

# **A meta-analysis of the association of aircraft noise at school on children's reading comprehension and psychological health for use in Health Impact Assessment**

## **Abstract**

Whilst the effects of aircraft noise on children's cognition are well-accepted, their application in Health Impact Assessment (HIA) and methodologies to monetise the effects of noise on health have been limited. This paper presents the first meta-analysis of the effect of aircraft noise at school on children's reading comprehension and psychological health assessed with the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire. Data from three methodologically similar studies carried out in 106 schools near London Heathrow, Amsterdam Schiphol, and Madrid Barajas airports (the Schools Environment and Health Study, the West London Schools Study, and the RANCH study) were analysed finding that a 1dB increase in aircraft noise exposure at school was associated with a -0.007 (-0.012 to -0.001) decrease in reading score and a 4% increase in odds of scoring well below or below average on the reading test. The analyses also found that a 1dB increase in aircraft noise exposure at school was associated with a 0.017 (0.007 to 0.028) increase in hyperactivity score. No effects were observed for emotional symptoms, conduct problems or Total Difficulties Score. Meta-analyses confirm existing evidence for effects of aircraft noise exposure on children's reading comprehension, providing a pooled estimate and exposure-effect relationship, as well as additional estimates and relationships for effects on scoring 'well below or below average' on the reading test offering flexibility for taking reading comprehension into account in HIA and monetisation methodologies in a wide-range of contexts.

## **Keywords**

Environmental noise

Cognition

Psychological health

Child Psychology

Environmental pollution

Health Impact Assessment

Child health and prevention

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## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. *Environmental noise effects on children's cognition and health*

#### 1.1.1. *Environmental noise effects on reading comprehension*

For nearly fifty years, researchers have attempted to quantify the effect of environmental noise exposure on children's learning and cognitive skills (Bronzaft, 1981; Clark, et al., 2006; Cohen, Glass, & Singer, 1973; Cohen, Krantz, Evans, Stokols, & Kelly, 1981; Haines, Stansfeld, Brentnall, et al., 2001; Haines, Stansfeld, Head, & Job, 2002; Haines, Stansfeld, Job, Berglund, & Head, 2001; Hygge, Evans, & Bullinger, 2002; Klatter, et al., 2016; Stansfeld, et al., 2005). Over-time there has been increasing diversification and standardisation of the types of cognitive skills examined covering memory, reading skills, attention, executive function as well as standardised academic test scores, and better characterisation of noise exposure in school and home environments (Clark & Paunović, 2018a).

In the UK, one of the first studies of aircraft noise on children's cognition was the **Schools Environment and Health Study (SEHS)** which compared the reading comprehension of children aged 9-10 years, attending four schools near London Heathrow airport exposed to high levels of aircraft noise ( $>66$  dB  $L_{Aeq,16hr}$ ) with children attending four matched control schools exposed to lower levels of aircraft noise ( $<57$  dB  $L_{Aeq,16hr}$ ) (Haines, Stansfeld, Job, et al., 2001). Environmental noise exposure is typically assessed in decibels (dB) using an average metric covering the day-time period (7am-11pm), referred to as  $L_{Aeq,16h}$ . The SEHS found that chronic exposure to aircraft noise was associated with impaired reading comprehension after adjustment for socioeconomic confounders. This study was followed by a larger study employing a similar methodology (**The West London Schools Study: WLSS**) which compared the reading comprehension of children from ten high-noise schools near London Heathrow airport with that of children from ten matched control schools (Haines, Stansfeld, Brentnall, et al., 2001). The results indicated that children in the noise exposed schools had poorer reading performance but only on the most difficult items of the reading test.

The SEHS and the WLSS informed the European Union funded **RANCH study** in the early 2000s (Road Traffic and Aircraft Noise and children's Cognition and Health), which remains the largest study of the effects of aircraft noise on children's learning and health to date (Clark, et al., 2006; Stansfeld, et al., 2005; Stansfeld, et al., 2009). The RANCH study was a cross-national cross-sectional study of 2844 children aged 9-10 years attending 89 schools near London Heathrow, Amsterdam Schiphol, and Madrid Barajas airports in 2002-2003. Cognitive and health outcomes were measured using the same standardised measures across countries and parents completed questionnaires about sociodemographic factors.

The RANCH study found a linear exposure-effect relationship between chronic aircraft noise exposure and impaired reading comprehension and recognition memory, after taking a range of socioeconomic and confounding factors into account including mother's education, long-standing illness, the extent of classroom insulation against noise, and acute noise during testing (Stansfeld, et al., 2005). A 5 dB  $L_{Aeq,16h}$  increase in aircraft noise exposure was associated with a two month delay in reading age in the United Kingdom (UK) and a one

month delay in the Netherlands (Clark, et al., 2006). No associations were observed between chronic road traffic noise exposure and cognition, with the exception of conceptual recall and information recall, which surprisingly showed better performance in high road traffic noise areas. Neither aircraft noise nor road traffic noise affected attention or working memory. In the UK, the RANCH participants were followed up six years later in secondary school, finding a trend for reading comprehension to be poorer at 15-16 years of age for children who attended noise exposed secondary schools (Clark, Head, & Stansfeld, 2013).

### *1.1.2. Environmental noise effects on children's psychological health*

Whilst the initial focus was on the effects of environmental noise on children's learning outcomes, over the past two decades concerns about effects of noise on children's psychological health have increased (Clark, Crumpler, & Notley, 2020; Clark & Paunović, 2018b; Evans, Bullinger, & Hygge, 1998; Schubert, et al., 2019; Stansfeld, et al., 2009; Tiesler, et al., 2013). Both the RANCH study and the WLSS found a significant effect of aircraft noise on hyperactivity but the SEHS did not find an effect. A recent meta-analysis, which statistically combines the results of multiple studies, estimated that a 10dB increase in road traffic noise was associated with a 11% increase in odds for hyperactivity and a 9% increase in odds for Total Difficulties Score (TDS) based on estimates from three studies from Germany, Denmark and Korea (Schubert, et al., 2019). No meta-analysis for aircraft noise was presented and generally methodological differences and characterisation of noise between studies have limited meta-analyses in this field (Clark & Paunović, 2018b). Conclusions regarding the effects of noise on emotional symptoms, conduct disorders and general psychological distress is equivocal across studies. Further pooling of estimates via meta-analysis focusing on aircraft noise exposure would be beneficial for this field.

## *1.2. Health Impact Assessment*

One major contribution of the RANCH study was that the exposure-effect relationship identified between aircraft noise and reading comprehension made it possible to start to quantify the magnitudes of aircraft noise induced impairments on children's cognition for use in Environmental Impact Assessment and Health Impact Assessment (European Environment Agency, 2020; National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (RIVM), 2018; "The Town and Country Planning (Environmental Impact Assessment) Regulations 2017 "; WHO, 2011). The exposure-effect relationship between aircraft noise exposure and reading comprehension (Clark, et al., 2006), has been used to guide decision making by stakeholders and policy makers, as well as to estimate the benefits of noise reduction and mitigation for large infrastructure projects (High Speed 2 Limited, 2017). The relationship indicates that reading falls below average (a Z-score of 0) at exposures greater than 55dBA  $L_{Aeq,16h}$ ; however, as the relationship between aircraft noise and reading comprehension is linear, reducing exposure at any level should lead to improvements in reading comprehension. A similar linear relationship has subsequently been identified in the German NORAH study (Noise-Related Annoyance, Cognition, and Health) (Klatte, et al., 2016).

Health Impact Assessment relies upon the availability of epidemiological evidence for the effect of an exposure such as noise on the outcome. Over-time evidence can build or change

and it is methodologically robust to use estimates of noise effects from more than one study as provided by meta-analysis, if available, rather than evidence from only one study. To date, undertaking meta-analysis of the effects of aircraft noise at school has proved extremely challenging due to the differing range of cognitive tests employed across studies and countries, the confounders taken into account, as well as variation in studies comparing high versus low exposure groups versus continuous assessment of noise exposure (Clark, et al., 2020; Clark & Paunović, 2018a). The three studies of primary school children carried out around London Heathrow, Amsterdam Schiphol and Madrid Barajas airports described earlier (SEHS, WLSS, RANCH), share a methodology that would lend itself to meta-analysis, with some additional post-hoc analysis.

