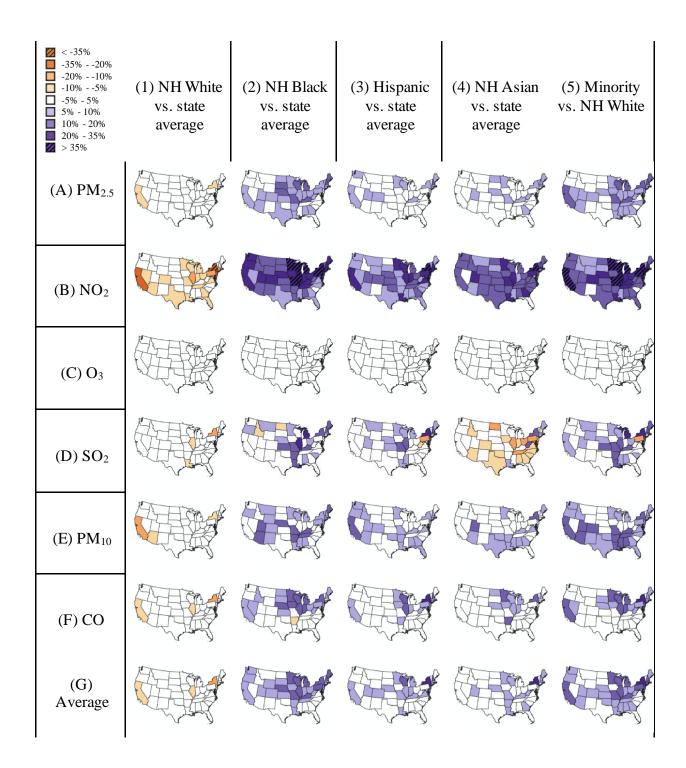
936 income groups, stratified by race-ethnicity, for (A) PM<sub>2.5</sub>, (B) NO<sub>2</sub>, (C) O<sub>3</sub>, (D) SO<sub>2</sub>, (E)

937 PM<sub>10</sub>, and (F) CO. For all panels, each data point represents pollution exposure for one income

938 category and racial-ethnic group. "NH White" refers to non-Hispanic White people. "Hispanic"

939 refers to Hispanic people of any race(s). "Asian" refers to Hispanic and non-Hispanic Asian

- 940 people. "Black" refers to Hispanic and non-Hispanic Black people. Values plotted for household
- 941 income are, for values below \$200k (i.e., for the first 15 income categories), the midpoint value;
- 942 for the highest income category (">\$200k"), the value plotted is the low end of the range943 (\$200k).
- 944



- 946 Fig. 4. State racial-ethnic disparities in average pollution exposure in 2010, showing the
- 947 difference between (1) NH White vs. state average, (2) NH Black vs. state average, (3)
- 948 Hispanic vs. state average, (4) NH Asian vs. state average, and (5) Minority vs. NH White
- 949 for the six pollutants (A) PM<sub>2.5</sub>, (B) NO<sub>2</sub>, (C) O<sub>3</sub>, (D) SO<sub>2</sub>, (E) PM<sub>10</sub>, and (F) CO, and (G)

- 950 **average across the six pollutants.** Columns 1-4: exposure disparity relative to state average;
- calculated as mean exposure for a racial-ethnic group in that state minus the overall mean for that
- state, then divided by the national overall mean. Column 5: exposure disparity for racial-ethnic
- 953 minorities relative to the racial-ethnic majority group; calculated as mean exposure for racial-
- ethnic minorities minus mean exposure for non-Hispanic White people, then divided by the
- 955 national overall mean. Mean values are population-weighted. States displayed in white indicate
- that the disparity is within  $\pm 5\%$  of the national overall mean. Purple shading indicates that mean exposures are higher-than-average by more than 5% of the national overall mean (columns 1-4)
- 958 or that mean exposures are higher for racial-ethnic minorities than for the racial-ethnic majority.
- by more than 5% of the national overall mean (column 5). Orange shading indicates the reverse:
- 960 mean exposures are lower-than-average for that group (columns 1-4) or mean exposures are
- 961 lower for racial-ethnic minorities than for non-Hispanic White people (column 5), and the
- 962 disparity is greater than 5% of the national overall mean. "NH" refers to non-Hispanic.
- 963 "Hispanic" refers to Hispanic people of any race(s).
- 964

# 965 Supplemental Material

- 966 Supplementary material are available online.
- 967

# 968 Acknowledgments:

- Funding: This publication was developed as part of the Center for Air, Climate, and Energy
  Solutions (CACES), which was supported under Assistance Agreement No. R835873 awarded
- by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. It has not been formally reviewed by EPA. The
- views expressed in this document are solely those of authors and do not necessarily reflect thoseof the Agency. EPA does not endorse any products or commercial services mentioned in this
- 975 of the Agency. EPA does not endorse any products of commercial services mentioned in this 974 publication. Author contributions: J.L. conducted the research and most of the analysis,
- 974 publication. Author contributions: J.L. conducted the research and most of the analysis, 975 developed the methods, visualized the data, and wrote, reviewed, and edited the text. M.B. and
- 976 L.P.C. designed the research, performed the research, analyzed the data, and wrote, reviewed,
- and edited the text. A.H., SY.K., A.L.R., L.S., and A.A.S. conceptualized and designed the
- 978 research, oversaw the methods and analysis, and reviewed and edited the writing. J.D.M.
- 979 conceptualized and supervised the project, designed the research, methods, and analysis, and
- 980 wrote, reviewed, and edited the text. A.L.R. and J.D.M. acquired the funding. **Competing**
- 981 interests: The authors declare no competing interests. Data and material availability: All data
- used are publicly available. Demographic data are available via IPUMS National Historic
- 983 Geographic Information Systems [www.nhgis.org]; air pollution estimates are available via the
- 984 EPA CACES project [www.caces.us]).
- 985
- 986 The authors thank Kristin Harper, of Harper Health & Science Communications, LLC, for
- 987 providing editorial support in accordance with Good Publication Practice (GPP3) guidelines. We 988 also thank the CACES science advisory committee (SAC) for feedback on earlier versions of this
- 989 research.
- 990 N
- 991