In the UK, the current guidance for economically valuing the health impacts associated with environmental noise is published by Defra (the Department for the Environment, Food, and Rural Affairs) on behalf of the Interdepartmental Group on Costs and Benefits (Noise Subject Group) (IGCB(N)), with the current guidance relying on evidence for noise and health effects published up to 2014 (Defra, 2014; Interdepartmental Group on Costs and Benefits Noise Subject Group (IGCB(N)), 2010). This guidance informs the government's Transport Appraisal Guidance for noise (Department for Transport, 2015), and Her Majesty's Treasury Green Book on appraisal and evaluation in central government (HM Treasury, 2018), both of which monetise the effects of noise on health. The existing guidance covers the effects of aircraft noise, road traffic noise, or railway noise on acute myocardial infarction, annoyance, stroke, vascular dementia, and sleep disturbance. Children's cognition has not been included to date, as the methodology to monetise noise effects on health requires evidence for a dichotomous not a continuous outcome (Clark, et al., 2020). The RANCH study analysed a continuous reading Z-score. This means that the effects of environmental noise on children's learning is not currently monetised in environmental impact appraisal for projects and schemes, such as the expansion of aviation or airspace change (Civil Aviation Authority, 2018) or new infrastructure (High Speed 2 Limited, 2017). Yet effects on children's learning remain a key concern of impacted communities. Increasing evidence for effects of environmental noise on children's psychological health could also be incorporated into these planning tools.

The aim of this paper was to reanalyse the SEHS, the WLSS, and the RANCH study to enable meta-analyses for the effects of aircraft noise at school on children's reading comprehension and psychological health to be carried out, to provide a pooled estimate for the effects for use in HIA. The aim of the meta-analyses was to quantify effects for a 1dB increase in aircraft noise exposure for both continuous and categorical assessments of reading comprehension and psychological health, to allow flexibility for use in HIA and monetisation tools. The focus on these three studies which use a similar methodology overcomes the issues encountered to date of combining estimates across studies which use different methods (Clark, et al., 2020; Clark & Paunović, 2018a) to start to build information about pooled effects for HIA and monetisation tools both within the UK and beyond.

## **2. Methods**

### *2.1 Sampling and Design*

In the SEHS, the WLSS, and the UK sample of the RANCH study (hereafter, referred to as the RANCH-UK study), children were selected based on annual average ( $L_{Aeq,16h}$ ) aircraft noise exposure in their school from contours published by the Civil Aviation Authority.  $L_{Aeq}$  is the equivalent average sound level measured in decibels (dB) using the A-weighting most sensitive to speech intelligibility frequencies of the human ear. Contours for the year 1996 were used for the SEHS; for the year 1999 for the WLSS; and for the year 2000 for the RANCH-UK study. These noise contours estimate noise for the school postcode for the three-month summer period (July to September) between 7am-11pm. In the Dutch sample of the RANCH study (RANCH-NL study), aircraft noise was based on modelled data linked to school locations with geographical information systems. In the Spanish sample of the RANCH study (RANCH-Spain) aircraft noise was based on predicted noise contours. Within each study, schools were matched according to socioeconomic status on the percentage of children receiving free school meals and speaking English language at home. Mixed ability classes of 9-10 year old children from the selected schools were selected to participate. No children were excluded from the selected classes.

The full-methodologies for the studies are described in full detail elsewhere (Clark, et al., 2013; Clark, et al., 2006; Haines, Stansfeld, Brentnall, et al., 2001; Haines, Stansfeld, Job, et al., 2001; Stansfeld, et al., 2005). The re-analysis of the SEHS was undertaken on data from seven schools rather than eight school, due to a procedural error as reported in the original paper (Haines, Stansfeld, Job, et al., 2001).

## 2.2. Measures

### 2.2.1. Noise exposure assessment

As previously described, for all three studies aircraft noise estimates were based on 16-hour outdoor  $L_{Aeq}$ . The aircraft noise contour data were available nationally in the UK and Spain and were not derived specifically for the studies. In the analyses, aircraft noise exposure was entered as a continuous variable in dB(A).

The SEHS and WLSS studies previously reported the effect of aircraft noise on reading comprehension and the SDQ by grouping the schools into  $<57\text{dB } L_{Aeq,16h}$  or above  $63\text{dB } L_{Aeq,16h}$ . For this reanalysis, the mid-point of the contour band was assigned for the analysis e.g.  $<57\text{dB}$  = entered as mid-point (55.5dB) between 54-57dB contour; 63-66dB entered as 64.5dB; and 66-69dB entered as 67.5dB. Sensitivity analyses using the top-data point and low-data point for each category produced comparable estimated to those reported.

### 2.2.2. Reading comprehension

All studies used nationally standardised tests of reading comprehension. The three UK studies (SEHS, WLSS, RANCH-UK) measured reading comprehension using the nationally standardised 86 item Suffolk Reading Scale (Hagley, 2002). The studies used the level 2 scale which is suitable for children aged 8 years to 11 years of age. The standardised scores on the Suffolk Reading Scale were Z-scored for analysis (mean = 0, SD=1).

The raw scores on the Suffolk Reading Scale can also be categorised into the following categories:  $<70$  well below average; 70-84 below average; 85-94 low average; 95-104 average; 105-114 high average; 115-129 above average; above 129 well above average. To

create a dichotomous categorical reading impairment variable for reanalysis, the lowest two categories (well below average and below average) were combined and compared with low average to well above average scores. These categorical data have not previously been reported for these studies, and are considered a post-hoc analysis.

The RANCH-NL study measured reading comprehension using the CITO (Centraal Instituut Toets Ontwikkeling) readability index for elementary and special education (Staphorsius, 1994). The RANCH-Spanish study measured reading comprehension using the ECL-2 (Evaluación de la Compresión lectora, nivel 2) (De La Cruz, 1999).

### *2.2.3. Psychological health*

The SEHS, WLSS, and RANCH study all assessed psychological health using the psychometrically robust Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) (Goodman & Goodman, 2009; Goodman, 1997). The SDQ is a standardised 25 item screening questionnaire that covers five domains: emotional symptoms; conduct problems; hyperactivity; pro-social behaviour; and peer-relationship problems. In all studies, the child's parent completed the SDQ. A TDS ranging from 0 to 40, is calculated by adding the scores for hyperactivity, emotional symptoms, conduct problems and peer problems. The SDQ provides cut-off scores for each scale and the TDS to indicate whether the score is 'normal', 'borderline' or 'abnormal'. In this analysis, categorical SDQ caseness was defined as 'normal' versus 'borderline or abnormal'. The TDS, emotional symptoms, conduct problems and hyperactivity scores (continuous and categorical) were analysed.

### *2.2.4. Confounding factors*

Analyses took into account socioeconomic factors that were likely to influence exposure to noise at school, reading comprehension, and/or psychological health. In all studies, comparable measures of sociodemographic factors were available from questionnaires completed by the child and parent. The RANCH study retained potential confounding variables in the analyses if analysis of covariance showed a significant relation between the confounder and aircraft noise exposure ( $p < 0.05$ ), retaining age, parent employment status, whether the parent worked full or part-time; crowding in the home; home ownership; child's long-standing illness; main language spoken in the home; classroom glazing of the windows in the child's classroom; mother's educational attainment; and parental support for schoolwork. These confounders were used in additional analyses of the RANCH-UK study undertaken for this paper.

Most of the same confounding variables were also available in the earlier SEHS and WLSS with the exception of parental support for schoolwork, classroom glazing, and long-standing illness. The SEHS and WLSS re-analyses therefore adjust for a slightly reduced number of confounders. Sensitivity analyses undertaken on the RANCH study data reanalysing the estimates with the reduced set of confounders excluding parental support, classroom glazing and long-standing illness made little difference to the estimates suggesting comparative homogeneity between the effect the slightly different sets of confounders have within each study.

## *2.3. Procedure*

The reading comprehension data for all studies was from group testing carried out in the classroom and the reading tests were administered as part of a testing session conducted in the morning of a normal school day. Written consent was obtained from both parents and children for all studies, and ethical approval was obtained for each study (see Appendix). Parents completed questionnaires on sociodemographic factors and psychological health.

## *2.4. Analysis*

### *2.4.1. Overview*

A meta-analysis takes an estimate for an effect from each individual study, e.g. the association of aircraft noise on reading comprehension, and combines them to provide a pooled estimate of the effect across all the studies. For this paper, some of the estimates needed for the meta-analyses were already published in earlier papers (Clark, et al., 2006; Stansfeld, et al., 2009) and could be directly entered in the meta-analysis. Some estimates had to be derived for the meta-analysis using additional regression analyses. All analyses were carried out in Stata version 14 (StataCorp, 2015).

### *2.4.2. Individual study analysis – deriving additional estimates*

Data from the SEHS and the WLSS were analysed using multilevel linear regression analysis to estimate the association per 1dB increase in aircraft noise exposure with the continuous reading comprehension Z-score, as well as the continuous SDQ scores (TDS, emotional symptoms, hyperactivity, conduct problems). Data from the SEHS, the WLSS, and the RANCH study were analysed using multilevel logistic regression analysis to estimate the effect of a 1dB increase in aircraft noise at school on the categorical reading impairment outcome (well-below or below average) and on the categorical SDQ outcomes (a borderline or abnormal score on the TDS, emotional symptoms, hyperactivity, conduct problems scale). Categorical reading impairment was not examined using the pooled RANCH study dataset which includes the UK, Dutch and Spanish data, as scoring ‘well below or below average’ was specific to the UK reading test. For all the regressions, two models were run. Model 1 adjusted only for aircraft noise exposure and Model 2 further adjusted for age, gender, mother’s educational attainment, parental employment status, crowding in the home, parental home ownership, and main language spoken at home. In these multilevel models, pupil factors were entered as level 1 and school factors as level 2.

### *2.4.3. Meta-analysis - deriving pooled estimates*

Random effects (restricted maximum likelihood) meta-analysis was then conducted for each outcome to obtain pooled estimates. For the continuous outcomes the study’s effect size, standard error and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for a 1dB increase in aircraft noise on reading comprehension Z-score or continuous SDQ score were analysed. For the categorical outcomes, the study’s odds ratio, standard error and 95%CI for a 1dB increase in aircraft noise on categorical reading impairment or categorical SDQ score were analysed. Heterogeneity— an assessment of the percentage of variation in effect sizes across studies that is not due to chance, are reported using the  $I^2$  statistic.

An effect estimate for a 1dB unit increase in noise was chosen for all the analyses as it offers precision and flexibility. Future meta-analyses wishing to use the estimates from the three studies can easily use the 1dB estimate or if they so wish multiply it to get an estimate for a 5dB or 10dB increase in noise, where the relationships are linear. The 1dB estimate allows



for ease and precision when plotting exposure-effect relationships and can be applied in environmental and health impact assessment. The 1dB estimate avoids the limitations of previous studies that have reported exposure for ranges of exposure (e.g. 50-55dB) which can be difficult to interpret and apply in assessment, policy, and practice.

#### *2.4.4. Deriving exposure-effect relationships*

Post-hoc analyses were undertaken to derive an exposure-effect relationship between aircraft noise exposure at school and an outcome, where the meta-analysis showed a statistically significant association in the pooled analysis. To derive the relationship, linear or logistic adjusted multi-level regression models were estimated for the pooled datasets (RANCH, SEH, WLSS) with the predicted scores or probabilities plotted against noise exposure.

### **3. Results**

#### *3.1. Overview*

Table 1 summarises the key school and pupil level characteristics of the SEHS, the WLSS and the RANCH study. All of the studies had high response rates. Mean aircraft noise exposure at school was higher for the SEHS and the WLSS studies compared with the RANCH study, but the former studies selected schools with exposures  $<57\text{dB}$  or  $>63\text{dB } L_{Aeq,16h}$ , whereas RANCH examined a wide range of exposures to establish an exposure-effect relationship. There were some differences between the studies. There were higher rates of parental unemployment in the WLSS and the RANCH-UK samples. Levels of homeownership increased markedly across time for the UK samples, as did levels of crowding. Scores on the SDQ were higher in the WLSS sample compared with the SEHS and the RANCH study.

Table 2 provides a summary of the findings of the meta-analyses for each outcome, which are discussed in more detail in the following sections. The Forest plots presented in Figures 1 to 4 present the estimate/odds ratio and 95% confidence intervals for the effect of noise on the outcome for each study individually, with the square depicting the weight given to that study in the pooled analyses: the larger the square the larger the weight for that study. The last row in the Forest Plot presents the estimate for the pooled effect estimate across the studies. The dashed line shows the pooled estimate and the diamond depicts the confidence intervals for the pooled estimate, i.e. the lowest and highest values within which the true estimate lies. The solid black vertical line on the Forest Plots depicts 'no effect': if the confidence intervals for any estimate, either from the individual studies or pooled estimate, cross the solid black vertical line there is no statistically significant effect.

Table 1: Summary of the school and pupil level characteristics of the SEHS, WLSS, RANCH study and RANCH-UK study

Characteristic	SEHS	WLSS	RANCH Study - pooled UK, Netherlands and Spanish samples*	RANCH Study - UK sub- sample
<b>YEAR OF STUDY</b>	2001	2001	2005	2005
<b>SCHOOL LEVEL DATA</b>	n=7	n=10	N=89	n=29
<b>Number of pupils participating</b>	340	451	3207	1174
<b>Aircraft noise exposure at school dB L<sub>Aeq,16h</sub></b>				
Mean (SD)	61.2 (5.22)	60.3 (6.22)	52 (9.7)	52 (9.4)
Range	55-66	54-69	30-77	34-68
<b>Road traffic noise exposure at school dB L<sub>Aeq,16h</sub></b>				
Mean (SD)	n.a.	n.a.	51 (7.57)	48 (7.25)
Range			32-71	37-67
<b>Classroom glazing (%)</b>				
Single glazing	n.a.	n.a.	56.2	58.6
Double glazing			39.3	41.4
Triple glazing			4.5	0.0
<b>PUPIL LEVEL DATA</b>				
<b>Response rate (%)</b>				
Child	77	82	89	87
Parent	84	80	90	82
<b>Reading comprehension Z-score (continuous)</b>				
Mean (SD)	0.00(1.00)	0.00(1.00)	0.00(1.00)	0.00 (1.00)
Range	-1.42-1.44	-2.31-2.84	-2.36-3.07	-2.09-2.55
<b>Reading comprehension (categorical) (%)</b>				
Scoring well below or below average	13.5	14.6	n.a.	18.4
<b>SDQ (mean/SD) (continuous score range)</b>				
Total Difficulties Score (TDS) (0-40)	8.4 (5.79)	11.0 (5.46)	9.73 (5.73)	9.96 (5.96)
Hyperactivity (0-10)	3.3 (2.51)	4.48 (1.91)	3.83 (2.55)	3.82 (2.48)
Conduct disorder (0-10)	1.4 (1.68)	1.9 (1.74)	1.82 (1.65)	1.81 (1.80)
Emotional problems (0-10)	2.0 (2.01)	2.6 (2.14)	2.41 (2.13)	2.47 (2.23)
<b>SDQ borderline or a case (%) (categorical)</b>				
Total Difficulties Score (TDS)	16.9	31.5	10.7	12.1
Hyperactivity	17.3	29.3	16.6	15.8
Conduct disorder	19.0	31.8	15.1	15.3
Emotional problems	20.3	28.4	16.0	17.6
<b>Age</b>				
Mean	9yrs, 8mths	8yrs, 8mths	10yrs, 6mth	10yrs, 3mth
Range	8y7m – 10y,10m	8y1m – 9y8m	8y10m - 12y10m	8y10m - 11y11m
<b>Sex (%)</b>				
Female	51.3	49.8	52.9	54.9
<b>Employment status (%)</b>				
Not employed	16.9	22.3	14.9	22.7
<b>Crowding (%)</b>				
Crowded	8.2	19.2	21.4	22.7
<b>Home ownership (%)</b>				
Not owned	79.5	37.9	27.7	42.1
<b>Long standing illness (%)</b>				
LSI	n.a.	n.a.	24.1	26.4
<b>Main language spoken at home (%)</b>				
Other language	20.6	36.2	11.9	22.0
<b>Mother's education</b>				
Mean (SD) (continuous)	n.a.	n.a.	.50 (.28)	.50 (.28)
No further education (categorical)	51.1	73.5	n.a.	n.a.
<b>Parental support scale</b>				
Mean (SD)	n.a.	n.a.	10.1 (2.0)	10.1 (1.9)
Cronbach's $\alpha$			.650	.591

n.a. the measure was not available in the study.

\*the school and pupil characteristics are provided here for the pooled RANCH sample (combined UK, Dutch, Spanish samples) and the RANCH-UK sample as these are the data analysed for the meta-analyses. Further details about the school and pupil characteristics for the individual RANCH-Dutch and RANCH-Spanish samples are provided in (Stansfeld, et al., 2005).

Table 2: Summary of the pooled estimates from the meta-analyses for the continuous and categorical reading comprehension and psychological health outcomes in the UK studies (SEHS, WLSS, RANCH).

Outcome	No effect	Aircraft noise risk effect on the outcome
Continuous reading comprehension		Yes
Categorical reading comprehension		Yes
Continuous TDS	Yes	
Categorical TDS	Yes	
Continuous Emotional Symptoms	Yes	
Categorical Emotional Symptoms	Yes	
Continuous Conduct Problems	Yes	
Categorical Conduct Problems	Yes	
Continuous Hyperactivity		Yes
Categorical Hyperactivity	Yes	

### 3.2. Meta-analysis continuous standardised reading score

Figure 1 shows the estimates from the re-analyses of the SEHS and the WLSS studies, alongside the original estimate from the RANCH study, estimating the effect of a 1dB increase in aircraft noise at school on standardised continuous reading scores. For the individual studies, only the RANCH study found a statistically significant decrease in continuous standardised reading scores, with a 1dB increase in aircraft noise being associated with a -0.008 (95%CI -0.014 to -0.002) decrease in reading Z-score. The results of the meta-analysis of the estimates from the three studies also shows a statistically significant decrease in continuous standardised reading scores, with a 1dB increase in aircraft noise being associated with a -0.007 (95%CI -0.012 to -0.001) decrease in reading Z-score (Figure 1). The  $I^2$  indicates low heterogeneity between the studies showing that the study findings are broadly consistent.

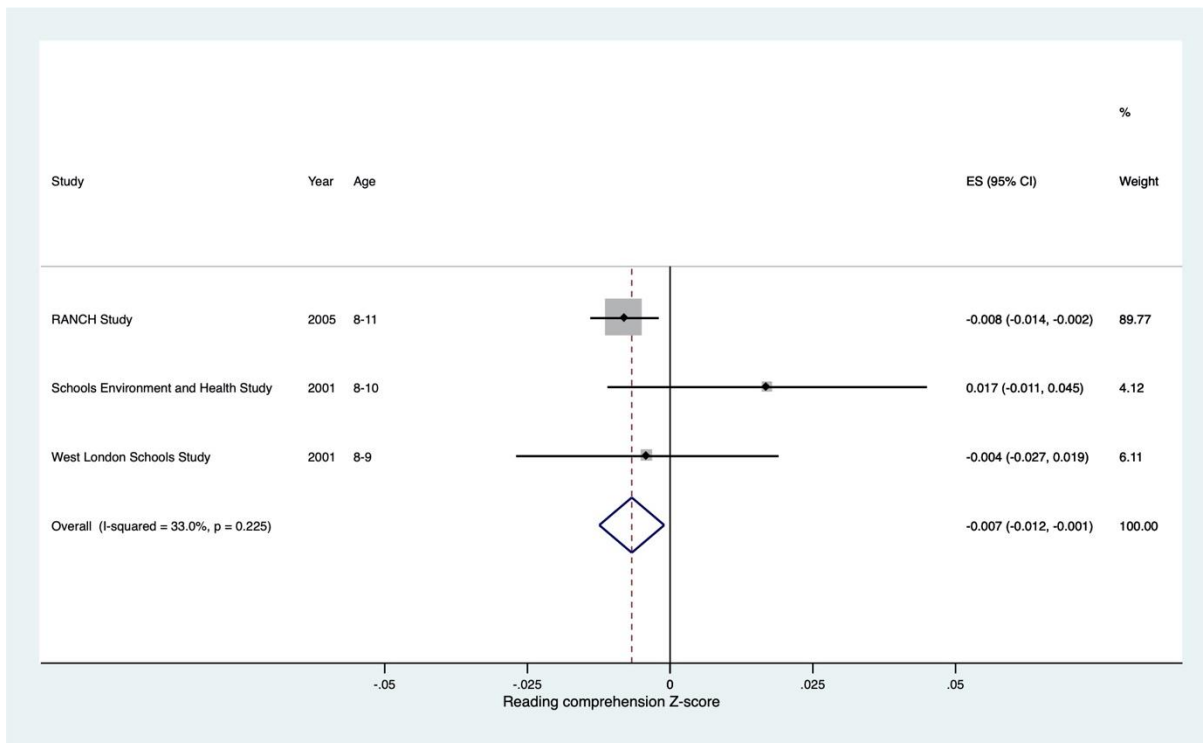


Figure 1: Forest plot showing the association of a 1dB increase in noise exposure at school ( $L_{Aeq,16h}$ ) on continuous standardised reading scores for the RANCH study, the SEHS, and the WLSS.

### 3.3. Meta-analysis categorical standardised reading score

Figure 2 shows the estimates from the re-analyses of the RANCH-UK, the SEHS and the WLSS studies, estimating the effect of a 1dB increase in aircraft noise at school on the odds of scoring well below or below average on the reading test. For the individual studies, only the RANCH-UK study found a statistically significant increase in odds of scoring well below or below average on the reading test, with a 1dB increase in aircraft noise at school being associated with a 4% (95%CI 1% to 6%) increase in odds. The SEH showed a borderline significant effect and the WLSS showed no significant effect. The meta-analysis of these estimates found a statistically significant increase in odds of scoring well below or below average on the reading test, with a 1dB increase in aircraft noise at school being associated with a 4% (2% to 6%) increase in odds. The  $I^2$  indicates very low heterogeneity between the studies showing that the findings are consistent across the studies.

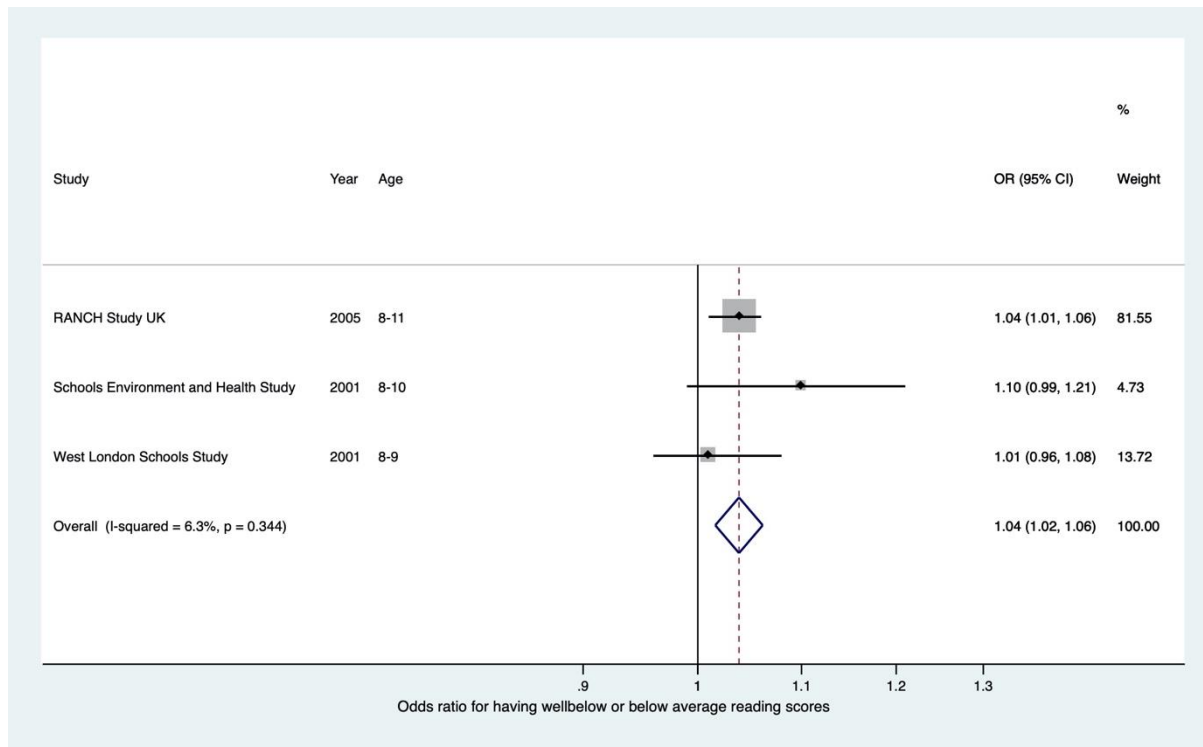


Figure 2 Forest plot showing the association of a 1dB increase in noise exposure at school ( $L_{Aeq,16h}$ ) on odds of having well below or below average standardised reading scores in the RANCH-UK, the SEHS, and the WLSS.

### 3.4. Meta-analysis continuous psychological health outcomes

Figure 3 shows the estimates from the re-analyses of the WLSS and the SEHS, alongside the original estimates from the RANCH study and the meta-analyses estimating the effect of a 1dB increase in aircraft noise at school on the continuous TDS, emotional symptoms, hyperactivity and the conduct problems scales, respectively.

The pooled estimates showed no significant association of aircraft noise at school on the TDS, the emotional symptom scale or conduct problem scale scores. The pooled estimates showed a statistically significant increase in hyperactivity for a 1dB increase in aircraft noise at school ( $\beta=0.017$  95%CI 0.007 to 0.028), with substantial heterogeneity between the studies. Study findings vary considerably across the studies.

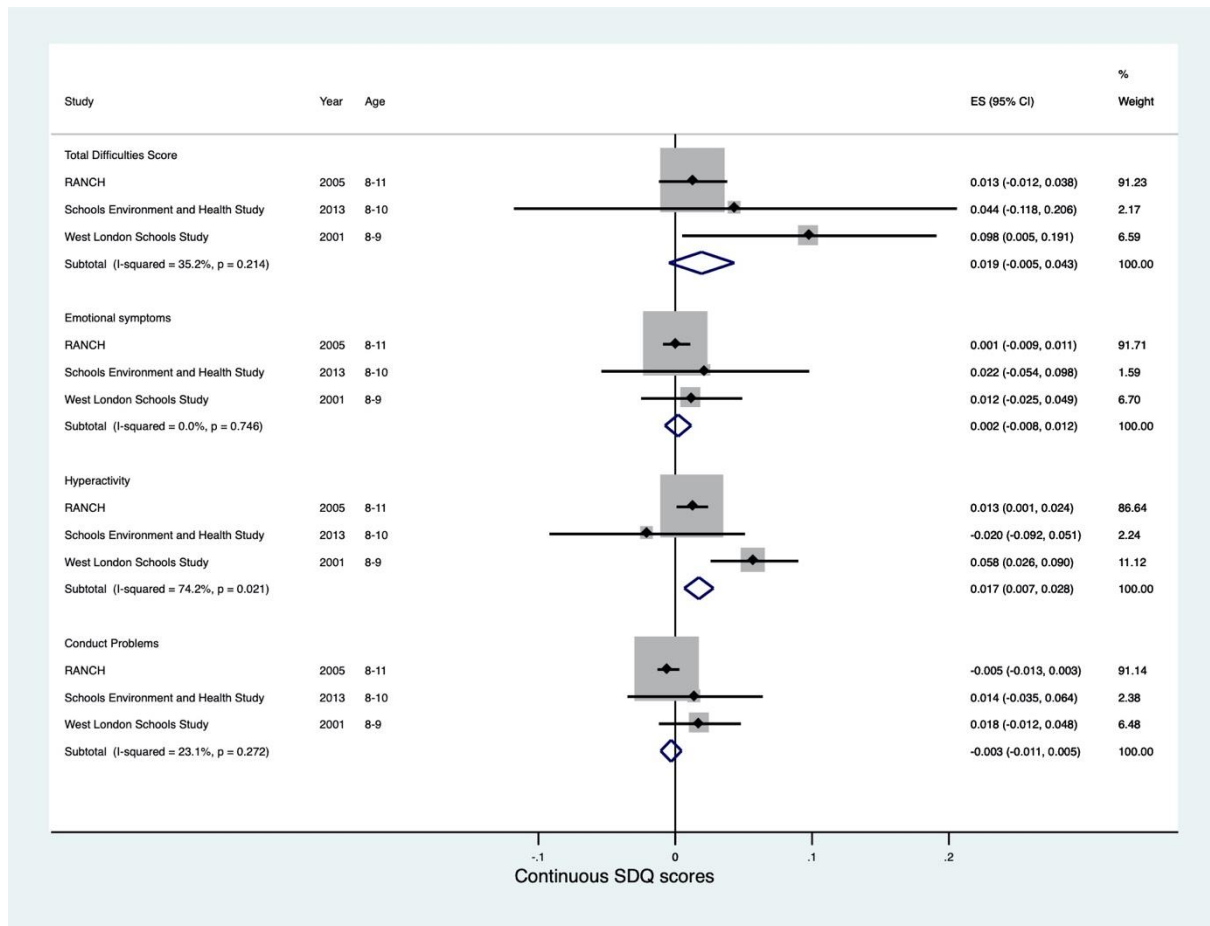


Figure 3 Forest plot showing the association of a 1dB increase in noise exposure at school ( $L_{Aeq,16h}$ ) on continuous total difficulties score, emotional symptoms score, hyperactivity score and conduct problems score from the SDQ for the RANCH study, the SEHS, and the WLSS.

### 3.5. Meta-analysis categorical psychological health outcomes

Figure 4 shows the estimates from the re-analyses of the RANCH study, the SEHS and the WLSS and the subsequent meta-analyses, which showed no significant associations between aircraft noise and the odds of being borderline or a case on the TDS, the emotional symptoms scale, the conduct problems scale or the hyperactivity scale. The  $I^2$  indicated low heterogeneity between the studies for the TDS, emotional symptoms and conduct problems but moderate heterogeneity for hyperactivity. This means that the findings were similar across the studies for the TDS, emotional symptoms and conduct, but varied considerably across studies for hyperactivity.

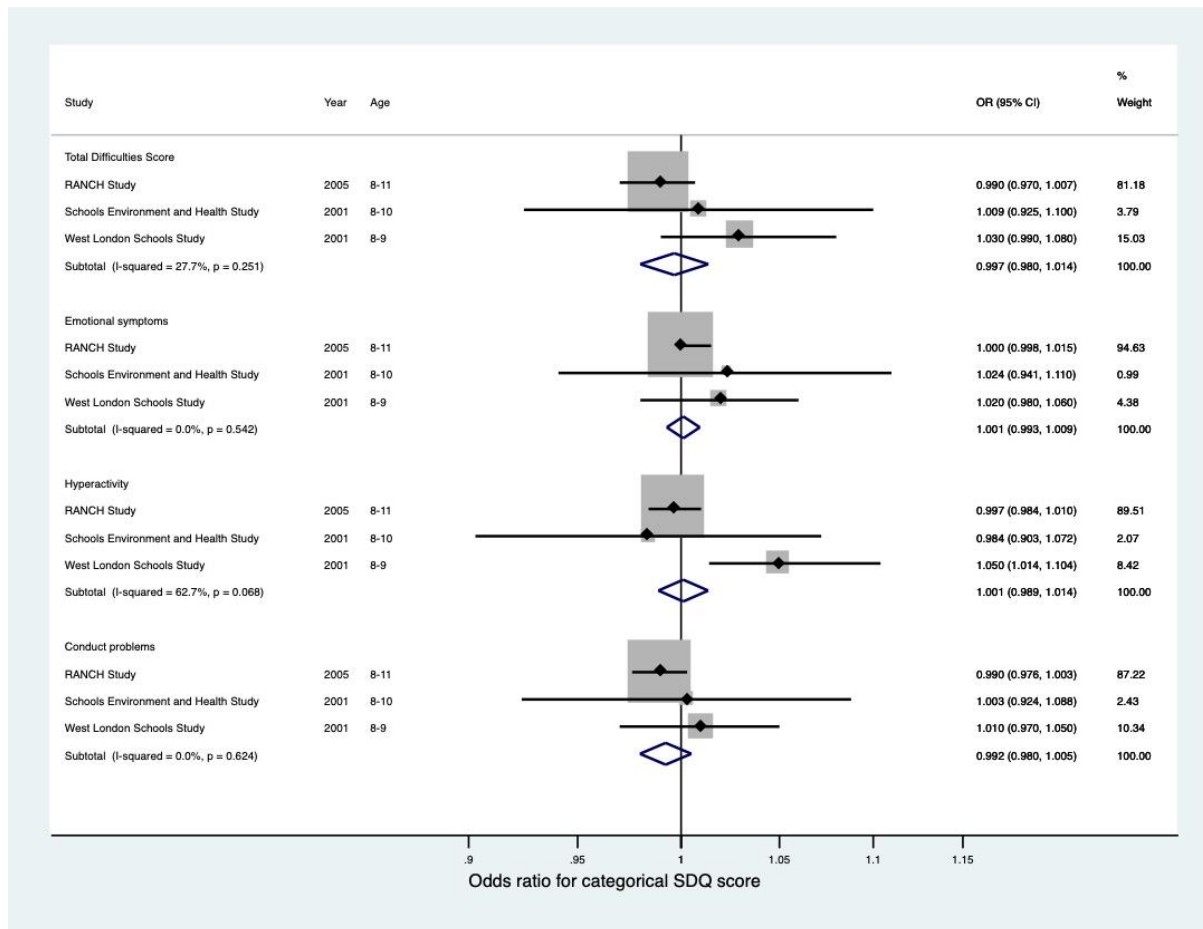


Figure 4 Forest plot showing the association of a 1dB increase in noise exposure at school ( $L_{Aeq,16h}$ ) on categorical total difficulties score, emotional symptoms score, hyperactivity score and conduct problems score from the SDQ for the RANCH study, the SEHS, and the WLSS.

### 3.6. Exposure-effect relationships

To plot the statistically significant pooled estimates obtained from the meta-analyses, adjusted exposure-effect relationships were estimated, from a dataset that combined the RANCH, SEHS and WLSS, for the outcomes which showed statistically significant associations with aircraft noise exposure in the meta-analyses.

Figure 5 shows that the continuous reading Z-score decreases as aircraft noise at school increases: reading Z-scores begin to fall below average (indicated by a Z-score of 0) at around 55dB  $L_{Aeq,16h}$ . Figure 6 shows that the predicted probability of having a well below or below average reading score increases as noise exposure increases. Post-hoc analyses showed that exposure to aircraft noise greater than 55dB was associated with a doubling of odds for having a well below or below average reading score (41-45dB OR=0.40 95%CI 0.04 to 3.32; 46-50dB OR=1.69 95%CI 0.84 to 3.41; 51-55dB OR 1.25 95%CI 0.61 to 2.39; 56-60dB OR=2.55 95% 1.24 to 5.22; 61-65dB OR=2.06 95% 1.08 to 3.93; >66dB OR=1.95 95% 0.94 to 4.03). Figure 7 shows that the continuous SDQ hyperactivity score increases as aircraft noise at school increases: across the range of exposure hyperactivity scores increase by less than 1 (on a scale of 0-10). Supplementary Table 1 provides the raw data underlying these graphs to aid use in future health impact assessment (National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (RIVM), 2019).



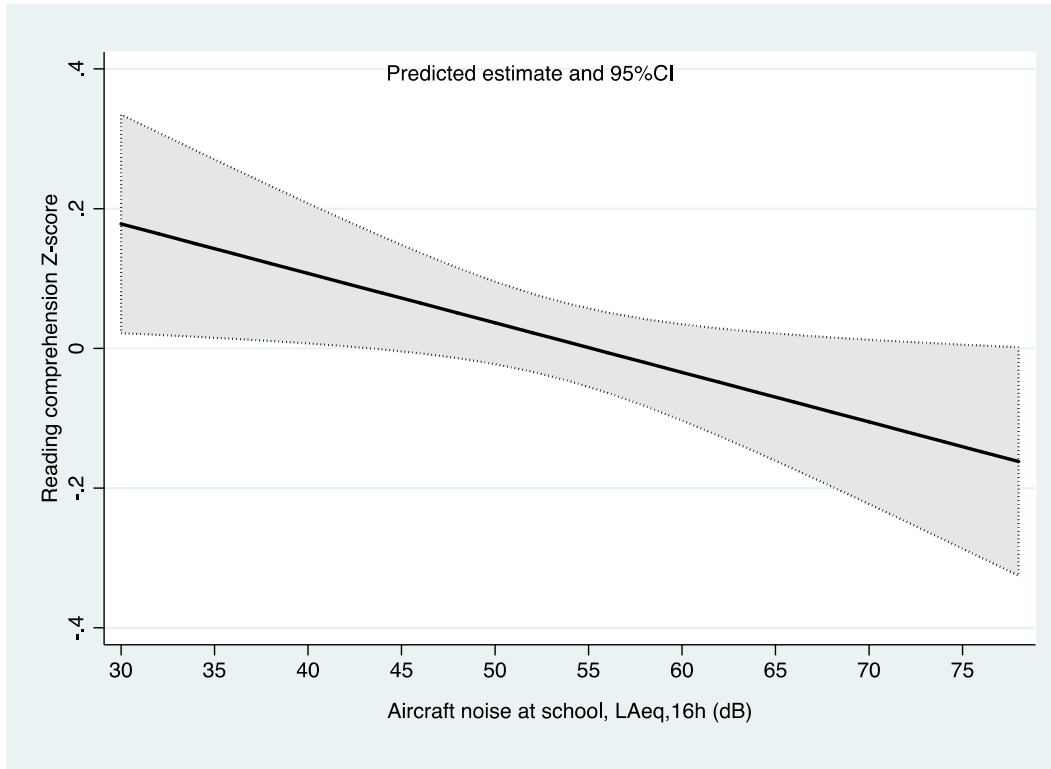


Figure 5 Exposure-effect relationship of the adjusted association of aircraft noise exposure at school ( $L_{Aeq,16h}$ ) on reading comprehension Z-score for the combined data from the RANCH study, the SEHS, and the WLSS.

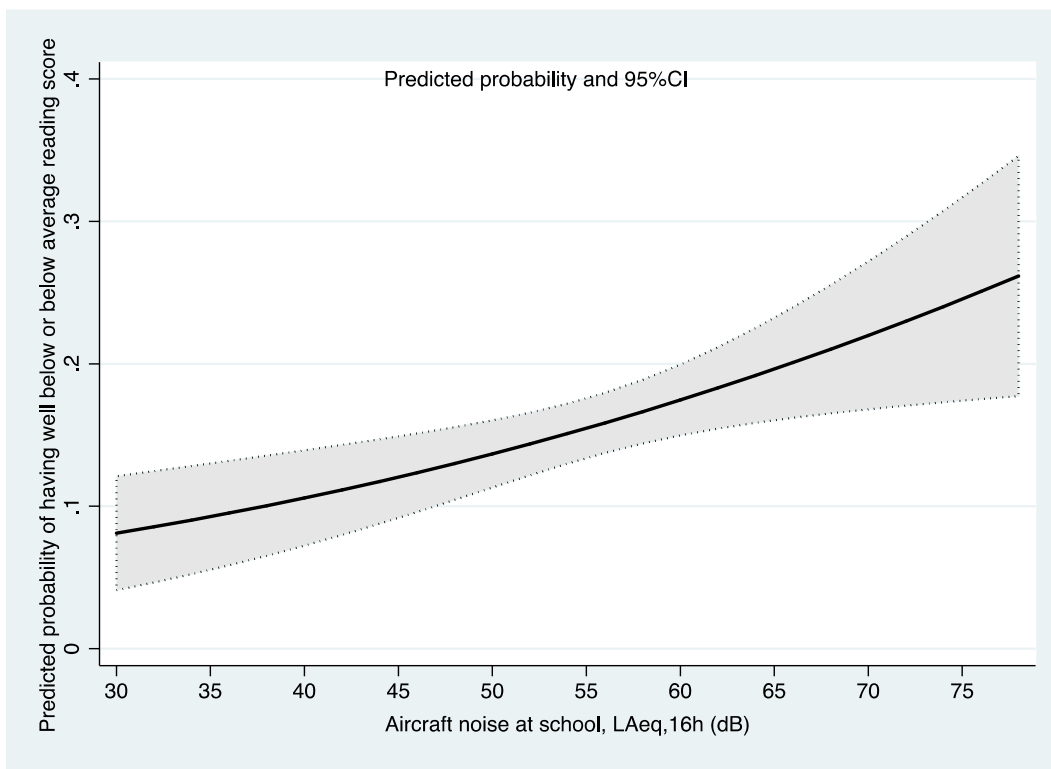


Figure 6 Exposure-effect relationship of the adjusted association of aircraft noise exposure at school ( $L_{Aeq,16h}$ ) on scoring well below or below average on the reading test for the combined data from the RANCH-UK study, the SEHS, and the WLSS.

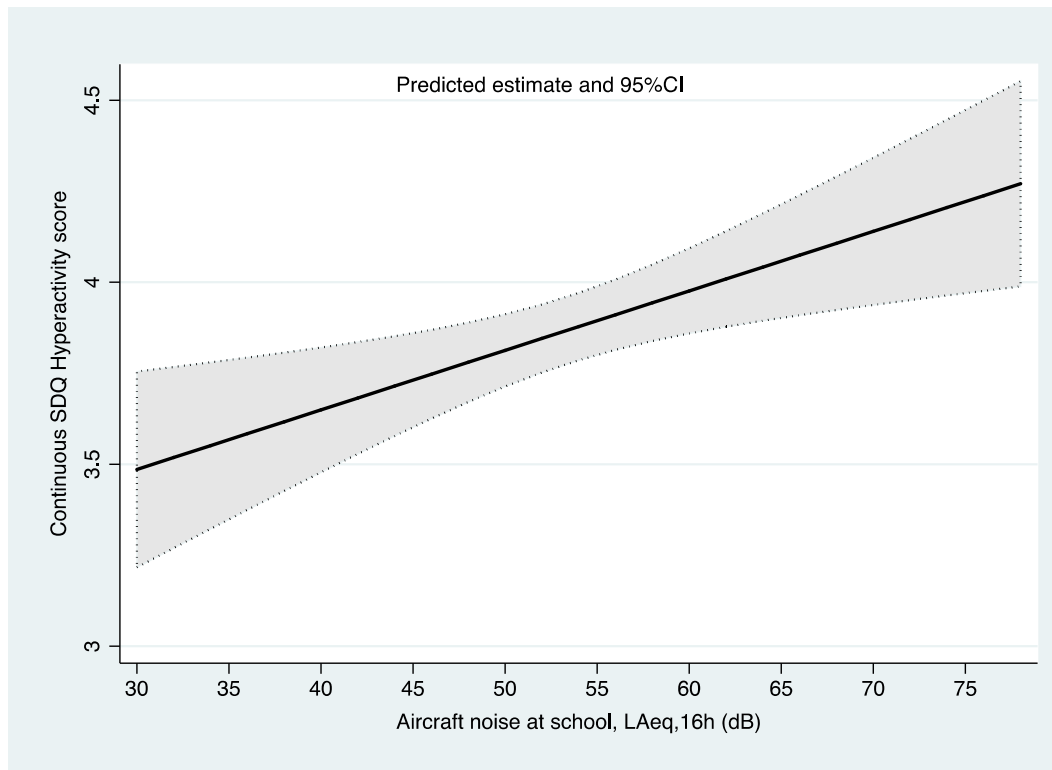


Figure 7 Exposure-effect relationship of the adjusted association of aircraft noise exposure at school ( $L_{Aeq,16h}$ ) on continuous SDQ hyperactivity score for the combined data from the RANCH study, the SEHS, and the WLSS.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Overview of findings

The aim of this study was to derive pooled estimates for the effect of aircraft noise exposure at school on children's cognition and psychological health for use in HIA. This study has conducted analyses of three methodologically similar studies conducted in London, the Netherlands, and Spain between 1996 and 2005, finding that a 1dB estimate in aircraft noise exposure at school was associated with a statistically significant -0.007 (95%CI -0.012 to -0.001) decrease in reading score and a 4% increase in odds of scoring well below or below average on the reading test. The analyses also found that a 1dB increase in aircraft noise exposure at school was associated with a 0.017 (95%CI 0.007 to 0.028) increase in hyperactivity score: however, this effect was not replicated in the analyses of being borderline or a case for hyperactivity. The exposure-effect relationships suggest that exposure to aircraft noise exposure  $>55\text{dB } L_{Aeq,16h}$  at school could be a threshold effect for effects on children's reading comprehension. Above this level reading comprehension starts to fall below average and the odds of having a well below or below average reading score increase. Whilst small in magnitude, these pooled effects have public health significance, given the range of exposure to aircraft noise in the population (European Environment Agency, 2020) and the importance of cognitive development and psychological health for life chances (Hale & Viner, 2018; Henderson, Richards, Stansfeld, & Hotopf, 2012; Kuh & Ben-Shlomo, 2004; Veldman, Reijnveld, Ortiz, Verhulst, & Bultmann, 2015).

The results of the categorical and continuous analyses suggest no effect of aircraft noise on conduct disorder symptoms, or emotional symptoms or TDS. These findings need replicating in further studies, and we consider that, as is the case for several previous systematic reviews, the evidence for effects of environmental noise, and in this case aircraft noise, on children's psychological health remains equivocal (Clark, et al., 2020; Clark & Paunović, 2018b).

Recent systematic reviews of the effects of aircraft noise on cognition and psychological health highlight the methodological difficulties of undertaking statistical meta-analyses in this field despite an increasing evidence base (Clark, et al., 2020; Clark & Paunović, 2018a, 2018b). Study variation in terms of how noise is characterised (e.g. in 1dB or 10dB increments versus high/low noise categorisation using different thresholds), as well as outcome assessment (e.g. the measure used and whether analysed continuously or categorically), adjustment for confounding factors, and level of detail reported in the publication has had a serious impact on the ability to undertake meta-analyses. This has limited most recent systematic reviews using the GRADE methodology (Guyatt, et al., 2008) to provide an overview of the studies available and a narrative assessment of the strength of the evidence, with little quantification of the effects across studies. This paper presents the first quantitative meta-analysis of effects for aircraft noise on reading comprehension and psychological health.

#### 4.2. *Comparison with previous evidence for reading comprehension*

Previous narrative systematic reviews have indicated harmful effects of aircraft noise for reading comprehension (Clark, et al., 2020; Clark & Paunović, 2018a). The pooled estimate from the current study of a -0.007 (95%CI -0.012 to -0.001) decrease in reading comprehension Z-score for the three studies for a 1dB increase in aircraft noise is comparable to that previously found in the RANCH study for the pooled UK, Netherlands and Spanish data sets ( $\beta$  -0.008 95% CI -0.014 to -0.002) (Clark, et al., 2006). The odds of scoring well below or below average on the reading test increased by 4% (95%CI 1% to 6%) for a 1dB increase in aircraft noise at school. However, it should be acknowledged that the similarity of effect size across studies may be an artefact of the similarity of methods used across the studies included in the meta-analysis. These effects are estimated for a 1dB interval, so for example, and as the relationship is linear, a 10dB increase in aircraft noise at school would be associated with a 40% increase in odds of scoring well below or below average on the reading test. It should be noted that aircraft noise effects on reading comprehension are generally thought to be small in magnitude (Clark et al 2006), however, such effects could have important public health implications if a large proportion of the population were exposed and/or if the effects were cumulative or additive over the course of a child's education (Clark et al 2012). The effects are also likely to disproportionately impact those experiencing inequality. The studies included in this meta-analysis cannot speak to the long-term impact of aircraft noise at school on children's learning. Longitudinal studies examining the effects of environmental noise exposure at school during different time-periods and across childhood on the trajectories of children's learning remain a research priority (Clark et al, 2018).

The RANCH-UK follow-up study of participants six years later in secondary school, aged 15-16 years, was not included in the meta-analysis as it is a repeated sample of the original RANCH-UK sample. The RANCH-UK follow-up study estimated a -0.016 (95%CI -0.05 to 0.018) decrease in reading comprehension Z-score for a 1dB increase in aircraft noise. This larger effect could represent the cumulative influence of aircraft noise exposure at school throughout a child's education, however, it is difficult to say whether this truly represents a larger effect in secondary school or is an artefact of the study which only identified a trend and lacked statistical power (Clark, et al., 2013). Unfortunately, there are currently no other studies that assess the effects of aircraft noise on cognition in secondary school students to be able to untangle this issue further.

The effect of aircraft noise on reading comprehension, which is a good marker for children's general cognitive ability, and which influences subsequent attainment and life chances, is now well established and the research focus needs to shift to evaluating interventions to ameliorate these effects in school environments. To date, there is limited evidence available (Bronzaft, 1981; Hygge, et al., 2002; Sharp, et al., 2014). A study of 6,000 schools exposed between the years 2000-2009 around 46 United States airports, (exposed to Day-Night-Average Sound Level of 55dB or higher) found that the effect of aircraft noise on children's learning disappeared once the school had sound insulation installed, supporting policies regarding the insulation of schools that may be exposed to high levels of aircraft noise (Sharp et al., 2014). A study of railway noise abatement also demonstrated improved standardised test scores (Bronzaft, 1981). A study of sound-field systems in the classroom, which project the teacher's voice failed to find any effect on children's cognitive abilities six-months after the installation of the systems (Dockrell and Shield, 2012) but this sample was not exposed to high levels of environmental noise.

#### 4.3. *Comparison with previous evidence for psychological health*

In terms of the strength of the evidence, the findings of the current paper agree with the conclusions of the previous systematic reviews conducted to inform the World Health Organization's updated Environmental Noise Guidelines for the European Region (WHO, 2018), that there was low quality evidence for a harmful effect for hyperactivity and low quality evidence for no effect for conduct and emotional disorders.

The findings of the current meta-analyses for the effects of aircraft noise on the SDQ contrast with those from a recent meta-analysis which estimated a 10dB increase in road traffic noise was associated with a 11% increase in odds for hyperactivity and a 9% increase in odds for TDS based on estimates from three studies from Germany, Denmark and Korea (Schubert, et al., 2019). The current paper found an effect of aircraft noise on hyperactivity scale scores but not on odds for hyperactivity; nor did it find an effect for TDS. These differences may represent source-specific findings or may be an artefact of the analyses, as both meta-analyses analyse a sub-set of the available evidence due to methodological limitations of pooling estimates. Overall, across the meta-analyses currently available similar effect sizes are being observed but the types of psychological ill-health outcome where effects are found is not always consistent or comparable; effects also vary by type of noise exposure. Where effects are observed on psychological health these are also of a small

magnitude and reflect an increase in psychological symptoms rather than a shift to clinical psychological illness, per se (Stansfeld & Clark, 2019). However, population health could be impacted by these types of increases in symptoms if exposure is widespread; if effects are cumulative or additive across childhood; and given the recurring nature of psychological ill-health across the lifecourse (Clark, Rodgers, Caldwell, Power, & Stansfeld, 2007). Longitudinal studies of exposure and trajectories of psychological health across childhood are needed to further clarify the evidence. There is clearly a need for further primary research studies to feed into future meta-analyses, as well as the need to try and incorporate more of the evidence already available into meta-analyses which would require co-ordinated reanalyses. There is also a need for studies to examine the pathway for effects of noise on psychological health as the effects may not be direct. Noise annoyance can cause stress responses which could also influence psychological health in the longer-term (Stansfeld & Clark, 2019). Further, noise could act as an additional stressor and interact with other environmental and psychosocial stressors to influence psychological health (Evans & De France, 2021). The possibility of further confounding by air quality remains, as this has also been shown to be associated with children's cognition and mental health (Forns, et al., 2017; Newman, et al., 2013; Stansfeld, 2015; Sunyer, et al., 2015; van Kempen, et al., 2012; Yolton, et al., 2019).

In the interest of openness and being able to contribute to future meta-analyses, this paper has analysed both the continuous SDQ symptom scale scores as well as the categorical caseness (Stansfeld & Clark, 2019) SDQ score, which, based on an abnormal or borderline score, is more likely to reflect the presence of mental health disorders. However, the original SEHS, the WLSS, and the RANCH study analyses did not hypothesise effects of aircraft noise on SDQ caseness and these analyses are post-hoc. We might expect aircraft noise to be associated with symptom scores but not caseness. The stress-diathesis model is put forward to account for the effect of environmental noise on psychological health, where exposure increases arousal and chronic exposure leads to chronic physiological change and subsequent health effects (Babisch, 2014; Stansfeld & Clark, 2019). Previous reviews have concluded that environmental noise predicts annoyance (Guski, Schreckenberg, & Schuemer, 2017), as well as psychological symptoms, but not clinically definable psychiatric disorder (Stansfeld & Clark, 2019), suggesting that noise exposure might be associated with milder conditions, such as those measured by symptom scales. For example, it has previously been hypothesised that aircraft noise might not cause hyperactivity per se but that it may make an existing tendency towards hyperactivity worse or more obvious (Stansfeld, et al., 2009). This argument may also apply to other psychological health outcomes.

#### *4.4. Implications for Health Impact Assessment*

This study, the first meta-analysis quantifying the effect of aircraft noise on reading comprehension enables reading comprehension to be taken into account in HIA. HIA focuses on estimating the health gains (e.g. employment, opportunities for physical activity) or health losses (e.g. effects on physical or mental health, social capital) associated with an environmental exposure (e.g. noise, air quality) or the development of a scheme as a whole (e.g. airport development, building a new railway) (European Environment Agency, 2020; National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (RIVM), 2018; NHS London Healthy

Urban Development Unit, 2019). We recommend that reading comprehension be included in future HIAs in relation to noise exposure. In terms of the findings of the current study, HIA could apply either the continuous or categorical estimates for reading comprehension, which indicated an adverse effect of aircraft noise on reading comprehension. Stakeholders may find the categorical estimates have more face validity within local communities who might relate more easily to reading comprehension being 'well below or below average' compared with a decrease in a reading Z-score.

Given the equivocal findings for effects of aircraft noise on psychological health from this study, the implications for HIA need careful consideration. The statistically significant estimate for the negative effect of aircraft noise on the continuous hyperactivity score could be applied in HIA. This effect for hyperactivity was also observed in the original RANCH study analyses which included samples from the UK, the Netherlands and Spain (Stansfeld, et al., 2009). At this point in time, until further meta-analyses can be conducted for effects of aircraft noise on TDS, emotional symptoms and conduct problems, quantification of these effects using meta-analyses remain uncertain and these outcomes should not be included in HIA.

#### **4.5. Strengths & Limitations**

Limitations of the research include the smaller samples for the SEHS and the WLSS, however, the use of meta-analyses to pool these studies increases the statistical power of these smaller studies, which have often found trends for effects rather than statistically significant effects. However, the individual reanalyses of the SEHS and WLSS to estimate effects for the meta-analysis may still lack statistical power. The SEHS and WLSS were not designed to estimate effects of a 1dB increase in aircraft noise but to compare high and low exposure. Historically, the studies have been carried out over a 9 year period from 1996-2005, during which time exposure assessment of aircraft noise improved. This has meant that for the earliest studies, SEHS and WLSS, we had to rely on the contour band data available at the time the studies were conducted to estimate exposure rather than exposure in 1dB categories. We have conducted sensitivity analyses showing that the results do not change if we change the assumptions about where in the contour band the true exposure might lie, but exposure-misclassification remains a possibility. We did not have information about aircraft noise exposure at home available in two of the studies (SEHS, WLSS) so were unable to consider the further implication of aircraft noise exposure at home on the findings: previous analyses of the RANCH study found that aircraft noise at school and at home had similar effects on reading comprehension, but home exposure did not explain any additional impact (Stansfeld, Hygge, Clark, & Alfred, 2010). Only the RANCH study was able to take the co-exposure of road traffic noise into account and none of the analyses take air quality into account: both these exposure may alter the findings of the study (Clark, et al., 2012). The meta-analysis is focused on three studies employing very similar methodologies, and does not include additional relevant papers that use different outcomes or methodologies (Connolly, et al., 2019; Klatte, et al., 2016; Seabi, Cockcroft, Goldschagg, & Greyling, 2012). Finally, the studies provide estimates adjusting for a slightly different set of confounding variables, but sensitivity analyses suggest this has had little impact on the findings of this paper.

Strengths of the research include advantages afforded by the shared methodologies across the three studies, which have enabled meta-analysis of estimates that adjust for a wide-range of relevant confounding variables. A further strength is the policy focus of the estimates, which have been specifically designed for application by health impact assessment practitioners and policy makers determining methodologies for the monetisation of noise and health impacts. These assessments are often the only line of defence for communities impacted by airport development in the decision making process. These analyses are designed specifically to be used by these audiences for this purpose.

## 5. Conclusions

Reading comprehension should be taken into account in HIA and monetisation methodologies. This is the first meta-analysis to quantify the pooled effect of aircraft noise at school on children's reading comprehension across studies. The analyses confirm existing evidence for effects of aircraft noise exposure on children's reading comprehension, and provides additional estimates for effects on scoring 'well below or below average' on the reading test. For effects on children's cognition, attention should now shift on the long-established need to evaluate and quantify the impact of interventions, particularly the sound insulation of schools on children's learning outcomes. The meta-analysis also confirmed an effect of aircraft noise on children's hyperactivity symptoms scores. Evidence for effects of aircraft noise on other aspects of children's psychological health remains uncertain. The results of the analyses for reading comprehension and psychological health are designed to inform policy and HIA in a wide-range of contexts.

## Appendix

### Ethical Approval

**The Schools Environment and Health Study and the West London Schools Study:** were approved by the joint University College London and University College London Hospital Committees on the Ethics of Human Research: Committee Alpha; the Hillingdon Health Agency Ethics Committee; and the Ealing, Hammersmith and Hounslow Heath Agency Ethics Committee.

**The RANCH Study:** in the United Kingdom, ethical approval was given by the East London and the City Local Research Ethics Committee, East Berkshire Local Research Ethics Committee, Hillingdon Local Research Ethics Committee and the Hounslow District Research Ethics Committee; in the Netherlands, by the medical ethics committee of TNO, Leiden and in Spain, by the CSIC Bioethical Commission, Madrid.

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Supplementary Table 1: Exposure-effect estimates for aircraft noise exposure and reading comprehension z-score, SDQ hyperactivity score, and scoring well below or below average on the reading test.

Noise exposure	Reading comprehension Z-score			SDQ Hyperactivity score			Scoring well below or below average on the reading test			
	L <sub>Aeq,16h</sub>	Estimate	95%CI	Standard Error	Estimate	95%CI	Standard Error	Predicted probability	95%CI	Standard Error
30		0.178	0.021 to 0.033	0.797	3.48	3.21 to 3.75	0.137	.081	.041 to .121	.020
32		0.164	0.019 to 0.308	0.073	3.51	3.26 to 3.76	0.126	.085	.046 to .124	.019
34		0.149	0.016 to 0.028	0.067	3.55	3.32 to 3.78	0.116	.090	.052 to .128	.019
36		0.135	0.013 to 0.257	0.062	3.58	3.37 to 3.79	0.106	.095	.025 to .131	.018
38		0.121	0.010 to 0.232	0.056	3.61	3.42 to 3.80	0.096	.100	.065 to .135	.017
40		0.107	0.007 to 0.207	0.051	3.64	3.47 to 3.82	0.087	.105	.072 to .139	.017
42		0.093	0.003 to 0.183	0.045	3.68	3.52 to 3.83	0.078	.111	.079 to .143	.016
44		0.078	-0.001 to 0.159	0.041	3.71	3.57 to 3.85	0.069	.117	.087 to .147	.015
46		0.064	-0.007 to 0.136	0.036	3.74	3.62 to 3.86	0.062	.123	.095 to .151	.014
48		0.050	-0.013 to 0.115	0.032	3.78	3.67 to 3.88	0.055	.129	.104 to .155	.013
50		0.036	-0.022 to 0.095	0.030	3.81	3.71 to 3.91	0.050	.136	.011 to .160	.012
52		0.022	-0.033 to 0.078	0.028	3.84	3.75 to 3.93	0.047	.143	.121 to .165	.011
54		0.008	-0.047 to 0.063	0.028	3.87	3.78 to 3.97	0.047	.150	.129 to .172	.010
56		-0.006	-0.063 to 0.051	0.029	3.91	3.81 to 4.00	0.049	.158	.137 to .179	.010
58		-0.020	-0.082 to 0.041	0.031	3.94	3.83 to 4.04	0.053	.166	.144 to .188	.011
60		-0.034	-0.103 to 0.034	0.035	3.97	3.85 to 4.09	0.059	.174	.149 to .199	.012
62		-0.048	-0.125 to 0.028	0.039	4.00	3.87 to 4.14	0.067	.183	.154 to .211	.014
64		-0.062	-0.148 to 0.023	0.043	4.04	3.89 to 4.18	0.075	.191	.158 to .225	.016
66		-0.076	-0.173 to 0.019	0.049	4.07	3.90 to 4.23	0.084	.200	.162 to .239	.019
68		-0.091	-0.197 to 0.015	0.054	4.10	3.92 to 4.29	0.093	.210	.165 to .255	.022
70		-0.105	-0.222 to 0.012	0.059	4.13	3.93 to 4.34	0.103	.219	.168 to .271	.026
72		-0.119	-0.248 to 0.009	0.065	4.17	3.95 to 4.39	0.113	.229	.170 to .289	.030
74		-0.133	-0.273 to 0.006	0.071	4.20	3.69 to 4.44	0.123	.240	.172 to .307	.034
76		-0.147	-0.299 to 0.004	0.077	4.23	3.97 to 4.49	0.133	.250	.175 to .326	.038
78		-0.161	-0.352 to 0.001	0.083	4.27	3.98 to 4.55	0.143	.261	.177 to .345	.043